

A STUDY OF ADMINISTRATIVE BEHAVIOR AND FACTORS
RELATED TO UPWARD MOBILITY IN THREE SELECTED
METROPOLITAN SCHOOL SYSTEMS

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PREFACE

The purpose of this study was to investigate particular dimensions of behavior related to two administrative types, the mobiles and the immobiles. Some of those dimensions were: (1) motives for upward mobility, (2) rationalizations of immobility, and (3) differences in the two types regarding role, needs for job satisfaction, and present and future job plans.

The assistant principals in the secondary schools of three selected metropolitan systems were the subjects for the inquiry. They were identified as mobile or immobile by their respective central office personnel according to whether the subjects' chances for promotion were perceived as above average or below average. It seemed reasonable to assume that there would be differences between the two groups of school administrators.

Indebtedness is gratefully acknowledged to Dr. Thomas E. Powers, whose dissertation, Administrative Behavior and Factors Related to Upward Mobility, was an invaluable guide to the present investigation. His permission to quote from his study and the materials that he sent me were of great benefit.

I am deeply indebted for the guidance and assistance generously given by the following members of my advisory committee: Dr. Kenneth St. Clair, committee chairman, for his constructive criticism and suggestions throughout the writing of the dissertation; Dr. Richard P. Jungers, whose persistent optimism was a source of strength; and

Dr. Guy R. Donnell, for his penetrating and helpful questioning during committee meetings. I also thank Dr. Robert S. Brown, Director of Educational Research, who extended valuable assistance with the statistical aspect of the data. Especially do I thank Dr. Jungers and Dr. Helmer E. Sorenson, Dean of the College of Education, for their continual encouragement to complete the doctorate.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Purpose

The social web of modern society embodies many formal organizations among which loom governments, business corporations, prisons, churches, and schools. Each institution has its own particular goals to which it is dedicated. Those ends vary from institution to institution, but include such objectives as: maintaining national security, maximizing profit, controlling deviants, committing members to their tasks, and enhancing the process of learning.

In order that the goals may be reached efficiently, many organizations have acquired the accoutrements of a bureaucracy, which generally are referred to as a specialization of tasks, an adherence to rules and regulations, performance based on expertise, and a hierarchy of authority. In such organizations, information and directives usually flow downward from management to middle management, to superintendents, to foremen, to line supervisors, and finally to the workers themselves.

Organizations usually present greater rewards to those who occupy positions higher on the hierarchical ladder. Thus, within most institutions there are aspirants for roles of greater responsibility who are referred to as "ambitious," "restless," "energetic," "dynamic," etc. The matter of just which qualities are to be considered in promotional procedures and who will be promoted are problems frequently confronting

organizations. Particularly is the issue acute when there are several candidates of nearly equal ability.

Schools, too, have a hierarchical design which by the very nature of its pyramidal structure presents some problems. One revolves around the matter of upward mobility in the respect that there usually are more personnel within an organization aspiring for advancement than there are positions available. Some administrators possess a strong need to move continually upward; others who are quite competent apparently do not care to change positions; while yet a third group would prefer a move upward but are unable to secure such promotion.

Powers has classified role-incumbents according to whether they:

- (1) aspire for high position, but have as yet been neither rejected nor accepted for advancement,
- (2) aspire for higher position, but have been formally rejected for advancement, or
- (3) do NOT aspire for higher position, but prefer to remain in their present role.

These descriptions may be used to refer to three types of administrators, defined as mobiles, immobiles, and non-mobiles, respectively.¹

These are the terms that describe the public school principals in this research.

Regarding mobility, incumbents in the same role differ with respect to behavior and personal characteristics. Whereas one administrator may be more oriented to the needs of the institution, another may give priority to the desires of individual teachers. One assistant principal may be warm and empathetic when working with his faculty, while another may remain aloof and unapproachable, preferring to

¹Thomas E. Powers, "Administrative Behavior and Factors Related to Upward Mobility" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1966), p. 1.

accomplish his tasks by issuing memoranda. Further, one principal will likely be promoted soon, but the other is unlikely to receive promotion even though he desires it.

In view of these considerations several questions may be raised. In particular, what behavioral and psychological qualities of assistant principals are related to upward mobility? Are there basic differences in behavior between the mobile and the immobile? If so, what are they? These are some of the queries the investigator sought to answer. The basic question, however, with which this research was concerned was, "Are the findings gained from a study of thirty-three assistant principals in three school systems congruous with the results obtained from Powers' study of sixty assistant principals in one school system?"

The present study was originally conceived as a replication of Powers' investigation of mobility, but replication was quickly found not to be possible for several reasons. (1) Powers' study had a large population of 240 from which to choose a sample of 60, while the present investigation had a population of only 85 from which to choose 33 as a sample. (2) Powers classified a group as non-mobile; no group could be so classified in the present study since none of the assistant principals desired their position for a career. (3) The assistant principals in Powers' research had formal means of applying for advancement; the subjects in this study utilized informal procedures, very often simply relying on the central office to contact them. (4) Powers studied one school system; this study involves three systems. (5) Powers gathered data at a time when applications for advancement had been neither accepted nor rejected, while data for this investigation were gathered at a time earlier than when assistant

principals would even initiate informal action for advancement.

While the present study is not a replication it, nevertheless, follows the general approach of Powers, who studied the upward mobility of secondary school principals in a large southern school system. Impetus for the present investigation was given by Erickson, a member of Powers' advisory committee, who expressly stated, "But since city school systems may differ greatly in this regard (upward mobility of principals), Powers' work needs to be replicated elsewhere."²

Some of the findings on which the comparisons of the two studies were based involved (1) motives for upward mobility, (2) differences in behavior as perceived by the principals, and (3) differences between mobiles and immobiles with respect toward role, present and future job plans, and needs for job satisfaction.³

Job satisfaction is a crucial concern for those who have been unsuccessful in their attempts at advancement since it is inversely proportional to an individual's search for alternative programs, which, in turn, are directly related to the expected value of rewards and to levels of aspiration.⁴ This variable was also studied.

Following Powers' design, the investigator examined intelligence, certain personality variables, and items of personal history with respect to the mobiles and immobiles. Several empirical studies have revealed that these variables differ among subjects. Wald and Doty

² Donald A. Erickson, "The School Administrator," Review of Educational Research, XXXVII (1967), p. 423.

³ Powers, p. 2.

⁴ James G. March and Herbert A. Simon, Organizations (New York, 1958), p. 49.

found six facets of personality to be associated with administrative success: seriousness, firmness, tranquility, frankness, stability, and tolerance.⁵ Henry discovered that fear of failure, the idea of authority, decisiveness, and achievement desires were associated with the "successful" business executive.⁶ Lipham found that achieving success, relating well to others, and being secure in the face of adversity were discriminating traits among principals.⁷ These variables were explored and compared with the same traits in Powers' study.

Review of the Literature

A number of empirical investigations have been conducted with regard to isolating those characteristics indicative of "effective" and "ineffective" administrative types. This is of particular importance to those formal organizations that have more aspirants for a position than there are positions available. In a practical sense, a knowledge of behavioral and psychological characteristics of administrators more nearly assures the organization of employing a candidate that will be effective in the role.

The psychological approach is based upon the recognition that an individual's behavior is determined at least in part by his personality structure. James Lipham states that the personality prerequisite for effective performance in a given role has become an area of increasing

⁵Robert M. Wald and Roy A. Doty, "The Top Executive--A First Hand Profile," Harvard Business Review, XXXII (1954), pp. 51-52.

⁶William E. Henry, "The Business Executive: The Psychodynamics of a Social Role," American Journal of Sociology, LIV (1949), pp. 286-289.

⁷James M. Lipham, "Personal Variables of Effective Administrators," Administrators Notebook, IX (1960), pp. 1-4.

concern in behavioral research.⁸

The work of Presthus lends considerable weight to the present study. He states that men behave according to the perceived expectations of a given social role and that man's personality is worked out in a social and interpersonal context to the extent that a role incumbent rejects anxiety-producing responses in favor of those that insure approval. As a result, three kinds of personal accommodation evolve that are associated with three personality types, the "upward mobiles," the "indifferents," and the "ambivalents."⁹ It is Presthus' classification that essentially provides Powers with his typology of mobility, a part of which was used in this investigation. The three personality types will be explained later.

Concerned with the behavioral and personal characteristics of administrators and aware of the frequent discrepancy between what an administrator professes to believe and what his actions are, Lipham and Franke explored the non-verbal behavior of forty-two principals classified on the basis of effectiveness ratings by central office personnel. They were divided into two equal groups of "promotables" and "non-promotables." There was a significant difference in the types of interaction between the two groups. The "promotables" left their desks when greeting visitors, took care of their hats and coats, adjusted blinds and sat within three or four feet of their guests; whereas, the "non-promotables" sat behind their desks, greeted visitors only verbally, and sat as far as twelve feet away from them. Also,

⁸Lipham, p. 1.

⁹Robert Presthus, The Organizational Society (New York, 1962), p. 164.

there were differences between the two groups with respect to concluding conferences with visitors and in the amount and variety of personal items in the office. The "promotables" took visitors on tour, got them coffee, and saw them to the door of an office containing pictures, paintings, mountings, etc. The "non-promotables" literally perspired during the interview, longing for its termination.¹⁰

Gross, Giacuinta, Napior, and Pederson were interested in the satisfaction of principals who desired to attain higher level administrative positions. Their National Principalship Studies involved a cross-section of 501 principals in 41 cities in all regions of the United States. From the 382 men principals in the sample, they found that the level of aspiration of a principal was indirectly related to his satisfaction with (1) the income rewards, (2) the social status, and (3) the higher administration. On the other hand, factors that were directly related to intrinsic job satisfaction were the principal's perception that (1) the decision-making machinery of the higher administration was effective, (2) the communication he receives from his superordinates is adequate, and (3) his administrative superiors give him adequate social-emotional support.¹¹

A study concerned with what motivates role incumbents to behave as they do was undertaken by Abbott. In his investigation of the values of thirty-seven superintendents and 213 board members, he emphasized the merit of selective interpersonal perceptions of a role incumbent.

¹⁰James Lipham and Donald Franke, "Non-Verbal Behavior of Administrators," Educational Administration Quarterly, II (1966), pp. 101-109.

¹¹Neal Gross et al., The Job and Career Satisfaction of Men School Principals and The Level of Occupational Aspiration of Men School Principals, Cooperative Research Project No. 2536 (Cambridge, 1967), chapter 11, pp. 2-5; chapter 8, pp. 2-4.

He analyzed the superintendent - school board relationship by stating that it was not sufficient merely to determine whether school boards and superintendents are in agreement on basic issues. What is of greater consequence is knowing how each member of the relationship perceives the positions of other members since these perceptions will largely determine the action taken.¹² It would seem that the same phenomenon would exist in the relationships a principal has with his faculty, on the one hand, and with his superintendent on the other. The perception of what is, rather than what actually is, could affect a role incumbent's attitude toward upward mobility.

Henry, also, was concerned with identifying personal characteristics of executives. He studied one hundred business executives in various types of business houses, using the Thematic Apperception test and a number of personality tests, as well as conducting a short undirected interview. He found that successful executives have high achievement desires; have mobility drives; utilize authority as a controlling but helpful relationship to superiors; have a high degree of ability to organize unstructured situations; have decisiveness; have fear of failure; are strongly oriented to reality; look to their superiors with a feeling of personal attachment; and have broken emotional ties of parents.¹³

Interested in factors pertaining to promotion and aware that there might be some discrepancy between an organization's avowed promotional procedures and what actually is the procedure, Coates and Pellegrin

¹²Max G. Abbott, "Values and Value-Perceptions in Superintendent-School Board Relationships, Administrators Notebook, IX (1960), pp. 1-4.

¹³Henry, pp. 286-291.

investigated the occupational mobility of fifty executives and fifty supervisors. They were asked to evaluate the relative importance of several informal factors in bureaucratic promotion. Two of the most important were (1) participation in off-the-job activities and (2) conformity with the social characteristics of the superiors who control promotion. Parenthetically, the study points out the increasing difficulty of measuring individual job performance on the basis of merit alone.¹⁴

Caplow, agreeing with Coates and Pellegrin, asserts that support of the social characteristics of his superiors is important for the promotion of an individual, since promotion depends on the judgement of one's superiors. The superiors are inclined to select those who ". . . have demonstrated specific ability to conform to hierarchic expectations, to render personal services to their sponsors, . . . and to maintain the interests of the group against outsiders."¹⁵ This suggests the importance of the informal sphere of an organization, for certainly the nuances of wearing a tie similar to the superior's or mimicking his speech inflections are not part of the formal organization. The embracing of the informal norms is important for promotion.

Further impetus is given to the importance of the social influence in Gouldner's study of 125 faculty members in a small liberal arts college of 1,000 students. He found that one group of faculty members evidenced high organizational loyalty, low commitment to specialized

¹⁴Charles H. Coates and Roland J. Pellegrin, "Executives and Supervisors: Informal Factors in Differential Bureaucratic Promotion," Administrative Science Quarterly, II (1957), pp. 204-208.

¹⁵Theodore Caplow, The Sociology of Work (Minneapolis, 1954), pp. 68-73.

skills, and an inner reference group orientation. On the other hand, another group of faculty had low organizational loyalty, high commitment to specialized skills, and an outer group orientation. They were referred to by the author as "locals" and "cosmopolitans." The key characteristic of the former was their high loyalty to the local organization.¹⁶

Another empirical investigation relating personality variables to administrative effectiveness was conducted by Lipham. Specifically, he sought to answer the question, "Which personality need-dispositions are relevant to the role of the principal?" He found that the effective principal was (1) inclined to engage in strong and purposeful activity, (2) concerned with achieving success and positions of higher status, (3) able to relate well to others, (4) secure in interpersonal relationships, and (5) stable in the face of adversity. On the other hand, the ineffective principal was described as deliberate and preoccupied, as accepting with servile attitude his present level of achievement, as lacking skills essential for working with adults, as highly dependent on others for support, and as likely to become highly emotional in upsetting situations.¹⁷

Gardner was also concerned with the behavior of executives within an organization and their relations with others on the job. He studied 473 executives from fourteen firms, determining that the successful ones may be discriminated from the unsuccessful ones according to

¹⁶Alvin W. Gouldner, "Cosmopolitans and Locals: Toward an Analysis of Latent Social Roles, Administrative Science Quarterly, II (1957), pp. 281-306; III (1958), pp. 444-480.

¹⁷Lipham, "Personal Variables . . . ," pp. 1-4.

eleven traits, among which are high achievement desires, strong mobility drives, decisiveness, firmness of conviction, realism, and organizational ability.¹⁸

Another development concerned with the relationship between personal characteristics and administrative success was effected by Wald and Doty. They studied 33 top level executives who each earned at least \$20,000 a year with companies that each maintained more than \$5,000,000,000 worth of business annually. The subjects were given the Wonderlic Personnel Test, the Adams-Lepley Personnel Audit, and the Kuder Preference Record from which, along with a questionnaire and an extensive interview, the following information was revealed:

- (1) The successful or likely-to-be-successful executive has experienced a happy home life in his earlier years, conducive to the development of security and self-confidence.
- (2) He is extremely interested in and very much attached to his present family unit.
- (3) The educational level completed by the typical executive is far above the average of the general population.
- (4) He takes full advantage of varied educational opportunities.
- (5) He is an active participant in and leader of social organizations during childhood and throughout his career as a worker.
- (6) He is interested in religion as a force toward developing high moral and ethical standards.
- (7) He has experienced and continues to experience good health.
- (8) He is interested in people - particularly in selling them on the idea of fundamental cooperation.
- (9) He possesses very superior mental and analytical ability.
- (10) He is serious and conscientious in his approach to work, willing to take risks only after full consideration of the available facts.
- (11) He is forceful and intense. . . .
- (12) He is objective in facing his personal problems, frank and straightforward in his dealings with people, and spontaneous in his interpersonal relationships.

¹⁸Burleigh B. Gardner, "What Makes Successful and Unsuccessful Executives," Advanced Management, XIII (1948), pp. 116-125.

- (13) He is ambitious and able to identify his ambitions with those of his company. . . .¹⁹

Background to the Study

All the studies previously cited deal directly with the concept of upward mobility. Even though there were differences in design, methodology, and instrumentation, they all were concerned with personality variables and behavioral characteristics associated with advancements within organizational hierarchies. Such studies provide operational definitions of "effective" and "non-effective" administrators. Of course, such a bill of particulars is of practical significance in providing some assurance to the organization of selecting the most effective candidates who are also more likely to exemplify efficiency in operation.

Seeman, in a study of fifty superintendents, constructed a typology based on the role incumbents' actual history of mobility as well as their attitude toward mobility. The four-way typology was composed of (1) the mobile status-seeker, (2) the unsuccessful status-seeker, (3) the mobile non-striver, and (4) the stable non-striver.²⁰

The typology is related to the behavioral descriptions of the executive provided by his staff. In this regard Seeman says:

In brief, the typology helps us to predict some quite important aspects of what leaders are called upon to do in their organizational role: their readiness to accept organizational change; their application of firm organizational controls; their responsiveness to the needs of group members. Apparently, too, this kind of approach aids in revealing

¹⁹Wald and Doty, p. 53.

²⁰Melvin Seeman, "Social Mobility and Administrative Behavior," American Sociological Review, XXIII (1958), pp. 633-642.

the kinds of perceptual distortions of their role that characterize these types of leaders.²¹

At this point, based on the findings of Seeman, Powers differentiated two general types of role incumbents according to their attitude toward mobility: (1) "upward mobiles" and (2) "non-mobiles." An "upward mobile" was conceived as having a positive orientation toward ascending the hierarchical ladder, whereas the "non-mobile" was conceived as being satisfied to remain in his present position.²²

The "upward mobile" group may be conceptualized into two groups. Familiarity with formal organizations and writings about them reveal that there very often are personnel working within organizations who have been denied advancement. Presthus alludes to the unsuccessful "upward mobile" by contending, "One 'upward mobile' may have compulsive success drives that are quite unrealistic, while another may retain a rational estimate of his own ability and of the reward he may expect."²³ By differentiating two salient attitudes inherent in the original "upward mobile" group we may distinguish (1) the hopeful "upward mobile" from the (2) unsuccessful "upward mobile," thus the former may be referred to as mobile, the latter as immobile. Remembering the non-mobile we now have three groups, after the typology developed by Powers.

This study was concerned with differences among the two types, mobiles and immobiles, since no non-mobiles were identified according

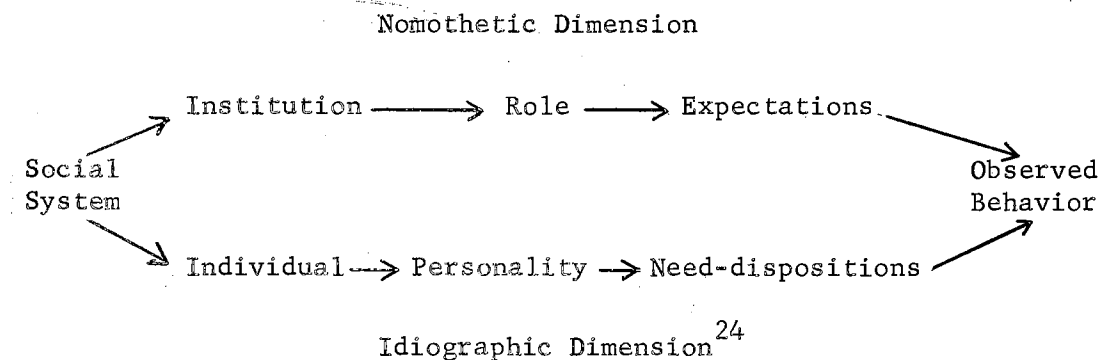
²¹Melvin Seeman, "Social Mobility and Administrative Behavior," American Sociological Review, XXIII (1958), p. 642.

²²Powers, p. 7.

²³Presthus, p. 166.

to the definition: those satisfied to remain in their present position. It was expected that the "upward mobiles," as defined by Presthus, who are denied promotion would behave differently from those who were granted promotion, thus justifying the use of two distinct categories.

Two specific dimensions of administrative behavior were related to upward mobility in Powers' study, and of course, were used in this one. They have been given wide publicity in the literature and have served as the framework of a host of empirical studies of formal organizations. Getzels and Guba's general model of the nomothetic and idiographic dimensions of social behavior is illustrated below.



The behavior of the subjects in this investigation will be studied with reference to the two major dimensions portrayed in the Getzels-Guba model. On each axis each term is the analytical unit for the

²⁴J. W. Getzels and E. G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," The School Review, LXV (1957), pp. 423-441.

term immediately preceding it. The elements of the nomothetic dimension have been defined as follows:

The term institution has received a variety of definitions. For our purposes it is sufficient to say that all social systems have certain imperative functions that come in time to be carried out in certain routinized patterns; the agencies established to carry out these functions for the social system as a whole may be termed institutions. The most important analytical units of the institution are the roles, which to use Linton's terminology are the "dynamic aspects" of positions, offices, and statuses, and may be defined in terms of the role expectations, that is the rights, privileges, and obligations to which any incumbent of the role must adhere.²⁵

The major elements of the idiographic dimension have been defined as follows:

The term personality has received a variety of definitions. For our purposes it is sufficient to conceive of it as the dynamic organization within the individual of those need-dispositions that govern his unique reactions to the environment and to the expectations in the environment. The central analytic elements of personality are the need-dispositions, which we may define with Parsons and Shils as "individual tendencies to orient and act with respect to objects in certain manners and to expect certain consequences from these actions."²⁶

From the basic model, Getzels and Guba conceptualized two constructs of administrative behavior: nomothetic and idiographic, sometimes referred to as "normative" and "personal," respectively. The descriptions are as follows:

- (1) The nomothetic style emphasizes the nomothetic dimension of behavior and accordingly places emphasis on the requirements of the institution, the role, and the expectation rather than on the requirements of the individual, the personality, and the need disposition.

²⁵J. W. Getzels, "Theory and Practice in Educational Administration. An Old Question Revisited," Administrative Theory As A Guide To Action, ed. Roald F. Campbell and James Lipham (Chicago, 1960), p. 54.

²⁶Ibid., p. 56.

- (2) The idiographic style of leadership-followership emphasizes the idiographic dimension of behavior and accordingly places emphasis on the requirements of the individual, the personality, and the need-disposition rather than on the requirements of the institution, the role, and the expectation.²⁷

Two instruments designed to measure administrative behavior have been developed that are consistent with the two major dimensions of the Getzels-Guba framework. Willower developed the T-G form, which gives a brief description for the nomothetic and idiographic styles in terms of the principal-teacher relationship in a school situation. These may be defined respectively as the "normative" and "personal" descriptions of a school administrator's behavior.²⁸

The other instrument, originated at Ohio State University, is the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire. It has been widely used by students of formal organizations. It is especially suitable for obtaining information regarding perceptions of leadership behavior. The LBDQ identifies two major dimensions of leader behavior: "Initiating Structure" and "Consideration." The two concepts are compatible with Getzel's nomothetic and idiographic dimensions. Halpin, who originated the instrument, describes its two principal dimensions as follows:

- (1) Initiating structure refers to the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and members of the work group, and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure.

²⁷Getzels and Guba, pp. 436-437.

²⁸Donald J. Willower, "The Development of Hypotheses from a Framework and a Test of Certain of Them Concerning Idiographic and Nomothetic Leaders' Perceptions of Subordinates" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Buffalo, 1959), pp. 93-97.

- (2) Consideration refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his staff.²⁹

Both of these instruments were used in this investigation. Two instruments rather than one were expected to provide a more comprehensive insight into the behavioral characteristics of the mobiles and immobiles. Concentrating on these two main dimensions of administrative behavior was prompted by Halpin's findings of fifty school superintendents which revealed that their descriptions of an ideal administrator embraced those who were high on both Consideration and Initiating structure; however, they perceived the administrators who were less than ideal as differing on their scores with respect to the two variables.³⁰

The literature on characteristics of upward mobiles is useful in developing hypotheses about the mobiles and immobiles.

The mobile role-incumbent is depicted by Henry, and Wald and Doty as an individual vitally interested in people. Henry,³¹ Wald and Doty,³² and Gardner³³ reveal the successful administrator as imbued with high achievement drive. In order for him to achieve a higher position the mobile may be perceived as being oriented to the needs-dispositions of the individual, much in the manner of Lipham's

²⁹ Andrew Halpin, The Leadership Behavior of School Superintendents (Chicago, 1959), p. 4.

³⁰ Ibid., p. 78.

³¹ Henry, pp. 286-291.

³² Wald and Doty, p. 53.

³³ Gardner, p. 116.

"promotables," performing personal tasks such as adjusting blinds and serving refreshments. Even mentioning that the mobile is impersonal³⁴ does not preclude his being interested in individual needs, particularly if by taking action on those needs, he ultimately fulfills his high achievement desires. To be coldly dispassionate and unconcerned for the needs of a number of employees would be dysfunctional to an organization's attaining its goals. Presthus states that the "upward-mobile" looks to his subordinates in an impersonal way, but "This does not mean that he is cold and treats them casually. In fact, he tends to be rather sympathetic to their problems."³⁵

Portrayed as such, the mobile was seen as more aligned with the idiographic sphere than with the nomothetic. Thus it is predicted:

Hypothesis 1. The mobile role-incumbent will exhibit administrative behavior which is perceived as personal rather than normative and higher on "consideration" than on "initiating structure."

The immobile, not exhibiting interpersonal skills and having been denied promotion by his organization, would be more inclined to take refuge in the mechanical manipulations of his office. Lipham,³⁶ Henry,³⁷ and Wald and Doty³⁸ point out that the executive who is unsuccessful in achieving desired advancement is deliberate and preoccupied, is not an active participant, is not as interested in people as the two "upward-mobiles" and engages in self-sympathy in conflict situations.

³⁴Gardner, p. 118.

³⁵Presthus, p. 178.

³⁶Lipham, p. 3.

³⁷Henry, p. 289.

³⁸Wald and Doty, pp. 53-55.

He displays what Weber calls "strictly traditionalist behavior." Frequently, it is simply a dull reaction--almost automatic--to accustomed stimuli that have led behavior repeatedly along a routine course.³⁹

Presthus indicates that since "upward-mobiles" are desirous of advancement, they might resort to inauthentic behavior, recognizing that "getting along with people" has career utility.⁴⁰ If the sympathetic relationships manifested by the "upward-mobile" toward his subordinates were not genuine, he could be expected to cast aside the facade upon being denied advancement by his organization.

As a result of the arguments just presented, the immobile was seen as being more closely identified with the nomothetic dimension of behavior, prompting the following:

Hypothesis 2. The immobile role-incumbent will exhibit administrative behavior which is perceived as normative rather than personal and higher on "initiative structure" than on "consideration."

The immobile will perceive of himself as having been rebuffed by the organization for which he worked hard. His behavior will most likely lend support to Homan's statement that ". . . the frequency with which a man emits an activity is . . . a positive function of the frequency with which it is rewarded,"⁴¹ that is, the immobile would not be highly active in his role. He is not perceived as adequately performing the functions of the executive as revealed by Barnard: (1) to provide the system of communication, (2) to promote the securing of

³⁹Max Weber, Basic Concepts in Sociology (New York, 1962), p. 59.

⁴⁰Presthus, p. 169.

⁴¹George C. Homans, Social Behavior: Its Elementary Forms (New York, 1961), p. 278.

essential efforts, and (3) to formulate and define purpose.⁴² Therefore, it was predicted that:

Hypothesis 3. The immobile role-incumbent will be significantly lower than the mobile on "initiating structure."

Hypothesis 3 of this study is identical to that made by Powers; it was substantiated by his results. Hypotheses 1 and 2, however, are based on Powers' findings which refuted his two hypotheses that mobiles would be perceived as normative rather than personal and that immobiles would be perceived as personal rather than normative.

This investigation did not seek a causal relationship between "upward-mobility" and differences in behavior for the immobiles and mobiles. The relationships are spurious much of the time. It cannot be shown that a low score on consideration, for example, is a result of being denied promotion, or that being denied the promotion is a result of the low score.

Instruments administered other than those that measured descriptions of administrative behavior were an intelligence test, sentence completion test, and personal history inventory, in an effort to determine whether there was a difference among groups with respect to variables measured by these instruments. An interview with each subject was conducted for identifying (1) motives for "upward mobility" among the respective subjects, (2) how an immobile rationalizes his immobility and (3) any differences among the two types of role-incumbents with respect to attitude toward role, present and future job plans and needs for increased job satisfaction.

⁴²Chester I. Barnard, The Functions of the Executive (Cambridge, 1938), p. 217.

Organization of the Study

Chapter II has to do with the methodology of the present study, which encompasses definitions, the selection of subjects, procedures for gathering the data, and the instrumentation. In Chapter III the findings from the T-G Form and the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire are presented and analyzed. Chapter IV presents tabulations and analyses of the sentence completion tests, the intelligence tests, and the personal history inventories. In Chapter V the interview responses from both the mobiles and immobiles are presented, and their results are summarized. The sixth chapter presents a comparison of the findings of the present study with the results of Powers' investigation. The concluding chapter contains a summary of the study, conclusions, and implications for administration.

CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY

In order to conduct this research it was necessary to locate school systems that had clearly established the role of assistant principal. The city school systems of Tulsa and Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, and of Wichita, Kansas, possessed such positions; thus they seemed to be suitable for the investigation.

Each of the school systems has its own research council from whom permission was granted to conduct the research. The three systems employed eighty-five assistant principals, with eleven of the individual school buildings having more than one. With a ratio of seventeen assistant principals to fifteen principals, it seemed likely that an immobile group could be identified.

Definitions

From the beginning of the study it was necessary to define the three types of assistant principals so that behavioral and psychological variables could be related to mobility. The mobile, immobile, and non-mobile have already been described as follows:

(1) The mobile is one who aspires to a higher position in the organization, but has as yet been neither accepted nor rejected for advancement.

(2) The immobile is one who aspires to a higher position in the

organization, but has been formally rejected for advancement.

(3) The non-mobile is one who does NOT aspire to a higher position in the organization, preferring to remain in his present role.¹

Two controls were utilized with respect to the prospective classification of the assistant principals. No subject was to be selected who was not in at least his second year as assistant principal with his present principal. It was thought that a person with less experience might not make his mobility drives known, nor would his superiors be likely to know whether he was promotable.

The second control was that of excluding any assistant principal who was beyond fifty-five years old. Since retirement is compulsory at age sixty-five in the three school systems, it was thought that any expressions of non-mobility by such subjects could be the result of anticipated retirement rather than of job attachment.

Selection of Subjects

The secondary school directors of the three schools in which the research was to be conducted notified the principals and the assistant principals that the study was sanctioned by their respective research councils and that the decision as to whether to participate was reserved to the subjects themselves. The principals and assistant principals were told only that the research pertained to a role-study of the assistant principal. Although the secondary school directors were aware of the purpose of the study, they agreed not to divulge it to

¹Thomas E. Powers, "Administrative Behavior and Factors Related to Upward Mobility" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1966), p. 2.

other school personnel.

As a result of the two controls: being no older than fifty-five and being in at least his second year as assistant principal, thirty-three subjects were eliminated, narrowing the remaining group to fifty-two.

In order to establish rapport and to assure a greater response the investigator communicated in person with each of the fifty-two assistant principals. He explained the study, mentioned the instruments to be used, and left with them a questionnaire to be completed and forwarded to the researcher. At that time one subject decided not to participate, expressing a dislike for taking the Wonderlic Personnel Test. In another situation a principal stated that time was not available for his assistant to participate. Accordingly, those two were eliminated from the study. The remaining fifty returned the questionnaires. Thus a ninety-six per cent response of eligible subjects was realized.

The questionnaire contained a few simple questions regarding age, length of service, marital status, and the like in an effort to conceal the true nature of the device. The main purpose of the instrument was to determine whether a non-mobile group could be determined. The question bearing on that point was, "What position would you like to be holding in your school system five years from now?" It was expected that the non-mobile would respond "Assistant Principal." However, not one of the respondents revealed that he preferred to remain in the role, which indicated that a non-mobile group could not be identified. This finding was later verified when each of the fifty assistant principals was interviewed.

At this juncture it was decided to confine the investigation to a study of the mobiles and immobiles.

The names of the assistant principals were divided according to their respective cities; each list was given to the appropriate central office member who assisted in the promotion of assistant principals. The school officers were asked to place "M" or "I" opposite each name depending on whether the mobile or immobile description applied. The administrators based their decisions on the following global definitions of mobility.

- (1) The mobile is one who aspires to a higher position in the organization, but has yet been neither accepted nor rejected for advancement. If there is a vacancy this year, he will probably apply. Within five years his chances at promotion are excellent or above average.
- (2) The immobile is one who aspires to a higher position in the organization, but has been formally rejected by the administration. If there is a vacancy this year, he will probably not apply. Within five years his chances at promotion are below average or poor.

One school official expressed considerable reluctance when asked to classify his personnel, and thus did not do so. As a result, an experienced administrator within the district, but not now a member of the administrative staff, was able to classify the subjects according to the definitions of mobility.

By this means of tentatively classifying the fifty assistant principals, twenty-four were designated as mobile, while thirteen were listed as immobile. Thirteen were not classified since those making the identifications were in doubt regarding their prospects for promotion. Thus, they were eliminated from the study, leaving thirty-seven in the sample group.

A means of confirming the tentative classification of the

subjects was sought. The central office records were of no benefit since each of the school districts honored informal means of applying for promotion, such as telephone conversations, casual conversations with a member of the screening committee, and recommendations of the principal. Also, in several instances, the candidate simply relied on the central office personnel's contacting him, revealed in, "When they want to advance me, they'll contact me; they know me and the kind of job I'm doing. I don't have to contact them." As a result it was decided to use the interview as a means of verifying the classification of the assistant principals.

Even though thirteen had been eliminated from the study, all fifty assistant principals were interviewed, mainly to determine whether there were, in fact, any non-mobiles. All fifty subjects reaffirmed the information they had already presented, i.e., they did not prefer to remain in their present position.

Of the thirty-seven in the sample group, another assistant principal withdrew because of his disinclination to take the Wonderlic Personnel Test. A second assistant principal was eliminated because his principal chose not to complete the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire. Two more were found to be difficult to classify since they indicated that they thought their chances at being promoted were below average. After elimination of these four, the sample consisted of thirty-three; twenty-one classified as mobile and twelve as immobile.

Sex was not a variable in this study as all the assistant principals were men located in secondary schools. They were distributed among the three city school systems as indicated in Table I.

TABLE I
DISTRIBUTION OF THE SAMPLE BY SCHOOL

School	Mobile	Immobile	Total
A	8	4	12
B	5	5	10
C	8	3	11
Total	21	12	33

The age of the assistant principals was not evenly distributed between mobiles and immobiles. Since the investigation was concerned with potential for promotion, it was expected even before the research began that the mobile group would be younger than the immobile. The actual distribution is given in Table II.

TABLE II
DISTRIBUTION OF THE SAMPLE BY AGE

Age	Mobile	Immobile	Total
28-40	15	4	19
41-53	6	8	14
Total	21	12	33

The average age of the two groups, the number of white and Negro assistant principals, and other factors are given in Table III.

TABLE III
DISTRIBUTION OF THE SAMPLE BY EXPERIENCE,
RACE, AND SCHOOL CHARACTERISTICS

Factor	Mobiles	Immobiles
1. Average age	36.92	43.53
2. Average years experience as an assistant principal	3.62	5.58
3. Race of the assistant principal:		
a. White	21	9
b. Negro	0	3
4. Type of school in which the assistant principal worked:		
a. Junior high	8	9
b. Senior high	13	3
5. Average number of teachers in each building:		
a. Junior high	40.25	48.33
b. Senior high	91.92	80.67

Procedures for Gathering the Data

After the central offices notified the principals that the present study had been approved by their research councils, the investigator communicated in person with each of the fifty-two assistant principals

and most of their principals. The purpose of the study was explained as a study of the role of assistant principals in three city school systems. The assistant principals were assured that they would remain completely anonymous, neither would the names of their buildings be mentioned. It was explained further that the study could neither "harm nor help" them as none of the information provided would be divulged to anybody else. The instruments to be utilized were explained to them and a request to use the tape recorder for the interview was obtained. A date was set for a second conference to actually administer the tests and conduct the interviews. The time spent with each subject during the preliminary explanatory sessions ranged from fifteen minutes to one hour.

During the second visit with each of the fifty assistant principals an interview lasting approximately one hour was held. Upon its completion the subject was given the Wonderlic Personnel Test. The Malo Sentence Completion Test and the Personal History Inventory were left with the subjects, with a self-addressed envelope, to be completed at a later date and mailed to the investigator. These instruments were not completed during the conference because central office personnel were concerned about the length of time involved to complete all the instruments.

Immediately before or after the interview conference and when the principal could be consulted without the presence of his assistant, the investigator left the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire and the T-G Form with the principal, asking him to complete and return them at a later date. After it was explained that the assistants were unaware of these two instruments the principals agreed not to mention to

anybody their completing the instruments. This precaution was taken so as to negate the possibility of destroying an effective relationship between administrators, particularly since the instruments might be perceived as having a evaluative impact.

The instruments could not be left with ten of the principals because of their absence or because their assistants were present. In such cases the forms were mailed each principal with a letter explaining their purpose. All of them were completed and returned.

The assistant principals and the principals were asked not to discuss any of the test items or interviews with anybody during the course of the study. All agreed to comply with the request. The subjects who participated seemed eager to assist in the study. The investigator was gratified that they talked so freely and candidly about the factors they disliked about their role, as well as those they liked. The sample group was most cordial and cooperative throughout the period of data gathering. Indicative of their enthusiasm was their response in returning the instruments; one hundred per cent of the thirty-three in the sample group complied fully with the request.

Instrumentation

Five instruments and a semi-structured interview were used to gather data for this research. (1) The Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire and (2) the T-G Form operationalize the concepts presented previously. These two instruments, designed to reveal the administrator's perceptions of his subordinate, were administered to the principal, unknown to the assistant principal. Three instruments were administered to the principals themselves: (1) the Malo Sentence

Completion Test, (2) the Wonderlic Personnel Test, and (3) a Personal History Inventory. These five instruments will now be explained in order.

The Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire

The LBDQ was devised by the Personnel Research Board at the Ohio State University. The original instrument was constructed by Hemphill and Coons. Halpin and Winer, by a process of factor analysis of the responses of three hundred Air Force crew members, identified "consideration" and "initiating structure" as the two global dimensions of leader behavior. Halpin used the Spearman-Brown formula for split-half reliability in order to establish the reliability of the instrument, arriving at a figure of .83 for the initiating structure scores and .92 for the consideration scores. Pertaining to the validity of the instrument, Halpin states,

It has been found in previous research with the LBDQ-Real that though group members may differ in their perception of the leader's behavior, they nevertheless agree sufficiently to warrant the use of the crew mean score on each dimension as a succinct and dependable index of the leader's behavior.²

The two dimensions of administrator behavior are described as follows:

Initiating Structure

Initiating Structure refers to the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and the members of the work-group, and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure

Consideration

Consideration refers to behavior indicative of friendship,

²Andrew Halpin, The Leadership Behavior of School Superintendents (Chicago, 1959), p. 9.

mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his staff.³

The questionnaire is composed of 30 Likert-type items; fifteen questions relate specifically to each of the two dimensions. The items defining each dimension are listed below:

Initiating Structure

1. He makes his attitudes clear to his staff.
2. He tries out his new ideas with the staff.
- ✓ 3. He rules with an iron hand.
4. He criticizes poor work.
5. He speaks in a manner not to be questioned.
6. He assigns staff members to particular tasks.
- ✓ 7. He works without a plan.*
8. He maintains definite standards of performance.
9. He emphasizes the meeting of deadlines.
10. He encourages the use of uniform procedures.
11. He makes sure that his part in the organization is understood by all members.
12. He asks that staff members follow standard rules and regulations.
13. He lets staff members know what is expected of them.
14. He sees to it that staff members are working up to capacity.
15. He sees to it that the work of staff members is coordinated.

* scored negatively

Consideration

1. He does personal favors for staff members.
2. He does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the staff.
3. He is easy to understand.
4. He finds time to listen to staff members.
- ✓ 5. He keeps to himself.
6. He looks out for the personal welfare of the individual staff members.
- ✓ 7. He refuses to explain his actions.*
8. He acts without consulting the staff.
- ✓ 9. He is slow to accept new ideas.*
10. He treats all staff members as his equals.
11. He is willing to make changes
12. He is friendly and approachable.

³Halpin, p. 4.

13. He makes staff members feel at ease when talking with them.
14. He puts suggestions by the staff into operation.
15. He gets staff approval on important matters before going ahead.⁴

* scored negatively

Powers posits several reasons for choosing the LBDQ as a measure appropriate to this type of study: (1) it has been used extensively in investigations of public schools, (2) it was developed specifically to measure behavior of leaders, (3) the two dimensions are congruent with the two dimensions of the Getzels-Guba model, and (4) the specific items of leadership behavior encompass reasonable forms of the behavior of principals.

The T-G Form

This form, developed by Willower, contains global descriptions of two dimensions of administrative behavior based specifically on the Getzels-Guba construct of social behavior. The T-G Form distinguishes personal and normative dimensions which, collectively, may be referred to as leadership style. Powers found that this instrument provided a statistically significant relationship between leadership style and their counterparts of the LBDQ. Specifically, "personal" correlated well with "consideration," while "normative" related well to "initiating structure." A chi square table was constructed to arrive at the significance of the relationship. The analysis yielded a very high chi square value of 21.2 for a P of less than .001.⁵ Willower validated

⁴Halpin, pp. 7-8.

⁵Powers, p. 14.

the instrument by two means:

In the first test, three faculty members at the University of Buffalo unanimously agreed that the descriptions did correspond to the basic dimensions [of the Getzels-Guba model].

In the other test, nine principals were identified by four chief school administrators as either normative or personal. Five teachers randomly chosen from the staff of each principal were asked to respond to the descriptions of each style, in terms of whether they believed either style described their assistant principal. At least a majority of the teachers on the staff of each principal selected the same classification as the chief school administrator.⁶

On the instrument "Style T" refers to the normative style, while "Style G" refers to the personal style. The global descriptions of each follow.

Style T

Principal _____ expects teachers to do things "by the book." He wants teachers to behave in conformity to the things the school system expects of them. He is especially concerned if teachers have trouble doing their jobs because of the expectations other persons or groups have for them. Principal _____ sees his office as a center of authority and he believes that the same rules and procedures should apply to all teachers. He is concerned that teachers behave in a "proper" manner in all their activities. He usually relies, for teacher control, on rewards and penalties which are spelled out in school district regulations.

Style G

Principal _____ expects teachers to work things out by themselves, each in his own way. He wants teachers to behave in ways which meet their personal needs. He is especially concerned if teachers have trouble doing their jobs because of the kind of personality they have. Principal _____ sees his authority delegated and he believes that rules and procedures have to be tailored to the personality

⁶ Donald J. Willower, "The Development of Hypotheses from a Theoretical Framework and a Test of Certain of Them Concerning Idiographic and Nomothetic Leaders' Perceptions of Subordinates" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Buffalo, 1959), quoted in Thomas E. Powers, "Administrative Behavior and Factors Related to Upward Mobility" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1966), pp. 28-30.

of the individual teacher. He is concerned only with how teachers behave on the job. He usually relies, for teacher control, on appeal to the teacher's sense of right and wrong.⁷

So as not to elicit a forced response the instrument also contains the following alternative: "_____ Neither of the above descriptions is more representative of my principal's leadership style."

The Malo Sentence Completion Test

This test designed by Albert H. Malo contains fifty first-person sentence stems. The subjects' responses to them are scored in terms of the personal variables of (1) activity drive, (2) achievement drive, (3) mobility drive, (4) social ability, (5) feelings of security, and (6) emotional control.⁸

In order to score the instrument each response is assigned a value of plus 2, plus 1, zero, minus 1, or minus 2, depending upon their strength. For example, pertaining to achievement drive: (1) "plus 2" reflects that success has been achieved, (2) "plus 1" reflects a desire to achieve, (3) "zero" reflects a quality that may lead to achievement but the statement does not link the trait with achievement desire, (4) "minus 1" reflects inability to cope with one's limitations to achievement, and (5) "minus 2" reflects low achievement or lack of ability to achieve.⁹ The difference between responses may be perceived

⁷ Donald J. Willower, "The Development of Hypotheses from a Theoretical Framework and a Test of Certain of Them Concerning Idiographic and Nomothetic Leaders' Perceptions of Subordinates" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Buffalo, 1959), pp. 94-96.

⁸ Albert H. Malo, "Sentence Completion Test Manual" (unpublished research paper, University of Chicago, 1959), p. 1.

⁹ Ibid., p. 2.

in answering such a sentence stem as, "When I saw the man look away from me I . . ." A "plus 2" response could be "walked toward him and introduced myself," whereas a "minus 2" answer would be similar to "ran away."

To secure a total score for each of the six variables, an algebraic summation is made of the score values. An unskilled scorer can evaluate the tests with little problem by using the "Sentence Completion Test Manual." The investigator arranged the tests in random order for scoring, not knowing who the subjects were nor whether they were mobile or immobile. During the scoring all of the first items were checked, then all of the second items, et cetera, rather than scoring all of one test, then proceeding to the second one.

The Wonderlic Personnel Test, Form D

This test is a measure of mental ability, particularly adaptable to business and industry. It consists of 50 items of an academic nature with a 12 minute time limit. The reliability, established by one form of the test being immediately followed by another, was found to vary between .82 and .94. Odd-even internal consistency coefficients ranging between .88 and .94 are also reported. The author affirms the validity is evidenced since the number of correct answers "distinguishes between good and poor work groups of employees differentiated on work records accumulated over a period of five years."¹⁰

¹⁰E. F. Wonderlic, Wonderlic Personnel Test Manual (Northfield, 1959), p. 4.

The Personal History Inventory

This questionnaire is similar to that which Powers devised,¹¹ based on one constructed by Lipham. It is designed to elicit from the subjects information regarding (1) demographic factors, (2) education, (3) employment, (4) professional affiliations, and (5) activities participated in. Reasons for success, motives for mobility, and immediate and ultimate goals were explored in the study. (A copy of the instrument is included in the appendix.)

The Individual Interview

The interview was structured to the extent that it sought information pertaining to role perception of the role incumbent, attitude toward job, plans for the future, rationalizations for immobility, motivations for upward-mobility, and perceived likings for the school system.

An attempt was made to put the subject at ease for the interview, a condition that was easily gained since the investigator had met the subjects on a prior occasion. A concluding question relating to the aspects of the school that the principal liked was purposely designed to end the interview on a positive note.

All interviews were conducted by one investigator. They were recorded and transcribed on the same day as the interview, with the exception of those recorded on Fridays. On those two occasions, transcriptions were made the following day. It required from thirty minutes to one and one-half hours to transcribe each tape.

¹¹Powers, pp. 124-126.

Summary

Thirty-three assistant principals were identified by their principals according to the researcher's criteria of mobility. They were selected from among those who were less than fifty-five years of age and who were in at least their second year as assistant principal. The investigator communicated in person with each of the subjects on two occasions. The first visit was for the purpose of explaining the intent of the research, while the second visit actually involved the gathering of information. Six instruments were used in collecting the data.

The following chapter will reveal the results of two of those instruments, the ones dealing with administrative behavior.

CHAPTER III

FINDINGS FROM THE DESCRIPTIONS OF ADMINISTRATIVE BEHAVIOR

The results of the perceptions of administrative behavior are given in this chapter. The devices used by the principals in indicating the assistant principals' behavior were the T-G Form, developed by Willower, and the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ).

Three hypotheses were developed by the investigator in terms of the behavior one might expect of the mobiles and immobiles, based on the dimensions described by the instruments employed. It was predicted that the mobile role-incumbents would be perceived as exhibiting "personal" rather than "normative" behavior and that they would be higher on "consideration" than on "initiating structure." Conversely, it was predicted that the immobile role-incumbents would be perceived as exhibiting "normative" rather than "personal" behavior and that they would be higher on "initiating structure" than on "consideration." The third hypothesis predicted that the immobile role-incumbents would be lower than the mobile role-incumbents on "initiating structure."

The T-G Form

The T-G Form was completed by all the principals of the thirty-three assistant principals included in the study. The principals simply checked the global description that best fit the behavior of

their assistants. In addition to the descriptions of "normative" and "personal" behavior, the statement, "Neither of the above descriptions is more representative of my assistant principal's leadership style," was included, so that no principal would feel that he had to make a forced choice between the two forms of behavior. Nine of the assistant principals' leadership styles could not be identified as either "normative" or "personal." Table IV indicates that the principals were more likely to ascribe a "personal" style to their assistant principals.

TABLE IV
NUMBER OF SUBJECTS DESCRIBED AS EXHIBITING
PERSONAL OR NORMATIVE LEADERSHIP STYLES

Style	Number of Subjects
Personal	16
Normative	8
Unclassified	<u>9</u>
Total	33

The statistical measure used in several instances in this study was the Fisher Exact Probability Test. The decision to use it was based on the following:

When N is between 20 and 40, the Chi Square test may be used if all expected frequencies are 5 or more.

If the smallest expected frequency is less than 5, use the Fisher test (pages 94 to 104).¹

Another condition essential for using the Fisher test is that the scores must be represented in a 2 by 2 contingency table. Accordingly, the investigator excluded the "unclassified" group when analyzing the data from the T-G Form. To have used that data, a 2 by 3 table would have been required.²

Since all the subjects in the present study were male, sex was not a variable with which to contend. An analysis of the sample divided according to age, however, was made to determine whether leadership style varied with that factor. The analysis was not statistically significant; however, the younger role-incumbents tended to be associated with a "personal" identification. The difference in the number of "personal" and "normative" identifications for the immobile group was negligible. Table V presents the leadership styles distributed between the two age groups of the subjects.

An analysis of leadership styles between the mobiles and immobiles revealed that the mobiles were perceived as exhibiting "personal" behavior. There was less difference in the number of immobiles perceived as "personal" or "normative." The differences in the leadership styles of the two groups of assistant principals were not statistically significant; nevertheless, the direction of the differences is as would be expected. The distribution of the two styles between the two administrative types is given in Table VI.

¹Sidney Siegel, Nonparametric Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences (New York, 1956), p. 110.

²Ibid.

TABLE V
 DISTRIBUTION OF PERSONAL AND NORMATIVE
 LEADERSHIP STYLES BY AGE
 OF THE SUBJECTS

Style	Younger (28-40)	Older (41-53)	Total
Personal	11 ^a	5 ^a	16
Normative	4 ^a	4 ^a	8
Unclassified	4	5	9
Total	19	14	33

^aThis tabulation yielded a Fisher Exact Probability of .23.

TABLE VI
 DISTRIBUTION OF PERSONAL AND NORMATIVE
 LEADERSHIP STYLES BETWEEN SUBJECTS
 DEFINED AS MOBILE AND IMMOBILE

Style	Mobiles	Immables	Total
Personal	13 ^a	3 ^a	16
Normative	2 ^a	6 ^a	8
Unclassified	6	3	9
Total	21	12	33

^aThis tabulation yielded a Fisher Exact Probability of .19.

In summary, principals were more inclined to describe the leadership behavior of their assistant principals as "personal" rather than "normative," two of every three role-incumbents being perceived as exhibiting "personal" behavior. The tendency for principals to perceive mobile role-incumbents as exhibiting "personal" behavior and immobiles as evidencing "normative" behavior was significant at only the .19 level.

The Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire

The other instrument used by the principals to describe the behavior of their assistant principals was the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). The principals' responses were scored in terms of the two dimensions, "consideration" and "initiating structure." The maximum score for each component was 60. The frequency of scores for the two administrative groups is presented in Table VII.

The individual scores were slightly higher on "consideration" than on "initiating structure." The mean scores for the entire sample were 47.09 and 43.15 for "consideration" and "initiating structure," respectively. The difference in mean scores was not statistically significant for the total sample, as revealed in Table VIII.

Each of the two components was analyzed to determine whether age accounted for any differences in the LBDQ scores. The data in Table VIII disclose that the differences were not statistically significant.

A t-test analysis of the mean scores for "initiating structure" and "consideration" for the mobiles and immobiles revealed some interesting differences on both the components. The mobiles were significantly higher than the immobiles on both dimensions of the LBDQ.

TABLE VII
 FREQUENCY OF SCORES ON THE LBDQ

Score	Mobile		Immobile		Total	
	Consider- ation	Structure	Consider- ation	Structure	Consider- ation	Structure
24	1	...	1
25
26
27
28
29
30
31	1	...	1
32
33
34	1	...	1	...
35
36	...	1	1
37	...	1	1
38
39	...	1	1	...	1	1
40	...	1	...	2	...	3
41	...	2	2	1	2	3
42	1	...	1	3	2	3
43	...	2	1	2	1	4
44	1	1	...
45	2	5	2	1	4	6
46	2	2	1	...	3	2
47	1	...	1	...	2	...
48	1	...	1	1	2	1
49	5	2	1	...	6	2
50	1	1	1	1
51
52	2	1	2	1
53	2	2	2	2
54
55	2	2	...
56	1	1	...

However, both groups were rated higher on "consideration" than on "initiating structure."

TABLE VIII
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SCORES ON
"CONSIDERATION" AND "INITIATING STRUCTURE"
BY AGE OF SUBJECTS

Component	Younger ^a		Older ^b		Total ^c	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Consideration	48.45 ^d	4.52	45.00 ^d	5.16	47.09	4.98
Initiating structure	44.85 ^e	4.79	40.54 ^e	6.66	43.15	5.91

^aN = 20, ages 28-40.

^bN = 13, ages 41-53.

^cN = 33.

^dConsideration: $t = 2.01$, N.S., (df = 31).

^eInitiating structure: $t = 2.01$, N.S., (df = 31).

Although the mobile group was significantly higher than the immobile group on both dimensions of the LBDQ, these differences were more sharply drawn on "consideration" than on "initiating structure." These results are consistent with the findings from the T-G Form in which the mobiles tended to be described as "personal." Also consistent with the T-G Form findings is the fact that mobiles tended to be rated higher on "consideration" than on "initiating structure." Table IX contains the means and standard deviation scores on "consideration" and "initiating structure" for the two administrative groups.

TABLE IX
 MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SCORES ON
 "CONSIDERATION" AND "INITIATING STRUCTURE"
 BETWEEN SUBJECTS DEFINED AS MOBILE
 AND IMMOBILE

Component	Mobiles ^a		Immobiles ^b	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Consideration	49.24 ^c	3.83	43.33 ^c	4.23
Initiating structure	44.90 ^d	4.91	40.08 ^d	6.45

^aN = 21.

^bN = 12.

^cConsideration: $t = 3.97$, $P < .0005$ ($df = 31$).

^dInitiating structure: $t = 2.29$, $P < .025$ ($df = 31$).

The mean scores on the LBDQ components were derived for the younger and older sub-groups to determine whether age affected the scores. This analysis for the entire sample revealed no statistically significant differences.

Further age comparisons were made between groups. Significant differences were found between mobiles and immobiles when the comparisons of the scores on "consideration" were made. However, when the scores on "initiating structure" for the two groups were analyzed, there was no significant difference for the younger group and only a significance level of .10 for the older subjects. This information is divulged in Tables X and XI.

TABLE X
 MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATION SCORES ON
 "CONSIDERATION" BETWEEN MOBILES AND
IMMOBILES DIVIDED BY AGE

Variable	Mobiles		Immobiles		Total	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Total ^a	49.24	3.46	43.33	4.25	47.09	4.89
Younger ^b	49.53 ^d	4.10	45.75 ^d	3.49	48.74	4.21
Older ^c	48.50 ^e	3.31	42.12 ^e	4.22	44.86	4.99

^aN = 33 (21 mobiles and 12 immobiles).

^bN = 19 (15 mobiles and 4 immobiles).

^cN = 14 (6 mobiles and 8 immobiles).

^dYounger: $t = 1.85$, $P < .05$ ($df = 17$).

^eOlder: $t = 3.10$, $P < .005$ ($df = 12$).

TABLE XI
 MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATION SCORES ON "INITIATING
 STRUCTURE" BETWEEN MOBILES AND
IMMOBILES DIVIDED BY AGE

Variable	Mobiles		Immobiles		Total	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Total ^a	49.67	4.91	40.08	6.45	43.15	3.99
Younger ^b	45.47 ^d	5.19	43.75 ^d	2.87	45.11	4.78
Older ^c	43.50 ^e	4.18	38.25 ^e	7.09	47.25	6.41

^aN = 33 (21 mobiles and 12 immobiles).

^bN = 19 (15 mobiles and 4 immobiles).

^cN = 14 (6 mobiles and 8 immobiles).

^dYounger: $t = .88$, N.S., ($df = 31$).

^eOlder: $t = 1.73$, $P < .10$ ($df = 12$).

"Consideration" scores tended to be higher than "initiating structure" scores for both mobiles and immobiles, however the difference between the number scoring higher on "consideration" than "initiating structure" was greater for the mobile than the immobile group. The difference was not of statistical significance as disclosed in the frequencies of Table XII.

TABLE XII
THE HIGHER SCORE ON THE LBDQ: "INITIATING
STRUCTURE" VERSUS "CONSIDERATION"

Variable	Number of Subjects		
	Mobiles	Immobiles	Total
Higher on "Consideration"	16 ^a	7 ^a	23
Higher on "Initiating Structure"	3 ^a	4 ^a	7
Total	19 ^b	11 ^c	30

^aThis tabulation yielded a Fisher Exact Probability of .16.

^bTwo mobiles received identical scores on "consideration" and "initiating structure."

^cOne immobile received an identical score on "consideration" and "initiating structure."

In summary, the LBDQ findings revealed that the mobiles were significantly higher than the immobiles on both "consideration" and "initiating structure." There was no significant difference in the mean scores on each dimension of the LBDQ when the entire sample was

divided by age. Principals were inclined to rate both the mobiles and immobiles higher on "consideration" than on "initiating structure."

Analysis of Results

The T-G Form and LBDQ

The data were analyzed to determine the relationship between the leadership styles of the T-G Form and the two components of the LBDQ. It was expected that those subjects scoring higher on "consideration" would be perceived as "personal" and those scoring higher on "initiating structure" would be perceived as "normative."

A high correlation was found between each leadership style, i.e., personal and normative, and the expected higher scored component of the LBDQ. Twelve of the 21 subjects were classified as "personal" and scored higher on "consideration."

A contingency table from which the Fisher Exact Probability was computed is depicted in Table XIII. The analysis resulted in a probability of .013.

The Hypotheses

Three hypotheses were made by the investigator before gathering data. Two of them were confirmed, while one was not. The prediction that was not verified was, "The immobile role-incumbent will exhibit administrative behavior which is perceived as "normative" rather than "personal," and higher on "initiating structure" than on "consideration." A greater number of the immobiles were perceived as exhibiting "normative" styles, but not at a significant level. The LBDQ scores for the immobiles were higher on "consideration" than on "initiating

TABLE XIII
 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLE AND
 THE HIGHER SCORED COMPONENT ON THE LBDQ

Variable	Number of subjects described as:		
	Normative	Personal	Total
Number of subjects higher on:			
"Initiating structure"	5 ^a	1 ^a	6
"Consideration"	3 ^a	12 ^a	15
Total	8	13	21 ^b

^aThis tabulation yielded a Fisher Exact Probability of .013.

^bNine subjects were not classified as "personal" or "normative." One classified as "normative" had a tied score on "consideration" and "initiating structure," while two classified as "personal" had tied scores.

structure." This finding is compatible with the research of Henry², Coats and Pellegrin³, and Gouldner⁴. They point out that "non-promotables" tend to be oriented to the needs of the people within the organization rather than to the values of the organization. Equating the immobile with the "non-promotable," it is explainable why the

²William E. Henry, "The Business Executive: The Psychodynamics of a Social Role," American Journal of Sociology, LIV (1949), pp. 386-291.

³Charles H. Coates and Roland J. Pellegrin, "Executives and Supervisors: Informal Factors in Differential Bureaucratic Promotion," Administrative Science Quarterly, II (1957), pp. 204-208.

⁴Alvin W. Gouldner, "Cosmopolitans and Locals: Toward an Analysis of Latent Social Roles," Administrative Science Quarterly, III (1958), pp. 444-480.

findings of the present study revealed the immobiles as having behavior higher on "consideration" than "initiating structure."

The two hypotheses supported by the findings were: (1) that the mobile role-incumbents would be perceived as exhibiting "personal" behavior, and would be higher on "consideration" than "initiating structure," and (2) that the immobiles would be significantly lower than mobiles on "initiating structure."

There is some evidence that, in describing their assistants as "normative," the principals associated this global description with "inconsiderate" behavior rather than with behavior stressing the values of the organization. Specifically, the assistant principals identified as "normative" had no greater percentage of their group making scores above the sample mean on "initiating structure" than did the group identified as "personal." Table XIV illustrates this point and lends support to the suggestion that principals associated the normative style with less considerate assistant principals.

Summary

The mobile assistant principals were perceived more frequently by their principals as "personal" in leadership style, while the immobiles were perceived as "normative." The relationship had a P of only .19, according to the Fisher Exact Probability Test; nevertheless, the difference in the leadership styles of the mobiles and immobiles was in the expected direction.

Immobile assistant principals were rated significantly lower than the mobiles on both dimensions of the LBDQ. Comparison of mean scores for "consideration" between the mobiles and immobiles yielded a

difference that was significant below the .0005 level. Differences between the two groups on "initiating structure" were less pronounced, but still significant at the .025 level. Both mobiles and immobiles were higher on "consideration" than on "initiating structure." The difference in mean scores of the two dimensions of the LBDQ was greater for the mobiles than the immobiles.

TABLE XIV

NUMBER OF SUBJECTS DESCRIBED AS "PERSONAL" OR
"NORMATIVE" WITH SCORES ON "INITIATING
STRUCTURE" AND "CONSIDERATION" ABOVE
OR BELOW SAMPLE MEAN SCORES

Style	Consideration		Initiating Structure	
	Above ^a	Below ^b	Above ^a	Below ^b
Described as:				
Personal	10	6	8	8
Normative	2	6	4	4

^aAbove the mean score for the entire sample.

^bBelow the mean score for the entire sample.

The succeeding chapter compares the two administrative groups with the following self-reporting instruments: Wonderlic Personnel Test, Personal History Inventory, and Malo Sentence Completion Test. Their data will indicate whether there are differences between mobiles and

immobiles regarding intelligence, motives for mobility, and personal variables.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS FROM THE INTELLIGENCE, PERSONALITY, AND PERSONAL HISTORY INSTRUMENTS

This investigation made it possible for the researcher to gather information, in addition to the behavioral data, about the assistant principals. Intelligence, personality, and personal history were the variables studied among the subjects. The three instruments used were (1) The Wonderlic Personnel Test, (2) The Malo Sentence Completion Test, and (3) a Personal History Inventory. Often, significant differences between subjects are revealed pertaining to these personal characteristics.

The Wonderlic Personnel Test

The Wonderlic Personnel Test, Form D was administered to all the assistant principals included in the study. This test, previously described, contained fifty items that measured the subjects' mental ability. Scores were derived by counting the number of correct responses, with fifty being the theoretically optimum score.

The mean score for the entire sample on the Wonderlic Test was 27.06. The scores ranged from a low of 15 to a high of 39. The respective mean scores for the mobile and immobile groups were 28.14 and 25.33, a difference which was not statistically significant. Neither were the differences significant between the two administrative groups

divided by age. Table XV reveals the means and standard deviation scores for the entire groups and the age sub-groups.

TABLE XV
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF
SCORES ON THE WONDERLIC TEST

Variable	Mobiles		Immobiles		Total	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Total ^a	28.14 ^d	5.99	25.33 ^e	6.84	27.06	6.34
Younger ^b	28.67 ^f	5.62	25.25 ^g	8.48	27.95	6.20
Older ^c	26.50 ^h	7.12	25.38 ⁱ	6.55	25.86	6.55

^aN = 33 (21 mobiles and 12 immobiles).

^bN = 19 (15 mobiles and 4 immobiles).

^cN = 14 (6 mobiles and 8 immobiles).

^{d-e} t = 1.19, N.S., (df = 31).

^{f-g} t = .79, N.S., (df = 17).

^{h-i} t = .32, N.S., (df = 12).

^{f-h} t = .67, N.S., (df = 12).

^{g-i} t = .006, N.S., (df = 10).

It deserves mentioning that none of the school systems in the study uses an intelligence test as a basis for promotion. Thus, as one might suspect, there were no significant differences in intelligence between the mobiles and immobiles. Table XVI indicates the frequency with which scores occurred between the two groups.

TABLE XVI
 FREQUENCY OF SCORES ON THE WONDERLIC TEST

Score	Mobiles	Immobiles	Total
15	...	1	1
16
17	...	1	1
18
19
20	3	1	4
21	1	...	1
22	...	2	2
23	1	1	2
24	2	...	2
25	1	...	1
26	2	1	3
27	1	1	2
28
29	2	...	2
30	1	2	3
31
32	1	...	1
33	2	...	2
34	1	1	2
35	1	...	1
36
37
38	...	1	1
39	2	...	2

Since the intelligence variable is not statistically significant between the mobiles and immobiles, it is suggested that attitude toward mobility is not necessarily related to intelligence.

The Malo Sentence Completion Test

The Malo Sentence Completion Test was used to secure measures on the variables, "activity drive," "achievement drive," "mobility drive," "social ability," "feelings of security," and "emotional control." The instrument contained fifty sentence stems to which the subjects responded as they chose. The responses were scored by assigning them to one of the six variables and giving them a weighted score ranging from plus 2 to minus 2, following the directions in the manual prepared by the author.¹

The sentence completion test results are presented in Table XVII. Means and standard deviations are given for the two administrative groups. The findings revealed no statistically significant differences between the mobiles and immobiles for any of the six variables.

If the findings from the sentence completion test are to be understood, it is necessary that each of the variables be fully explicated. The author of the instrument defines them as follows:

Activity Drive is characteristic of the subject who moves forward purposefully, who exerts himself energetically, who meets challenges headon, who counteracts aggressively in the face of opposition, who is competitive, and who readily injects himself into a situation in order to carry on what he regards as his responsibility. The activity may be either physical or mental or both. The subject may engage in intensive mental activity before taking action but he does not take refuge in deliberation as a substitute for taking action.

¹Albert H. Malo, "Sentence Completion Test Manual" (unpublished research paper, University of Chicago, 1959), pp. 1-56.

TABLE XVII
 MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SCORES
 ON THE MALO SENTENCE COMPLETION TEST

Variable	Mobiles ^a		Immobiles ^b		Total	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Activity drive	8.76 ^c	5.21	9.25 ^d	4.57	8.94	5.07
Achievement drive	1.29 ^e	2.26	2.08 ^f	2.84	1.58	2.48
Mobility drive	0.95 ^g	1.20	1.17 ^h	1.19	1.03	1.18
Social adaptability	1.62 ⁱ	2.31	2.33 ^j	1.83	1.88	2.15
Security	0.71 ^k	1.49	0.08 ^l	1.54	0.48	1.14
Emotional control	-4.00 ^m	4.17	-2.83 ⁿ	2.66	-3.58	3.69

^aN = 21.

^bN = 12.

c-d t = .31, N.S. (df = 31).

e-f t = .83, N.S. (df = 31).

g-h t = .50, N.S. (df = 31).

i-j t = .97, N.S. (df = 31).

k-l t = 1.15, N.S. (df = 31).

m-n t = .98, N.S. (df = 31).

Achievement Drive is characteristic of the individual who is moving forward toward sure success, who is not just satisfied to do a job well but to do it as well as he can, whose performance is always credible, who seeks to improve his competencies through general and technical study and discussion in order to assure for himself both immediate and long range success, and who exhibits in his actions a strong motivation to make the best possible use of his traits in achieving success.

Mobility Drive is characteristic of the individual who is striving to achieve higher status in his employment and also in society in general. For such an individual the expressed ultimate goal is to be operating in a position of prominence, of prestige, of power, and of authority.

Social Ability is synonymous with the variable Affiliation as defined by Murray. It is characteristic of the individual who uses well the various skills which assure his successful association with others. He is gracious, tactful, and affable. He has an effective sense of humor. He is an expert listener who always manages to say the right thing at the right time. He appears to others to be an easy man to approach and to talk to confidentially and otherwise. He is always ready to cooperate with others and always has a word of praise for those who do well. In other words, he exhibits the traits that make him personally acceptable to a very high degree to the people with whom he associates.

The individual characterized by Feelings of Security is one who is secure in his adjustments. He is self-composed, mature in his thinking, and principled in his behavior. He looks at the future with confidence, at the present with warmth and understanding, and at the past with satisfaction. His family adjustments are wholesome and are a source of pride and joy for him. He regards authority figures as serving a very constructive purpose. He feels that his bosses have confidence in him and recognize his capabilities. He is motivated by the attitude that a boss is to be helped to do the best job possible. He is a self-reliant individual who feels both useful and wanted.

Emotional Control is characteristic of the subject who is able to make the best of a pressure situation. He adjusts well to irritations, frustrations, disappointments, confusion, and criticism. He assesses himself and his environment objectively and realistically. He proceeds with self-control and effectiveness in the face of a provoking or otherwise disturbing situation. He is an expert at disguising whatever strong feelings he may experience in the latter type of situation.²

From the sentence completion test it was found that none of the six variables was significantly related to attitude toward mobility. It is interesting to note that the mobiles were slightly higher than the immobiles on only one dimension, the "feeling of security."

²Albert H. Malo, "Personality Variables Related to Administrative Effectiveness" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1959), quoted in Thomas E. Powers, "Administrative Behavior and Factors Related to Upward Mobility" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1966), pp. 59-60.

The Personal History Inventory

The personal history inventory used in this study was intended to explore a number of factual and personal variables about the assistant principals. The instrument used was similar to that which Powers devised, based on one constructed by Lipham.³ It contained factual questions pertaining to marital status, education, and activities; and affective questions regarding attitudes, aims, and opinions.

Regarding the marital status there was no significant difference between the two groups. Nineteen of the 21 mobiles were married, while 11 of the 12 immobiles were. The aggregate number of children was 33 and 23 for the mobiles and immobiles, respectively. The latter tabulation, too, was not significant statistically.

All of the respondents held master's degrees since that is a requirement for an administrator's certificate in the school systems included in the study. None of the subjects held a doctorate but a number were working toward such a degree. Table XVIII illustrates the frequency of each group engaged in a degree program. The differences were significant at the .02 level.

The subjects indicated a number of organizational memberships. The frequency of professional memberships far exceeded the memberships in the other categories combined. The second highest mean frequency for the mobiles regarded social memberships, while for the immobiles it was religious memberships. The mobiles had a higher mean frequency than the immobiles in all organizations except religious. The data are

³Thomas E. Powers, "Administrative Behavior and Factors Related to Upward Mobility" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1966), pp. 124-126.

given in Table XIX.

TABLE XVIII
NUMBER OF MOBILES AND IMMOBILES CURRENTLY
ENGAGED IN A DEGREE PROGRAM

Factor	Mobiles	Immobiles	Total
Number engaged	17 ^a	5 ^a	22
Number not engaged	4 ^a	7 ^a	11
Total	21	12	33

^aThis tabulation yielded a Fisher Exact Probability of .02.

TABLE XIX
NUMBER AND TYPES OF ORGANIZATIONAL
MEMBERSHIPS AMONG THE SUBJECTS

Type of Organization	Mobiles		Immobiles		Total	
	Frequency	Mean	Frequency	Mean	Frequency	Mean
Professional	102	4.86	58	4.83	160	4.85
Social	21	1.00	4	.33	25	.76
Religious	10	.48	7	.58	17	.52
Civic	9	.43	5	.42	14	.42
Veteran	3	.14	0	.00	3	.09
Total	145	6.90	74	6.17	219	6.67

The subjects were asked to check the activity to which they devoted most of their free time in recent years. Both groups indicated a preference for outdoor recreation. Sports and club activities had the second highest frequencies for the mobiles and immobiles, respectively. The information is illustrated in Table XX.

TABLE XX
THE ACTIVITY TO WHICH SUBJECTS CLAIMED TO
HAVE DEVOTED MOST OF THEIR TIME IN
THE PAST FIVE YEARS

Activity	Mobiles	Immobiles	Total
Amusements ^a	1	1	2
Club activities ^b	1	5	6
Viewing television	4	1	5
Outdoor recreation ^c	8	6	14
Reading	4	3	7
Sports	5	4	9
Total	23 ^d	20 ^d	43 ^d

^aDinner, dancing, opera, ballet.

^bPolitics, religion.

^cGunnery, gardening, fishing.

^dSome subjects selected more than one activity.

The question regarding aims of the assistant principals elicited a number of responses, all of which are revealed in Table XXI. The aim

to become a principal received the greatest frequency of replies with twelve of the thirty-three subjects responding in that manner. Working toward a doctorate and a desire to teach at the college level received four responses each. The aims of the subjects are listed verbatim in the table.

TABLE XXI
AIMS IN LIFE STATED BY THE MOBILES
AND IMMOBILES

Aims ^a	Frequency among		Total
	Mobiles	Immobiles	
To become a principal	8	4	12
College instruction	3	1	4
Try for the doctorate	3	1	4
Be of service to mankind	...	2	2
Strive for improvement	2	...	2
Unknown	1	1	2
Continue in the profession	1	...	1
Continue my education	...	1	1
Counseling in a church	...	1	1
Director of industrial education	1	...	1
Personnel director	1	...	1
To be happy in my work	1	...	1
To be a good educator	1	...	1
To keep advancing	1	...	1
To provide for myself and family	1	...	1
To retire	...	1	1
To work in best interest of boys and girls	...	1	1

^aSome subjects listed more than one aim.

Twenty-nine of the respondents stated certain obstacles that they thought might prevent their attaining their goals. "Lack of finances" and "lack of professional training" were the obstacles mentioned more frequently than the others. Twelve of the twenty-nine stated that they knew of no obstacle that would prevent their reaching their desired aims. The results are given in Table XXII.

TABLE XXII
OBSTACLES STATED BY SUBJECTS WHICH
MIGHT PREVENT ATTAINMENT OF AIMS

Obstacles	Frequency among		Total
	Mobiles ^a	Immobiles	
None	7	5	12
Lack of finances	3	2	5
Lack of professional training	3	1	4
No answer	2	2	4
Hesitancy to leave system	1	1	2
A change in present policy	1	...	1
Complacency	1	...	1
Family ties	1	...	1
Lack of good speaking ability	1	...	1
Myself	1	...	1
Not a good politician	1	...	1
Not observed by those in charge	1	...	1
Physical limitations	...	1	1

^aSome mobiles listed two obstacles.

A variety of reasons for wanting to change former jobs were stated by the subjects. "Better salary" and "to advance" were the reasons given most often. The results of this question are given in Table XXIII.

TABLE XXIII
REASONS STATED BY MOBILES AND IMMOBILES FOR
WANTING TO CHANGE JOBS HELD IN THE PAST

Reason ^a	Frequency among		Total
	Mobiles	Immobiles	
Better salary	8	4	12
To advance	9	1	10
Greater challenge	...	3	3
None	2	1	3
Desire for more security	...	2	2
More prestige	2	...	2
Better position	1	...	1
Greater opportunity	...	1	1
Growth	1	...	1
More responsibility	1	...	1
Need for more experience	1	...	1
None stated	...	1	1
Self-improvement	...	1	1
Superintendent insecure in job	...	1	1
To be free of the confinement of the classroom	1	...	1
To better myself	1	...	1
To do something different	1	...	1
To expand my influence	...	1	1
Too confining inside	1	...	1

^aSome respondents listed more than one reason.

A related question pertaining to ways in which each subject wished his career could be different produced an interesting pattern of answers. Sixteen of the twenty-nine responding expressed no wish for change, while thirteen stated some way in which they would change their career if they could. Table XXIV contains a frequency distribution for the mobiles and immobiles regarding their desire for some change or no change in their career.

TABLE XXIV
NUMBER OF MOBILE AND IMMOBILE SUBJECTS WHO
STATED SOME OR NO DESIRED CHANGE IN CAREER

Variable	Mobiles	Immobiles	Total
Change desired	7 ^a	6 ^a	13
No change mentioned	12 ^a	4 ^a	16
Total	19 ^b	10 ^c	29

^aThis tabulation yielded a Fisher Exact Probability of .16.

^bTwo mobiles did not give an answer.

^cTwo immobiles did not give an answer.

While the data depicted in Table XXIV yielded a Fisher Exact Probability of only .16, it, nevertheless, is indicative of the satisfaction the role incumbents have for their position. The mobiles listed "nothing" as opposed to "something" causing them to desire change, by

a frequency of twelve to seven. On the other hand, the immobiles stated a desire for change by a six to four frequency.

The remaining questions on the inventory were affective rather than factual and concerned with attitudes, opinions, and orientations among the subjects. One question dealt with which relationship was more important to the role-incumbent's success: (1) getting along with co-workers and subordinates, or (2) getting along with superiors. The actual distribution, presented in Table XXV, was not statistically significant. Both the immobiles and mobiles tended to favor getting along with co-workers and subordinates. The immobiles favored that factor to a greater extent than did the mobiles.

TABLE XXV

FACTOR STATED BY THE SUBJECTS AS MOST IMPORTANT
FOR THEIR SUCCESS: GETTING ALONG WITH
CO-WORKERS AND SUBORDINATES
OR SUPERIORS

Factor	Mobiles	Immobiles	Total
Getting along with:			
Co-workers and subordinates	13 ^a	9 ^a	22
Superiors	7 ^a	3 ^a	10
Total	20 ^b	12	32

^aFisher Exact Probability = .26, N.S.

^bOne mobile gave no answer.

In an opinion question each subject was asked to select one characteristic that he especially appreciated in former school officers. "Showing consideration" and "structuring the organization" were the most frequent responses. The mobiles slightly preferred the former factor while the immobiles slightly favored the latter.

The response frequencies are given in Table XXVI.

TABLE XXVI
CHARACTERISTIC MOST LIKED BY THE SUBJECTS
IN FORMER SCHOOL OFFICERS

Characteristic	Mobiles	Immobiles	Total
Showing consideration	6	4	10
Structuring the organization	5	5	10
Maintaining clear communication	5	3	8
Something else (specified)	3	...	3
Implementing or following through with plans, requests, and activities	1	...	1
Total	20 ^a	12	32

^aOne mobile gave no answer.

In a query dealing with orientations, the respondents were asked to select the person or persons whose advice was found to be the most valuable with respect to a school problem. The check-list consisted of (1) teachers, (2) the principal, and (3) supervisors and directors from

the central office. The total group and both sub-groups decidedly favored the principal as the one having the most valuable advice. The distribution is illustrated in Table XXVII.

TABLE XXVII
PERSON(S) IN SCHOOL SYSTEM WHOSE ADVICE
IS MOST VALUED BY SUBJECTS^a

Person(s)	Mobiles	Immobiles	Total
Principal ^b	14	6	20
Teachers ^b	...	3	3
Supervisors or directors ^c	1	...	1
Others (specified)	5	3	8
No answer	1	...	1
Total	21	12	33

^aWith respect to solving a school problem.

^bWithin the building where the subject works.

^cFrom the central office.

An attitudinal question sought information regarding the manner in which a problem should be resolved in a school. Did the assistant principals believe one should abide by rules and policies; or should he take "reasonable" action, even if not in accord with rules and policies? The mobiles slightly favored "taking 'reasonable' action," while the immobiles preferred "abiding by rules and regulations." The

relationship, however, was significant at only the .12 level. The frequency distribution is given in Table XXVIII.

TABLE XXVIII
SUBJECTS' FEELINGS ABOUT HOW A PROBLEM
SHOULD BE RESOLVED IN A SCHOOL

Factor	Mobiles	Immobiles	Total
Abide by rules and policies	9	7	16
Take "reasonable" action ^a	10	5	15
Total	19 ^b	12	31

^aEven if not in accord with rules and policies.

^bTwo mobiles gave no answers.

In summary, the Personal History Inventory revealed many similarities and differences between the mobiles and immobiles. Although there was little difference between the two groups regarding marital status, number of children, and possession of the master's degree, there was a significantly greater number of mobiles engaged in a degree program beyond the master's.

Both administrative groups reported more memberships in professional organizations than in all other organizations combined. In fact, religious was the only organization membership in which the immobiles had a higher mean frequency than the mobiles. As for

activities, both groups preferred "outdoor activities."

The aim in life preferred by both groups was to "become a principal." While many in neither group perceived an obstacle to reaching their desired aims in life, some of the mobiles reported "lack of professional training" and "lack of finances" as possible barriers. The immobiles were not so concerned for "lack of training." More immobiles than mobiles stated a desire for change in their careers.

The immobiles rather than the mobiles had a tendency to embrace the organizational values in preference to the personal. Mobiles esteemed "showing consideration" more highly than other characteristics admired in former school officials, while immobiles preferred "structuring the organization." Mobiles preferred taking "reasonable" action when solving problems; whereas, the immobile chose "abiding by rules and regulations." Both groups, however, preferred getting along with co-workers and subordinates rather than superiors, and they valued the advice of their principals more highly than others in solving school problems.

CHAPTER V

THE INTERVIEWS

A personal interview was held with each of the thirty-three subjects. The interviews, which lasted from forty-five minutes to one hour and fifteen minutes, were conducted in the privacy of the assistant principal's office or in another room free of distractions. All interviews were granted the investigator after he had previously made the request in person.

The interview centered around questions that were intended to evoke responses regarding: (1) attitudes toward the role of assistant principal, (2) career plans, (3) needs for greater satisfaction, (4) motives for upward mobility, and (5) features of the school systems particularly liked by the respondents. The beginning question pertaining to the duties of the subject in his role was designed to put the subject at ease, just as the concluding question about the subject's "likes" for the system was formulated so that the interview could end on a positive note.

All interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed on the evening of the interview with the exception of those six conducted on Fridays. Those were transcribed the following day.

Responses to the Interview Schedule

The Description of the Role of
Assistant Principal

The first question, "What do you do in your job as assistant principal?" was intended to develop rapport and to put the subject at ease. The assistant principals were kept talking about their jobs until sufficiently relaxed to proceed to the next question. Most respondents, however, talked freely about their role, necessitating very little prompting from the interviewer.

The job descriptions were quite similar regardless of whether the subject was a mobile or immobile. Most of the assistant principals reported daily routines which consumed most of their time, such as the following:

A mobile: "For one thing I'm the disciplinarian of the school. I get the students from the classes that teachers think are more than a classroom problem. That occupies a majority of my time. I help supervise the lunchroom, the recreation room, and check the halls and the playground."

An immobile: "I spend a good part of my day visiting with parents, teachers, and kids. Student and parent conferences generally have to do with discipline. Teachers come in and their problem is with discipline, too. It may take a different nature."

Regard for the Role of Assistant Principal

Following the job descriptions the respondents were asked, "How do you feel about the job of assistant principal?" In responding, the subjects provided information of their feeling for the role in general, and, in addition, revealed their attitude toward job status and salary. Those who did not comment on the latter two perceptions were asked about them, particularly. It was thought that the three concepts would

give an indication of job satisfaction.

The global statements provided by the subjects were classified as "positive," "uncertain," or "negative": A response was classified as reflecting a "positive" attitude toward the role in general, job status, and salary if it was mostly favorable in content. Statements were classified as "negative" if they had an unfavorable ring to them. Responses seeming to have equal elements of each were classified as "uncertain."

Illustrations of global descriptions of the role in general classified as "positive," "negative," and "uncertain" are as follows:

Positive:

"I like the job very, very much. I like to work with children. I love to see their daily progress."

"I like the work I'm doing. I like it very well. If you don't like it, you better get out of it."

Negative:

"That's a good question. As a matter of fact - to put it bluntly - it's a lousy job. I've worked in a lot of jobs in the system and as far as working conditions go, these are the worst that I've ever encountered. It's the nature of the job. Most of the time it is strictly a negative job."

"It's the most difficult job I've ever done. Time and time again you work with a student and don't seem to have an effect. Certainly there are many things about the job that 'get under your skin.' I can't understand how a person could say he enjoys his job tremendously when so much of his time is taken up with disciplining students."

Uncertain:

"I think it's a rewarding job if you make it such. Admittedly, we do many things that are undesirable. Personally, I like the job. I don't like the discipline aspect of it."

"Oh, I like being assistant principal. I just think it is too heavily oriented toward the managerial aspect and not enough to the educational aspects of it. Oh, I like what

I do; I just like these other things better; I'd like to become a part of it."

Examples of statements of job status classified as "positive," "Negative," and "uncertain" follow:

Positive:

"Yes, I think it's looked up to by the teachers. The people in the community seem to look up to the assistant principal."

"I think the assistant principal has status. I'm proud of my job; I'm proud of my standing in the community among the parents and patrons."

Negative:

"The assistant principal is the low man on the totem pole. We haven't even had a meeting this year. The teachers have had meetings and the principals, but not the assistant principals."

"To me it boils down to this: the assistant principal is a workhorse. He gets all the chores that no one else wants to do, and this takes away from the prestige."

Uncertain:

"Prestige? Oh gosh, I never have given it any thought. It's just a job that's gotta be done."

"Status is questionable. I think you have to make your own status as an assistant principal. I don't think the title itself, these days, means that particular much. I think that you have to establish your own status."

Following are some statements regarding salary that were classified as "positive," "negative," and "uncertain."

Positive:

"Yes, I'm satisfied with the salary. I think it's fair."

"The salary is basically sound in my estimation. There is very little difference in my salary and the principal's salary."

Negative:

"The salary is not adequate. When I became assistant principal, I made more per day as a teacher than as assistant

principal."

"No, I don't think I am satisfied with the salary. No, I don't think the salary of the assistant principal, considering what all he has to do, is enough."

Uncertain:

"I really can't complain about the salary, but I would like to make more. I don't think there is enough differentiation between teachers' salaries and assistant principals' salaries."

"I think at the present time I'm satisfied with the salary in line with some other things. Of course, I could always use more money."

Table XXIX contains the frequency with which responses regarding the assistant principal's role in general, job status, and salary were classified as "positive," "negative," and "uncertain."

TABLE XXIX

NUMBER OF STATEMENTS BY THE SUBJECTS REGARDING THE ASSISTANT PRINCIPALSHIP CLASSIFIED AS "POSITIVE," "NEGATIVE," OR "UNCERTAIN" AS APPLIED TO THE ROLE IN GENERAL, JOB STATUS, AND SALARY

Subject	Role in General			Job Status			Salary			Total		
	Pos.	Neg.	?	Pos.	Neg.	?	Pos.	Neg.	?	Pos.	Neg.	?
Mobiles ^a	11	2	8	16	1	4	5	14	2	32	16	5
Immobiles ^b	3	3	6	7	2	3	1	10	1	11	15	10
Total	14	5	14	23	3	7	6	24	3	43	31	15

^aN = 21.

^bN = 12.

From Table XXIX, it is apparent that a majority of the statements were positive. Positive statements were more frequently made by the mobiles than the immobiles. A chi square table with both types of assistant principals along one axis and the total "positive," "negative," and "uncertain" along the other was constructed. The resultant distribution produced a chi square value of 4.25 for a P of less than .05.

The investigator preferred to construct a chi square table for each of the three factors arranged in similar manner to that for the total responses, but he was prevented from doing so because of the smallness of the cells. It was decided to combine the "negative" and "uncertain" responses for each variable for the following reasons: (1) the investigator was interested in the positive orientation of the subjects versus anything less than positive, and (2) by combining the categories the Fisher Exact Probabilities Test could be utilized to analyze the responses. Table XXX presents the data for the three factors with the two categories combined.

While none of the relationships were statistically significant, it may be noted that on the variable of "role in general" the mobiles responded more with positive statements, while the immobiles favored less than positive. Both mobiles and immobiles responded positively on the job status variable. It is interesting to note in regard to the subjects' comments on salary that 27 of the 33 in the study viewed their salaries in less than a positive manner. Of the two administrative groups, however, the mobiles were more inclined to comment positively about salary than were the immobiles.

TABLE XXX

NUMBER OF STATEMENTS BY THE SUBJECTS REGARDING THE ASSISTANT PRINCIPALSHIP CLASSIFIED AS "POSITIVE" OR "LESS THAN POSITIVE"

Subject	Role in General		Job Status		Salary	
	Pos.	Not Pos.	Pos.	Not Pos.	Pos.	Not Pos.
Mobiles ^a	11 ^c	10 ^c	16 ^d	5 ^d	5 ^e	16 ^e
Immobiles ^b	3 ^c	9 ^c	7 ^d	5 ^d	1 ^e	11 ^e
Total	14	19	23	10	6	27

^aN = 21.

^bN = 12.

^cThis tabulation yielded a Fisher Exact Probability of .90.

^dThis tabulation yielded a Fisher Exact Probability of .17.

^eThis tabulation yielded a Fisher Exact Probability of .22.

Career Plans

A third question asked by the investigator was, "What are your career plans, say in the next five years? In the future?" A related question sought to determine whether anything would induce the respondent to pursue a career outside the school system.

The responses to the inquiry about one's present job were consistent with the classification of the subjects as mobile or immobile: not one wished to remain in the role. The immediate goal of all assistant principals was to become a principal. Three, however, did mention that they desired elementary principalships. When asked whether this was considered an advancement, all three stated that they deemed it so.

Long-range ambitions included (1) becoming a principal, (2) working at the central office, and (3) college teaching.

Tables XXXI and XXXII record the responses related to whether the respondents would ever consider leaving the school system to further their career goals.

TABLE XXXI
NUMBER OF MOBILE AND IMMOBILE SUBJECTS WHO STATED
SOMETHING OR NOTHING WHICH WOULD INDUCE THEM
TO LEAVE THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

Variable	Mobiles	Immobiles	Total
Stated <u>something</u> as an inducement for leaving	12	8	20
Stated <u>nothing</u> as an inducement for leaving	9	4	13
Total	21	12	33

This tabulation yielded a Fisher Exact Probability of .25.

Table XXXI reveals that both the immobiles and mobiles stated something as an inducement for leaving. The variable of stating something or nothing did not discriminate between the two administrative groups.

The considerations that might cause the respondents to go outside the school system are listed in Table XXXII. An "increase in salary"

was again mentioned more frequently than any other consideration, with more mobiles than immobiles listing that point. College teaching was next highest in frequency with four mobiles and one immobile stating it as a possible inducement for leaving.

TABLE XXXII

CAREER CONSIDERATIONS WHICH WOULD ENCOURAGE THE
RESPONDENTS TO LEAVE THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

Item	Mobiles	Immobiles	Total
An increase in salary	1	5	6
College teaching	4	1	5
A higher position	4	...	4
A good opportunity	1	...	1
A school with modular scheduling	1	...	1
An "up and going" system	...	1	1
Better living conditions	...	1	1
College administration	1	...	1
Total	12	8	20

Consideration for Greater Satisfaction

The fourth question sought information regarding those things that would contribute to greater job satisfaction. Specifically, each respondent was asked, "Is there anything which would make your job as assistant principal more satisfying?" All but two subjects mentioned

something, while several mentioned two items.

From the items in Table XXXIII, one notices that the mobiles were interested in "more help" and "more time to visit classrooms." The immobiles were interested in those items, too, but to a lesser extent. Immobiles were more interested than mobiles in "teachers assuming more responsibility," "not having to do all the dirty work," and "better office facilities."

TABLE XXXIII
ITEMS WHICH SUBJECTS SAID WOULD CONTRIBUTE
TO INCREASED JOB SATISFACTION

Item	Mobiles ^a	Immobiles ^b	Total
More help	9	3	12
More salary	5	3	8
More time to visit classrooms	5	1	6
If teachers assumed more responsibility of their students	1	2	3
More responsibility and authority	2	1	3
Assistance in getting substitutes	...	2	2
A more stable population	1	...	1
Better office facilities	...	1	1
Better promotion policy	...	1	1
If counselors understood students better	...	1	1
More cooperation from parents	1	...	1
More emphasis on growth in administration	...	1	1
More involved in policy making	...	1	1
More recognition	1	...	1
More time to work with problem students	1	...	1
Not having to do all the "dirty work"	...	1	1
Voluntary integration of teachers	...	1	1
Work more directly with good kids	1	...	1
Total	27	19	46

^aN = 21.

^bN = 12.

Responses that were typical of the mobiles follow:

"With all our youngsters, if we had additional staff members--one more principal, at least one more counselor and a few more teachers--this would make it a more desirable situation as far as work load is concerned."

"Oh, as I say, give me an opportunity to get out into the classroom more, work with the teachers more, work with the kids more who are seeking an education."

"I think we could be more effective in the kinds of jobs that we do if we had the time to involve ourselves more deeply in some of the problems. We need more assistant principals. We need more counselors and more teachers, too."

Samples of the responses from the immobiles that denoted dissatisfaction follow:

"Yes, here is the thing that bothers me. Generally speaking, everything is shucked your way. We need more involvement of other personnel with the students in the problem areas. That would make my job easier."

"We need more assurance that when vacancies are apparent we would get invited to them. Every man likes to look forward to the day when he will get a promotion. If he doesn't, he loses faith."

"Some of the details (of my job) are such things as some problems being settled by just a little bit of counseling by the teachers instead of referring all problems to me."

Motives for "Upward Mobility"

The fifth question was designed to reveal some reasons why the subjects wanted to become principals. Since all the subjects had stated on the preliminary mail-back questionnaire that they desired to be a principal, the question was not a leading one. Each respondent was asked, "Why do you want to be a principal?"

The most common reason stated for seeking the principalship was the prospect of implementing their own ideas. Feeling qualified and the desire "to make more money" also ranked high. The coded responses

are given in Table XXXIV.

TABLE XXXIV
REASONS STATED BY SUBJECTS FOR
WANTING TO BE A PRINCIPAL

Reason	Mobiles ^a	Immobiles ^b	Total
To implement own ideas	8	4	12
Feel qualified	3	3	6
To make more money	6	...	6
For more prestige	3	1	4
For more responsibility	3	...	3
For the challenge	2	1	3
For greater opportunity	1	1	2
Like meeting people	2	...	2
To keep moving ahead	2	...	2
Fewer problems	1	...	1
For more authority	...	1	1
To make greater contribution	1	1	2
Total	32	12	44

^aN = 21.

^bN = 12.

Although the responses revealed similar motives for upward-mobility, some differences between the two administrative groups did appear. The mobiles were concerned for making more money, for more responsibility, for the chance to meet people, and for moving ahead. No immobile advanced one of these reasons for wanting to be a principal.

Verbatim responses related to the coded items in Table XXXIV follow.

Illustrations of the mobile responses were:

"Probably one of the big items is just plain ol' money. Status to some people means a lot, but to me status doesn't mean that much."

"I would feel, frankly, like my skills were in this area. Of course, the salary is greater. You would have more prestige, and I think everybody likes more prestige. You would kinda like seeing a school operate the way you think it should."

"I would like to serve as principal for the experience, to implement a few ideas that I've developed over the last three or four years. I would like to manage a school, staff it, have the experience of going through the budget just to satisfy my own curiosity and goal."

"Oh, I would just like to see what I can do. It (advancement) represents some improvement. The principal does a lot more work with the teachers, does do a lot more work with the kids."

The following are illustrative of the comments made by the immobiles:

"It's what I am trained to be; I've been working toward that. The pay is better."

"I would like to instigate a few changes that I think should be made in policy. I would like to see more of a vocational type training."

"The job has more opportunities; you have more prestige, and you let somebody else take care of the discipline."

"Well, each of us has an idea and thinks his idea is as good as or better than the other fellow's idea. I would like an opportunity to try it. Everybody who is not in charge of a building himself is handicapped to a certain degree in operating as he sees fit."

Features of the School System Particularly Liked by the Respondents

The last question was included simply that the interview might end on a positive note; nevertheless, the responses are included in Table XXXV. Probably one of the most important revelations of the table is

the paucity of comments of the immobiles as contrasted with the mobiles. Features of the school liked by the mobiles and hardly mentioned by the immobiles were "superior administrative staff," "outstanding teachers," and "friendly teachers and students."

TABLE XXXV
FEATURES OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM PARTICULARLY
LIKED BY THE SUBJECTS

Feature	Mobiles ^a	Immobiles ^b	Total
High quality of education ^c	9	4	13
Superior administrative staff	10	1	11
Freedom associated with office	5	3	8
Outstanding teachers	4	1	5
Friendly teachers and students	4	...	4
Opportunities for promotion	3	1	4
Professional status enjoyed	2	1	3
Attempts to improve salaries	1	1	2
Feeling of security	...	2	2
Attractive buildings	...	1	1
Challenging work	1	...	1
Extra benefits	1	...	1
Total	40	15	55

^aN = 21.

^bN = 12.

^cIn terms of opportunities, resources, and progressive philosophy.

Summary

Responses to the six interview items contained many similarities and some differences between the two administrative groups. The

greatest similarity was found in the descriptions of the role of the assistant principal.

While there were no statistically significant differences between the two administrative groups regarding the variables of "role in general," "job status," and "salary," there was a statistically significant difference when the "positive," "negative," and "uncertain" responses were totaled for the three variables. The mobiles made a greater number of positive comments regarding assistant principals' role.

Responses in regard to career plans indicated that all subjects were interested in principalships. Twenty of the thirty-three subjects stated inducements that might cause them to leave the system. There was no statistically significant difference between the mobiles and immobiles pertaining to that variable.

The question involving job satisfaction revealed responses suggestive of dissatisfaction among the immobiles. They were interested, more than the mobiles, in teachers assuming more responsibility, not having to do all the "dirty work," and in better office facilities. On the other hand, the mobiles cited desires for more help and more time to visit classrooms. Both groups were interested in higher salaries.

Reasons stated by the subjects for desiring a principalship were both similar and dissimilar. Both administrative types felt qualified and wanted to implement their ideas. The mobiles, more than the immobiles, were interested in increased salary, more responsibility, and moving ahead.

The sixth question regarding "features of the school system

particularly liked," again suggested a lack of satisfaction among the immobiles. The twelve immobiles had a frequency of only 15 for the features that they liked about their school system. Conversely, the 21 mobiles' responses had a frequency of 40 for the features that they particularly liked.

CHAPTER VI

FINDINGS OF THE PRESENT STUDY COMPARED WITH POWERS' RESULTS

This investigation began as a replication of Powers' study of upward mobility of assistant principals¹, but the idea was abandoned when it was discovered that non-mobiles, as defined by Powers, could not be identified in the three school systems utilized in this study. The fact that three school systems, rather than one as in Powers' case, provide the data for this investigation is another difference between the two studies. A third difference is that Powers chose a sample of 60 from a population of 240, while the present investigator has a sample of 33 taken from a population of 85. These are the basic differences between the two studies.

While the present investigation is not a replication, it follows the principal design, the methodology, and the instrumentation used by Powers. As a result of the similarity in approach, a comparison of the findings of the two studies is now given with respect to the descriptions of administrative behavior, intelligence scores, personality variables, personal history, and the interviews.

¹Thomas E. Powers, "Administrative Behavior and Factors Related to Upward Mobility" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1966), pp. 1-130.

The T-G Form

Similarities

The principals in both studies were more inclined to designate their assistant principals as "personal" rather than "normative," regardless of whether they were mobile or immobile.²

When the two administrative groups were divided into "younger" and "older," both investigations revealed that the younger assistant principals were associated with "personal" behavior.³

Differences

In both studies the mobile was perceived as exhibiting "personal" behavior, while the immobile was seen as evidencing "normative" behavior. However, in Powers' study the relationship was statistically significant, whereas in the present investigation the level of significance was only .19. The difference between the two investigations was one of degree rather than direction.

The Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire

Similarities

In neither study was age a significant variable for the assistant principals regarding "consideration" or "initiating structure" scores.⁴ The mobiles had a significantly higher mean score than the immobiles on

²Powers, p. 38.

³Ibid., p. 39.

⁴Ibid.

both "initiating structure" and "consideration."⁵

When both administrative groups were divided into "younger" and "older," there was a significant difference between each age group on the "consideration" scores.⁶

When a relationship was tabulated between leadership style and the higher scored component on the LBDQ, there was a significant difference between the number of subjects higher on "consideration" described as "personal" and the number of subjects higher on "initiating structure" described as "normative."

Findings in both investigations supported the following two hypotheses: (1) the mobile role-incumbent would be perceived as exhibiting "personal" behavior, and would be higher on "consideration" than "initiating structure," and (2) the immobile would be significantly lower than the mobile on "initiating structure."⁸

The results suggest that principals associated "normative" descriptions of administration with inconsiderate behavior, illustrated by only four of the eight "normative" subjects as above the sample mean on "initiating structure" contrasted with ten of sixteen "personal" subjects as above the sample mean on "consideration." Both studies suggest that the "normative" description of administration was associated with inconsiderate behavior.⁹

⁵Powers, p. 43.

⁶Ibid., p. 44.

⁷Ibid., p. 47.

⁸Ibid.

⁹Ibid., p. 50.

Differences

Again, the differences between the two studies were a matter of degree rather than direction, with one important exception. Powers found that the immobile was perceived as exhibiting "normative" behavior, and was higher on "initiating structure" than "consideration."¹⁰ The present investigator found that while the immobile evidenced "normative" behavior at only the .19 level of significance, he was higher on "consideration" than "initiating structure."

When a table depicting the number scoring higher on each dimension of the LBDQ was constructed, it was found that mobiles scored higher on "consideration" to a greater extent than the immobiles. The relationship yielded a Fisher Exact Probability of .16 contrasted to .01 as found by Powers.¹¹

Regarding "initiating structure" the younger mobiles had a higher score than the younger immobiles, but not at a statistically significant level. Powers found the difference significant at .05.¹²

The Wonderlic Personnel Test

Powers found a significant difference in the intelligence scores between the mobiles and immobiles and between their subgroups of "younger" and "older."¹³ Although the present study revealed no statistically significant differences, they were in the expected direction.

¹⁰Powers, p. 47.

¹¹Ibid., p. 45.

¹²Ibid., p. 44.

¹³Ibid., p. 55.

The Malo Sentence Completion Test

Neither researcher found any significant differences between mobiles and immobiles for any of the six variables contained in the sentence completion test. Powers found the mobiles to score slightly higher than immobiles on "activity drive," "achievement drive," "social adaptability," "security," and "emotional control."¹⁴ The present study revealed the mobiles to score higher than the immobiles only on the "security" dimension. Both investigations showed the immobiles to be higher on "mobility drive."

The Personal History Inventory

Similarities

There were no significant differences between mobiles and immobiles regarding marital status and the number of children.¹⁵

Both studies indicate that the assistant principals belong to more professional organizations than all other groups combined. Next in greatest frequency were the social memberships.¹⁶

"Becoming a principal" was the overwhelming choice of both administrative groups as their aim in life. Many of the subjects did not perceive any obstacle that would prevent their attainment of their goals. In fact, "none" was the response with the greatest frequency

¹⁴Powers, p. 58.

¹⁵Ibid., p. 61.

¹⁶Ibid., p. 64.

regarding the issue of obstacles.¹⁷

Pertaining to reasons why assistant principals wanted to change jobs in the past, "better salary" and "advancement opportunity" were the most frequent responses.¹⁸

Both investigations reveal a non-significant difference between mobiles who perceive "getting along with co-workers" to be more important to success and immobiles who perceive "getting along with superiors" to be more important.¹⁹

"Showing consideration" was the variable most frequently checked by both administrative groups regarding the characteristic most liked in former school officers. Both groups also valued the advice of the principal in solving a school problem, in preference to the advice from another person. The immobiles preferred "abiding by rules and policies" when solving a school problem, whereas the mobiles chose to "take 'reasonable' action."²⁰

Differences

Powers found a significant relationship between the mobiles taking their master's degrees in a field other than administration and supervision, and the immobiles taking their master's in administration and supervision. In the present study all assistant principals had a master's degree in administration and supervision, although some had

¹⁷ Powers, pp. 65, 66.

¹⁸ Ibid., p. 68.

¹⁹ Ibid., p. 69.

²⁰ Ibid., pp. 70, 71.

another master's in a different area.²¹

The present investigator found a significant difference between the mobiles currently engaged in a degree program and the immobiles not so engaged. The tabulation yielded a Fisher Exact Probability of .02. Powers found no such relationship.²²

In the present study the assistant principals favored "outdoor recreation" as the activity to which they had devoted most of their time over the past five years. From the check-list of six activities Powers' respondents preferred "reading" and "club activities."²³

Both studies found a difference between the mobiles who listed something as a wish for a change in career and the immobiles who listed nothing as a wish for change. Powers' tabulation was significant at .01. The significance level for the present study was only .16.²⁴

The Interviews

Similarities

Both studies indicate significant differences regarding the number of mobiles making "positive" statements about the principalship and the number of immobiles making "negative" statements.²⁵

An "increase in salary" and "a higher position" were considerations for leaving the school systems that were most often given by both

²¹Powers, p. 62.

²²Ibid., p. 63.

²³Ibid., p. 64.

²⁴Ibid., p. 69.

²⁵Ibid., p. 80.

administrative groups. The mobiles mentioned "more salary" and "more help" as items that would contribute to increased job satisfaction. Regarding that variable the immobiles voiced a ring of dissatisfaction: Powers' respondents wanted "more authority" and "more respect," while those in the present study wanted teachers to assume more responsibility for their students and to be relieved of "dirty work."²⁶

In both studies "getting ideas accomplished" and "making more money" were often mentioned by the assistant principals as reasons for wanting a principalship; however, the mobiles, more than the immobiles, were interested in making more money.²⁷

"High quality of education" and "superior administrative staff" are the features particularly liked about the school system by both administrative groups and mentioned with greater frequency than the other variables. Both studies reveal few items particularly liked by the immobiles as contrasted with the mobiles.²⁸

Differences

Powers found significant differences between mobiles and immobiles regarding "positive," "negative," and "questionable" statements about "role in general," "job status," and "salary."²⁹ The present study revealed the same direction of differences but only at significance levels of .09, .17, and .22, respectively.

²⁶ Powers, p. 84.

²⁷ Ibid., p. 86.

²⁸ Ibid., p. 92.

²⁹ Ibid., p. 80.

Powers found a significant relationship between mobiles who stated nothing as an inducement for leaving the school system and immobiles who stated something. The present study revealed a non-significant difference. The latter study found assistant principals to be more inclined to leave the system than were the subjects in Powers' study. Twenty of 23 mentioned a consideration which would prompt them to leave, whereas Powers had only 18 of 60 who stated any such consideration.³⁰

Powers found that the immobiles were more inclined than the mobiles to view the principalship as a means for acquiring greater prestige and more responsibility. The present study revealed no such information. Eight of Powers' immobiles responded "nothing at all" to the query regarding a feature of the school system particularly liked.³¹ Every respondent in the present study responded positively to this question.

Summary

The number of instances in which there is agreement of findings between the two studies is greater than the number of differences. A fundamental difference from the outset was the recognition that non-mobiles, defined as those choosing to remain in their role, did not exist in the three school systems studied in the present investigation; they were identified in Powers' research.

The principals were more inclined to describe their assistant

³⁰Powers, p. 83.

³¹Ibid., p. 92.

principal's behavior as "personal" rather than "normative," in both studies. The two investigations revealed (1) that mobiles were "personal" and higher on "consideration" than immobiles and (2) that immobiles were significantly lower than mobiles on "initiating structure." In regard to a third hypothesis, however, Powers found that the immobile scored more highly on "initiating structure" than on "consideration," while the present investigation revealed just the reverse. Both studies showed a high positive correlation between the two dimensions of the LBDQ and their counterparts of the T-G Form.

The present investigation found no statistically significant difference in intelligence between the two administrative groups, while Powers found that the mobiles were significantly higher on this variable than the immobiles. Both investigations revealed no significant differences between the mobiles and immobiles on any of the six variables of the Malo Sentence Completion Test.

Regarding the Personal History Inventory, both investigators found that: (1) the assistant principals belonged to more professional organizations than all others combined, (2) "becoming a principal" was the preferred aim in life by both administrative groups, (3) "better salary" and advancement opportunity were the most popular reasons given for desiring a principalship, and (4) both the mobiles and immobiles selected "showing consideration" as the characteristic most admired in former school officials. There were, however, dissimilarities between the two investigations: (1) Powers found that a significantly higher number of mobiles held master's degrees in an area other than administration and supervision; the present investigator did not find such a difference. (2) The present study indicated a significantly higher

number of mobiles engaged in a degree program, while Powers' investigation did not find such a relationship.

The interviews revealed in both investigations that the mobiles made more positive statements about the principalship than did the immobiles. Both studies revealed that "more salary" and "more help" were factors that mobiles considered to lead to greater job satisfaction, while the immobiles suggested an element of dissatisfaction by wanting "more authority," "teachers to assume more responsibility for their students," and a relief from "dirty work." The findings of the two studies differed as follows: (1) Powers found a significant difference between the immobiles stating something as a reason for leaving and the mobiles stating nothing; no such difference was found in the present study. (2) The assistant principals in the present study, more than those in Powers' study, were inclined to consider leaving the school system in furtherance of career goals. (3) Eight of the immobiles in Powers' investigation indicated that there was no feature of their school system that they particularly liked, whereas all respondents in the present study mentioned at least one item.

Most of the other dissimilarities between the two studies revealed differences in degree rather than in direction.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

The preceding chapters recorded the methodology and findings of a study of administrative behavior and personal characteristics of assistant principals who differed in factors related to upward mobility. Chapters III, IV, and V described behavioral and personal characteristics of subjects defined as mobile and immobile, while Chapter VI compared the findings of the present study with those in Powers' investigation. This final chapter summarizes the most important results of the study. Also, conclusions are drawn regarding the instruments, and findings and implications are suggested for practice and further research.

Summary

Formulation of the Problem

A number of studies dealing with the behavior and personal characteristics of administrators have revealed some important differences between "types" of administrators. In this research the investigator sought to determine whether certain behavioral and psychological qualities of assistant principals are related to upward mobility. The results were compared with the findings of a similar study conducted by Powers.

The investigator followed Powers' conceptualization of two "types" of administrators: (1) mobiles, who aspire to higher position, but have been neither rejected nor accepted for advancement, and (2) immobiles, who aspire to higher position but have been rejected for advancement.

The principal purpose of this study was to investigate particular dimensions of administrative behavior among the role-incumbents in each of the two types. A secondary purpose of the investigation was to gain information regarding (1) motives for upward mobility, and (2) differences between mobiles and immobiles with respect toward role, present and future job plans, and needs for job satisfaction. Information was also sought regarding intelligence, certain personality variables, and the personal history of the subjects.

Several previous empirical studies have some bearing on the exploratory questions of this study. Coates and Pellegrin, Caplow, and Wald and Doty have studied "promotability"¹; however, they have focused on potential for promotion. By contrast, this study treats attitude toward promotion as the primary independent variable.

Selection of the Subjects

The study was conducted in three metropolitan school systems in the Midwest. The three settings seemed suitable since they had clearly

¹Charles H. Coates and Roland J. Pellegrin, "Executives and Supervisors: Informal Factors in Differential Bureaucratic Promotion," Administrative Science Quarterly, II (1957), pp. 204-208.

Theodore Caplow, The Sociology of Work (Minneapolis, 1954), pp. 68-73.

Robert M. Wald and Roy A. Doty, "The Top Executive--A First Hand Profile," Harvard Business Review, XXXII (1954), p. 53.

defined the role of assistant principal, and together they employed eighty-five to the position, which seemed an adequate number for the research. Also, with a ratio of seventeen assistant principals to fifteen principals, it seemed likely that an immobile group could be identified.

Two controls were employed with respect to the prospective classification of the subjects: (1) no subject would be included if he was not in at least his second year as assistant principal with his present principal, and (2) no subject would be included who was beyond fifty-five years of age.

The investigator met each of the fifty-two assistant principals who were not eliminated by the two controls. The purpose of the investigation was explained as a role study of assistant principals. All but two agreed to participate and mailed back a questionnaire to the researcher, so that a ninety-six per cent response was realized from the fifty-two.

The main purpose of the questionnaire was to determine whether non-mobiles, defined as those not aspiring to a higher position, could be identified. The question bearing on this point was, "What position would you like to be holding in your school system five years from now?" Not one of the assistant principals indicated that he desired to remain in the role. Accordingly, the investigation was limited to a study of the mobiles and immobiles.

The role-incumbents were classified as mobile or immobile by a knowledgeable official from each of the school systems. In one exception an experienced administrator, not now a member of the administrative staff, classified those assistant principals in that district.

The classifiers based their decisions on the following definitions of mobility:

1. The mobile is one who aspires to a higher position in the organization, but has yet been neither accepted nor rejected for advancement. If there is a vacancy this year, he will probably apply. Within five years his chances at promotion are excellent or above average.
2. The immobile is one who aspires to a higher position in the organization, but has been formally rejected by the administration. If there is a vacancy this year, he will probably not apply. Within five years his chances at promotion are below average or poor.

By this means, twenty-four assistant principals were classified as mobile while thirteen were listed as immobile. Thirteen of the fifty were eliminated because the classifiers were in doubt regarding their chances for promotion.

The sample group was decreased by four as a result of not wanting to participate, or as a result of ambivalence regarding what they thought about their chances for advancement. Finally, the sample consisted of thirty-three: twenty-one mobiles and thirteen immobiles.

Instrumentation

The T-G Form and the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) were used to describe the administrative behavior of the subjects. Both instruments were completed by the principal of the school to which the assistant principal was assigned. The information gained described administrative behavior commensurate with the basic dimensions of the Getzels-Guba model.

The subjects themselves completed the three following instruments:

1. The Malo Sentence Completion Test measures personal variables related to administrative effectiveness: (a) activity drive, (b) achievement drive, (c) mobility drive, (d) social ability, (e) feelings of security, and (f) emotional control.

2. The Wonderlic Personnel Test is a measure of mental ability. It consists of fifty items of an academic nature with a twelve minute time limit.
3. The Personal History Inventory was designed to elicit information from the subjects regarding: (a) demographic factors, (b) education, (c) employment, (d) professional affiliations, and (e) activities participated in.

An interview was held with each subject to gain information pertaining to: (1) motives for upward mobility, and (2) differences in the two administrative types pertaining to attitude toward role, present and future job plans, and needs for increased job satisfaction.

Hypotheses

Three hypotheses were made regarding the administrative behavior of the respondents. They were as follows:

1. The mobile role-incumbent will exhibit administrative behavior which is perceived as personal rather than normative, and higher on "consideration" than on "initiating structure."
2. The immobile role-incumbent will exhibit administrative behavior which is perceived as normative rather than personal, and higher on "initiating structure" than on "consideration."
3. The immobile role-incumbent will be significantly lower than the mobile on "initiating structure."

Findings

1. The Descriptions of Administrative Behavior. Probably the most significant finding of this research is related to the administrative behavior of personnel who are denied promotion. Defined as immobiles, they were found to vary significantly from the mobiles regarding the descriptions of behavior provided by their superiors.

The immobiles were perceived insignificantly as "normative" rather than "personal," whereas the mobiles were viewed as "personal" on the

T-G Form. Regarding the LBDQ, the immobile assistant principals were rated significantly lower than the mobiles on "consideration" and on "initiating structure." Both administrative groups, however, were higher on "consideration" than on "initiating structure."

When the variable of age was considered, the younger immobiles were rated significantly lower than younger mobiles on "consideration," but the difference was not significant regarding "initiating structure." The older immobiles were rated significantly lower than the older mobiles on "consideration."

2. The Intelligence, Personality, and Personal History Instruments. The mobiles made a higher mean score than the immobiles on the Wonderlic Personnel Test, but the difference was not significant. On this short test of mental ability the mobiles responded correctly, on the average, to almost three more questions out of fifty than did the immobiles; however, this was not a significant difference.

A sentence completion test was used to measure the following personal variables: "activity drive," "achievement drive," "mobility drive," "social adaptability," "security," and "emotional control." The mobiles did not vary significantly from the immobiles with respect to any of the six variables. In fact, the mean score for the mobiles exceeded the immobile score only on "security."

Much of the information reported in the Personal History Inventory presented some interesting findings. First, the educational profile for both administrative groups was similar: all held a master's degree while none held a doctorate. All candidates had a degree in "administration and supervision." However, one exception to the similar pattern was related to the area of graduate study. A significantly larger

number of mobiles than immobiles were engaged in a degree program.

Second, a question about organizational membership revealed that, for the total sample, membership in professional organizations exceeded membership in civic and veterans' groups in the five groups that were identified. Total membership for the mobiles was only slightly higher than that for the immobiles. The mobiles had a higher membership than the immobiles in each of the five groups, except religious.

Third, an inventory item about activities to which the subjects devoted their free time found both groups preferring outdoor recreation. The response with the next highest frequency was sports for the mobiles and club activities for the immobiles.

Fourth, a question regarding aims in life revealed that the preferred response for both groups was "becoming a principal." Twelve of the thirty-three subjects perceived no obstacle that would prevent attainment of their goal.

Fifth, "Better salary" and "To advance" were the most often stated reasons by both groups for leaving former jobs. The most prominent reason for mobiles was "to advance," while "immobiles" favored "better salary."

Sixth, an inquiry into ways in which subjects wished their career could be different produced a pattern in which immobiles tended to mention some desired change, while mobiles tended to list no desired change. The difference was significant, however, at only the .16 level.

Finally, differences between the two administrative groups with respect to certain attitudes, opinions, and orientations explored by the questionnaire were not significant. Several of those directional differences follow:

a) Immobiles, to a greater extent than the mobiles, tended to state that getting along with co-workers and subordinates was more important to success than getting along with superiors. This response was preferred by both administrative groups, but not as strongly by the mobiles.

b) In selecting a characteristic particularly appreciated in former school officers, mobiles slightly favored "showing consideration," while immobiles slightly preferred "structuring the organization."

c) Both administrative groups reported that the advice of the principal was most valuable in solving school problems. This response was greater than the combined number of responses favoring teachers, supervisors, and others.

d) An attitudinal question regarding how a school problem should be resolved was asked the subjects. The mobiles slightly preferred "taking 'reasonable' action," while the immobiles preferred "abiding by rules and regulations."

3. The Interviews. Assistant principals, regardless of their type, tended to define their role in similar terms. Most of them described their routine tasks in terms of discipline and attendance. There was a significant difference between mobiles who made positive statements about their role and immobiles who made negative statements. Both administrative types indicated that the principalship was their goal. Twenty of the thirty-three in the sample stated that they would leave the school system to achieve career goals.

"More help" and "more time to visit classrooms" were typical of the needs voiced by mobiles for greater job satisfaction. The comments

of the immobiles had a ring of dissatisfaction, such as "teachers assuming more responsibility," "not having to do all the dirty work," and "better office facilities."

The inquiry regarding motives for upward mobility evoked similar responses from the subjects. Both administrative groups voiced the opinion that they wanted to implement their own ideas. The mobiles were interested in making money, gaining more responsibility, and meeting more people, while not one immobile advanced one of those reasons.

A final question about the features of the school system particularly liked by the subjects produced a variety of responses. A striking aspect of the answers was the infrequency of comments made by the immobiles, as contrasted to the mobiles.

Conclusions

A few conclusions about some of the instruments used in the study were reached by the investigator. First, the present investigator found, just as did Powers², that the study suggests that the T-G Form does not identify personnel with a truly "normative" leadership style. It appears that principals associated "normative" behavior as opposite to "personal," perceiving it as inconsiderate. This judgment is based on the findings that subjects described as "normative" tended to be rated low on "consideration," while there was no relationship between being described as "normative" and obtaining a high "initiating

²Thomas E. Powers, "Administrative Behavior and Factors Related to Upward Mobility" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1966), p. 108.

structure" score.

On the other hand, subjects identified as "personal" in leadership style were rated above the mean on "consideration."

A second conclusion is that the "personal" and "normative" dimensions of the T-G Form do not appear to be consonant with the respective components, "consideration" and "initiating structure," of the LBDQ. The present study revealed that the immobiles were described as "normative," and yet they were rated higher on "consideration" than on "initiating structure."

Another conclusion is that neither global description of the T-G Form seemed to describe the behavior of a number of assistant principals. Nine of thirty-three subjects were unclassified by their principals.

A further limitation applied to the T-G Form and the LBDQ. The administrative behavior of the assistant principals was measured only through the perception of their principals.

Certain conclusions, subject to the procedural limitations just mentioned, were reached from an analysis of the findings of the study. Probably the most important is that dividing upward-mobile personnel according to their apparent chances of achieving career goals is a useful variable in studying the behavioral and psychological characteristics of incumbents of the same role. In the present investigation, the mobiles differed significantly from immobiles regarding: (1) the principal's perception of administrative behavior, (2) engagement of role-incumbents in a degree program, and (3) orientations to the role of assistant principal. In this study, those subjects who had been denied promotion were described by their principals as behaving

differently from those who apparently still had hope of advancing.

One hypothesis about the administrative behavior of the immobile was not substantiated by the findings. Immobiles tended to be higher on "consideration" than on "initiating structure." This was just the reverse of the prediction.

The results from the T-G Form and the LBDQ suggest that mobile personnel exhibit a high degree of "personal" behavior. At the same time, they are high on "initiating structure." In the present study, the mobiles were significantly higher than the immobiles on both dimensions. These results suggest that the mobile is interested in both the needs of the individual and the goals of the institution.

The "normative" profile of the immobile which emerges from the principals' descriptions of their subordinates could be misleading. The immobiles in this study had low scores on "initiating structure," therefore, it can hardly be concluded that they exhibit behavior which stresses organizational values, especially since they could not easily find anything that they particularly liked about their school system. It would appear that their concern is for both the needs of the individual and the institutional goals.

The question of whether there is a change in behavior when career goals are thwarted was not within the scope of this research. However, a number of writers have described behavioral changes which occur among people when certain goals seem out of reach.³ For example, Skinner

³ John Dollard et. al., Frustration and Aggression (New Haven, 1939), pp. 6-11.

Norman Maeir, Psychology in Industry (Boston, 1946), pp. 60-68.

Kurt Lewin, Resolving Social Conflicts (New York, 1948), p. 103.

states, "Failure to receive an accustomed reinforcement is a special case of restraint which generates a kind of rage called 'frustration'."⁴

The six variables measured by the Malo Sentence Completion Test do not discriminate between the immobiles and mobiles. The instrument would probably distinguish between groups had there been a class of non-mobiles in the study since they have less need for activity and mobility than the two upward-mobile groups, the mobiles and the immobiles.⁵

The findings from the interviews and personal history inventories suggest that those role-incumbents who are formally rejected for promotion are highly dissatisfied workers. They appear to wish for a change in career, a structuring of the organization, an acceptance of more responsibility by the teachers, and a disassociation from "dirty work." As a group, they make a significantly greater number of negative comments about their role than do the mobiles.

Implications and Questions

Several implications which may be applied to the practice of administration emerge from this investigation. Also, many questions which arise from the study are suggested as the basis for further research on mobility.

One important implication concerns the number of immobiles working within an organization. The findings of this study reveal that immobiles are lower than mobiles on several characteristics considered to

⁴B. F. Skinner, Science and Human Behavior (New York, 1953), p. 164.

⁵Powers, p. 112.

be important in administration. Furthermore, immobiles appear to be experiencing little job satisfaction, a situation that can have adverse effects on performance.

Certain features of an organization having a large number of immobiles may be conducive to an increase of an even larger number of immobiles. First, the pyramidal design of the hierarchy restricts the number of role-incumbents who can advance. Second, the situation may be worsened if personnel are employed to higher positions from outside the organization.

Since an immobile group will normally exist in any organization, ways should be found to keep them satisfied, and thus more effective, in their role. Organizations should satisfy those physical and psychological needs of the immobile that the mobile satisfies by moving higher in the organization.

The finding that the immobiles were low on both "consideration" and "initiating structure" should be of concern to organizations since this would indicate that they are "ineffective." The very fact that they are repeatedly overlooked for promotion lends additional support to such an argument.

Information from the personal history inventory revealed a significant difference between mobiles engaged in a degree program and immobiles not so engaged. Therefore, in order that the same advantages might accrue to both groups, organizations could consider an in-service training program so that the "ineffectiveness" of the immobiles could be diminished. In turn, their job satisfaction should increase, as well as their number of positive comments about the organization employing them.

The data from the personal history inventory and the interview indicate that certain physical and psychological needs differ according to the administrative type. Thus, it could be expected that job satisfaction for a worker will vary according to his attitude toward mobility.

Probably, one of the most important implications of this study focuses on there not being any non-mobiles in the population studied. It would appear that organizations would want some role-incumbents to be content to remain in the role since they appear to be as effective as mobiles.⁶ In addition, the presence of non-mobiles puts less strain on the pyramidal shape of the hierarchy, concerning the matter of advancement. The existence of a non-mobile group should contribute to higher morale and decreased dissatisfaction among role-incumbents, as a whole.

There are several questions arising from this study which may serve as the basis for further research. The most important of these follow:

1. The administrative behavior of mobiles and immobiles should be studied more intensively. The many aspects of the different administrative duties were not explored in this study. For example, some role-incumbents were mainly counselors, some were disciplinarians, while others were principally curriculum directors. These basic responsibilities should be studied in relation to mobility.

2. Does behavior change when a subject's upward mobility is thwarted? This study did not consider this point. Perhaps a

⁶Powers, p. 113.

longitudinal study describing the behavior of a role-incumbent as he passed from the mobile to the immobile ranks would provide answers to this question.

3. The perceptions of administrative behavior as perceived by the teachers, as well as by the principals, should be studied in regard to the assistant principalship. The differences between the perceptions of the two groups should be valuable to organizations in that the assistant principal at times is caught between the desires of the principal and the opposite desires of teachers. This investigation was concerned with the behavior of assistant principals only as viewed by his superior.

4. Somewhat related to the last suggestion would be a study of the actual behavior of the assistant principal as viewed by his different reference groups. The results could be compared with what behavior his reference groups think should be displayed. The difference between "what is" and "what ought to be" should be of importance to the assistant principal who desires to be effective in his role.

5. A study concerned only with personality and attitude toward mobility could be useful. Greater knowledge of the personal characteristics associated with each of the administrative types would be of inestimable value to organizations: clues might be found for improving job satisfaction for the organizational member who has been repeatedly denied promotion.

6. Pursuit of job satisfaction by the immobile could be an entire study that might have great importance for organizations. Since promotions may move slowly because of the pyramidal shape of the hierarchy, administrators should be concerned with maintaining high morale during

times of few advancements.

There are real differences between the two administrative types studied in this research. The investigator explored only a very few of them, but even those few indicate that perhaps we can gravitate away from describing an administrator simply in global terms, such as "good," "capable," "strong," etc. The finding that the behavior of immobiles differs from the mobiles points out that there are tangibles that may be isolated in deciding who is to receive promotion. The information that mobiles, significantly more than immobiles, pursue an advanced degree even though none is required, seems to reveal an insight into the achievement desires of that group. The indication that immobiles appear to be quite dissatisfied, wishing for a change in jobs and a relief from unpleasant tasks, provides a definite challenge for those in positions of decision-making.

Additional implications will emerge as more studies of mobility are conducted. This investigator hopes that further investigations will answer many questions that are not resolved by this research.

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APPENDIX A

T-G FORM

THE T-G FORM

Instructions:

Two styles of leadership are briefly described below. Neither style is more "correct" than the other, but rather, both styles are legitimate forms of behavior.

Please read both descriptions carefully as many times as you like until you understand each style and the difference between the two. Then, check the description that more nearly describes the behavior of your assistant principal.

If, after carefully considering the matter, you cannot choose between the two styles, check the statement at the bottom.

Please select only one of the following:

_____ My assistant principal expects teachers to do things "by the book." He wants teachers to behave in conformity to the things the school system expects of them. He is especially concerned if teachers have trouble doing their jobs because of the expectations other persons or groups have for them. He sees his office as a center of authority and he believes that the same rules and procedures should apply to all teachers. He is concerned that teachers behave in a "proper" manner in all their activities. He usually relies, for teacher control, in rewards and penalties which are spelled out in school district regulations.

_____ My assistant principal expects teachers to work things out by themselves, each in his own way. He wants teachers to behave in ways which meet their personal needs. He is especially concerned if teachers have trouble doing their jobs because of the kind of personality they have. He sees his authority as delegated and he believes that rules and procedures have to be tailored to the personality of the individual teacher. He is concerned only with how teachers behave on the job. He usually relies, for teacher control, on appeal to the individual teacher's sense of right and wrong.

_____ Neither of the above descriptions is more representative of my assistant principal's leadership style.

APPENDIX B

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

DIRECTIONS:

- a. READ each item carefully.
- b. THINK about how frequently the leader engages in the behavior described by the item.
- c. DECIDE whether he always, often, occasionally, seldom or never acts as described by the item.
- d. 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

- | | |
|---|-----------|
| 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 |
| 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 |
| 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 |

APPENDIX C

SENTENCE COMPLETION BLANK

SENTENCE COMPLETION BLANK

Directions: Below you will find the beginnings of sentences. Your task is to complete these sentences so that they make sense. Use the first thought that comes to your mind so that you can complete this blank as soon as possible. Each statement must be a complete sentence. Use as many words as you wish.

1. As the opposition increased, I	2. When I saw the man look away from me, I
3. Ten years from now, I	4. When told I had to do something by myself, I
5. Having told a humorous story, I	6. When others do better than I, I
7. My family	8. While they were urging me to make up my mind, I
9. When I spoke to strangers, I	10. If there is one thing that might make me quit a job, it is
11. When I am criticized, I	12. People think of me as
13. When they asked me to be in charge, I	14. If I could start all over again, I would try to become a(an)

15. My mother	16. Seeing that I was being overlooked, I
17. Working with others all of the time made me	18. Given complete independence, I
19. When I was put under pressure, I	20. The job I liked best was one where
21. Given a chilly reception, I	22. When things went wrong, I
23. I prefer the company of	24. I am happiest when
25. I think the worst thing about not working is	26. Placed on the defensive, I
27. What makes me want to be promoted is	28. When I met Bill for the first time, I
29. When I was turned down for the job, I	30. My father
31. When I was told I had to give in, I	32. For me, success is synonymous with

33. I am likely to stay out of trouble if	34. Most jobs with responsibility make me feel
35. Nothing irritates me more than	36. I wish I
37. When I am complimented, I	38. Fearing failure, I
39. As far as I am concerned, a boss is	40. When I saw that I was boring the man, I
41. Having solved the problem, I	42. My car
43. Giving me authority	44. Facing punishment, I
45. Nothing frustrates me more than	46. Wondering whether I had met the man before, I
47. When I felt the job would require close attention to details, I	48. I felt that the men over me had been
49. What I resent most is	50. When I was left out, I

APPENDIX D

PERSONAL HISTORY INVENTORY

PERSONAL HISTORY INVENTORY

Name _____ Age _____ Sex _____

Marital status _____ Number of children _____

1. Total number years teaching experience (including this year): _____
2. Total number years in this school system (including this year): _____
3. Total number years worked with the present principal: _____

EDUCATION

4. () Baccalaureate Degree
 () Graduate work (no advanced degree)
 () Master's Degree (or equivalent)
 () Graduate work beyond Master's (no advanced degree)
 () Sixth Year Degree
 () Graduate Work beyond Sixth Year Degree (no advanced degree)
 () Doctorate
5. What was your undergraduate major? _____
6. Has your graduate work been in (1) administration and supervision _____, (2) another field _____, or (3) no graduate work has been pursued _____?
7. Toward what degree or program objective, if any, are you presently engaged? _____
8. Toward what degree or program objective, if any, do you plan to do additional study in the future? _____
9. How many teachers are under your supervision and administration?

10. From your past experience, what do you think has been the most important for your success? (check one)
 - a. _____ ability to get along with co-workers and/or subordinates
 - b. _____ ability to get along with superiors: e.g., principal, supervisors, and/or other central or district office personnel
11. What characteristics have you liked most in superintendents, supervisors, or principals under whom you have served? (check one)
 - a. _____ showing consideration for other members of the organization
 - b. _____ maintaining clear communication channels with personnel
 - c. _____ structuring the organization to get the job done
 - d. _____ implementing or following through with plans, requests, and activities
 3. _____ something else (specify): _____

12. What reasons have most made you want to change jobs you have held in the past? _____

13. What reasons or motives (positive or negative) would prompt you to leave this school system? _____

14. When you wish advice about some problem or pending decision whose advice do you USUALLY find most valuable to you? (check one)
- a. _____ teachers in the school to which you are assigned
 - b. _____ the principal of the school in which you are assigned
 - c. _____ certain supervisors or directors from district or central office
 - d. _____ other (specify): _____
15. How do you feel an assistant principal should resolve a problem in which what appears to be a good solution conflicts with rules and policies set down by the school system or the principal of the school. (check one)
- a. _____ always abide by rules and policies
 - b. _____ usually abide by rules and policies
 - c. _____ usually take what appears to be reasonable or appropriate action even if not strictly consistent with rules and policies
 - d. _____ always take what appears to be reasonable or appropriate action even if not strictly consistent with rules and policies
16. What are your aims in life? (vocational and other, immediate and ultimate) _____

17. What major obstacles or drawbacks may prevent you from attaining these aims? _____

18. Imagine being able to plot your own destiny and describe how much and in what ways your career would be different from what it is now. _____

ACTIVITIES

19. List the organizations (professional, civic, veterans, fraternal, social, religious, academic, etc.) of which you are now a member and indicate: (a) the offices, if any, you have held or now hold in these organizations and (b) whether you are "very active," "active," or "not so active" in each.

<u>Organization</u>	<u>Office</u>	<u>Amount of Activity</u>
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

20. To which of the following activities have you devoted most of your free time in the past five years? (check one)

- a. Amusements (dancing, shows, movies, etc.)
- b. Club activities (fraternity, lectures, politics, religions, etc.)
- c. Viewing television (or listening to the radio)
- d. Outdoor recreation (hunting, fishing, gardening, photography, etc.)
- e. Reading (newspapers, books, magazines, etc.)
- f. Sports (football, basketball, baseball, golf, tennis, etc.)

21. When you have a free afternoon or evening, what are you most likely to do?

APPENDIX E

THE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1. What do you do in your job as assistant principal?
2. How do you feel about the job of assistant principal? job status?
salary?
3. What are your career plans, say in the next five years?
4. Is there anything which would make your job as assistant principal
more satisfying? 2 or 3 items.
5. Why do you want to be a principal?
6. Is there anything about this school system that you particularly
like?

VITA 3

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Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: A STUDY OF ADMINISTRATIVE BEHAVIOR AND FACTORS RELATED TO
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