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PROMOTIONAL ASPIRATIONS AND DIFFERENTIAL ROLE PERCEPTION



A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled "Promotional Aspirations and Differential Role Perception" submitted by Keith Tronc in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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ABSTRACT

The study reported in this thesis explored the relationships between the level of promotional aspiration and certain selected aspects of the role perceptions held by teachers, vice-principals and principals, in an attempt to clarify some of the variables underlying the process of administrative selection and promotion. Three aspects of role perception were singled out for examination: perceptions of appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied; perceptions of the actual leader behavior exhibited by immediate superiors; and perceptions of the importance of deferring to superior authority.

A conceptual framework for ordering these variables was constructed on a theoretical base consisting of five major strands: perception; the leader behavior dimensions of Initiating Structure and Consideration; the organizational reward system as an intervening variable in an individual's cognitive orientation to role; upward mobility orientations and role behavior emphasis; and deference to superior authority. The major hypothesis developed from the central problem in the light of the conceptual framework, stated that within the setting of the educational organization, high levels of promotional aspiration are associated with role perceptions that emphasize the Initiating Structure dimension of leader behavior and deference to superior authority, and de-emphasize Consideration.

In order to test this hypothesis, a number of well known research instruments were employed in the gathering of data through responses to mailed questionnaires. The instruments used were the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ); the LBDQ "Ideal" form; Fleishman's Leadership Opinion Questionnaire; Seeman's Mobility Achievement Scale; and selected items from Corwin's Professional Role Orientations Scale.

The experimental sample consisted of 1,069 teachers, sixty-five vice-principals, and sixty-seven principals in a proportionally stratified, randomly selected representative group of seventy-one schools from the nine school districts of the Greater Vancouver area. The major statistical techniques used in analysing the data were t-tests and Multiple Linear Regression Analysis.

Analysis of the data yielded significant support for many of the research hypotheses, particularly as related to administrators. When assessing the leader behavior appropriate for their own present position, and also when describing the actual leader behavior of their immediate superiors, vice-principals and principals with a strong desire for advancement perceived a significantly higher frequency of Initiating Structure and a significantly lower frequency of Consideration, than their colleagues who did not possess strong promotional aspirations. The same relationships were evident to a certain extent in analysis of the teacher data, but not with the same consistent pattern of significance. Level of promotional aspirations also proved to be a significant predictor of deference to superior authority, in the case of teachers, vice-principals, and principals. The generally-held role perceptions, both of appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied, and of the actual leader behavior displayed by immediate superiors, were found to be significantly different in the case of teachers and

Structure to be ideal leader behavior for their present position, administrators accentuated Consideration. In describing the actual leader behavior of vice-principals, teachers perceived Consideration more frequently than Initiating Structure, while administrators, describing the behavior of their immediate superiors, emphasized Initiating Structure. Level of promotional aspirations proved to be directly related to deference and to perceptions of Initiating Structure, and inversely related to Consideration.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

I. INTRODUCTION

The importance of reliable procedures for identifying and selecting suitable men and women for advancement to administrative positions in the field of education is obvious, since administration is the process which facilitates teaching, and teaching promotes the mainstream function of the school—learning. While the direction taken by education depends in large measure upon the appropriateness of administrative selection procedures, little is known at the present time about the variables and influences which underlie the promotion process.

With school systems increasing in size, those responsible for the selection process are very frequently unfamiliar with the personal qualities of candidates for advancement, and the individual seeking promotion may find himself engaging in competition with many others for a limited number of available positions. As a result, the use of existing formal procedures and channels may be insufficient in gaining the attention of superiors which is necessary to achieve advancement.

A number of studies carried out in Western Canada have sought to investigate the process of promotion to the principalship. The descriptive surveys of Davis (3), and Peach (11), approached the problem from the basis of selection procedures and criteria, and found little agreement between the recommended practices in the literature, and the actual procedures employed by superintendents and boards.

These two investigations disclosed a lack of system and consistency in the selection criteria and promotion policies operating in Western Canada. With little written policy on standard promotion requirements, school personnel who aspire to advancement may need to adopt behavior which will ensure visibility and approval. Such visibility techniques formed the focus of the study by Ellis (4). This investigation gathered information on the career patterns and personal characteristics of recent appointees to the principalship. It was argued that teaching excellence alone was insufficient to provide the visibility needed to be selected for administrative positions, and it was hypothesized that interested individuals must gain visibility largely by extra-organizational activities, such as involvement in community affairs. The results of the Ellis study were largely inconclusive. Principals indicated by their questionnaire responses the opinion that career mobility is realized through effective job performance, and not through extraorganizational activities.

Another line of investigation is suggested in the following statement by Gross:

Although organizations exist to accomplish organizational objectives, they also serve as the arenas in which individuals pursue their careers and meet many of their personal needs. This sensitizing idea suggests that such factors as level of aspiration, job and career satisfaction, and job commitment are variables that need to be taken into consideration in efforts to understand variable role performance and differences in organizational functioning. Individuals who have different levels of aspiration may define their roles quite differently because of their need to achieve visibility (8: p. 36).

An important researchable problem thus emerges--do promotional aspirations affect role perception? Does the person with strong

ambitions for advancement perceive his own role, and the role to which he aspires, differently from incumbents of similar positions, who do not aspire to promotion?

In any school system, it is likely that a range of promotional aspirations will be present among the teaching and administrative personnel. There may be some among the ranks of teachers and administrators, who are prospective candidates for advancement, and who see their current position merely as a step towards higher appointments involving greater responsibility. However, there may also be many for whom the desire to be promoted provides little or no motivation. For example, there may be men and women who are career teachers, and do not seek advancement because they find great satisfaction in their classroom relationships with pupils. In addition, there are likely to be large numbers of women, who view teaching either as a temporary occupation filling the years between high school and marriage, or as a supplementary source of family income. It is probable that the widespread and still powerful traditional belief that women are unsuitable for administrative positions inhibits their promotional ambitions. Among those engaged in administration also, there will probably exist varying levels of promotional aspiration. While some may actively seek advancement, others may have gained their present position as a reward and are content to remain there (5: p. 66; 8: p. 58). Again, another group may see their current role as the pinnacle of their careers, because they are unwilling to compete further for the limited number of promotional opportunities open to them.

A number of questions arise. Do the groups with high levels of promotional aspiration perceive the role behaviors exhibited by their immediate superiors differently from those groups who do not possess a strong desire for advancement? Do they also have different perceptions of the role behavior most appropriate for the positions which they themselves presently occupy? Are different attitudes towards superior authority possessed by those with strong desires for promotion, and those without such mobility interests, because achieving promotion may depend on pleasing one's superiors, who hold the power to grant advancement?

In order to investigate this problem, it was decided to focus upon the three positions of teacher, vice-principal, and principal, on the assumption that these comprise a fairly standard career pattern, with teachers who seek promotion advancing firstly to the position of viceprincipal, and then from vice-principal to the position of principal. It is acknowledged that some appointees to administrative ranks may follow a different promotional route, perhaps omitting the vice-principalship or passing through such positions as counsellor or departmental head, but studies of administrative mobility, such as those by Ellis (4) and Longmore (9), have indicated that the teacher--vice-principal-principal route is the most common in school systems of Western Canada. It is further acknowledged that some ambitious school personnel may be looking far ahead into the future, anticipating the eventual attainment of an administrative position, beyond the level to which their next promotion is most likely. Longer range aspirations such as these were considered to be beyond the scope of the present study, and were not investigated. Instead, it was assumed that those who aspire to promotion look upwards in the short term to the next position in the career pattern of promotional steps described above. Accordingly, "perception of the role behavior exhibited by superiors" was delimited to the behavior displayed by the immediate superior, or in other words, by the incumbent of the next higher position, to which promotion might be desired.

The roles associated with the three positions of teacher, vice-principal, and principal could be studied in terms of the following selected dimensions: the strength of promotional aspirations held; perceptions of the leader behavior occurring in the formal position immediately higher; perceptions of the leader behavior deemed appropriate for the position presently occupied; and the level of deference to superior authority. Since it was not possible to identify those whose promotional aspirations would be held for a short term only, before being discarded or replaced by other goals, "strength of promotional aspirations held" was defined as the level of ambition possessed by an individual at the particular time of the investigation.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

For each of the positions of teacher, vice-principal and principal in a school system, differing strengths of promotional aspiration are likely to be held by the incumbents.

What is the relationship between the strength of promotional aspirations and the role perceptions, both for the position presently occupied, and for the next higher position, possessed at a given time by:

1. Teachers, aspiring and non-aspiring to the vice-principalship.

- 2. Vice-principals, aspiring and non-aspiring to the principalship.
- 3. Principals, aspiring and non-aspiring to further upward movement.

The role perceptions investigated were: perceptions of the leader behavior exhibited by the incumbent of the next higher position; perceptions of the leader behavior appropriate for the position presently occupied; and perceptions of the importance of deferring to superior authority.

A diagrammatic representation of the areas of investigation is shown in Figure 1.

III. THE IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

In discussing the tremendous growth of education as a public enterprise, Anderson says:

The success of an organization is dependent on the quality of the personnel occupying roles within the organization . . . Over the next decade, few, if any, organizations will increase in number and size as rapidly as those in education. The need for administrators at all levels—elementary, secondary, higher and adult education, will increase as school population increases and services are expanded (1: p. 47).

As Anderson sees it, the major problem is not the quantitative one. He notes that there will be no real difficulty in recruiting sufficient candidates for advancement, since self-recruitment has provided many more candidates for promotion than there are positions to be filled. "The real problem is not in recruiting more candidates, the problem is one of quality" (1: p. 48).

Thus, in view of the rapid expansion of educational facilities, and the increasing trend to larger organizations, a careful assessment of educational leadership becomes necessary. Greater competition for the

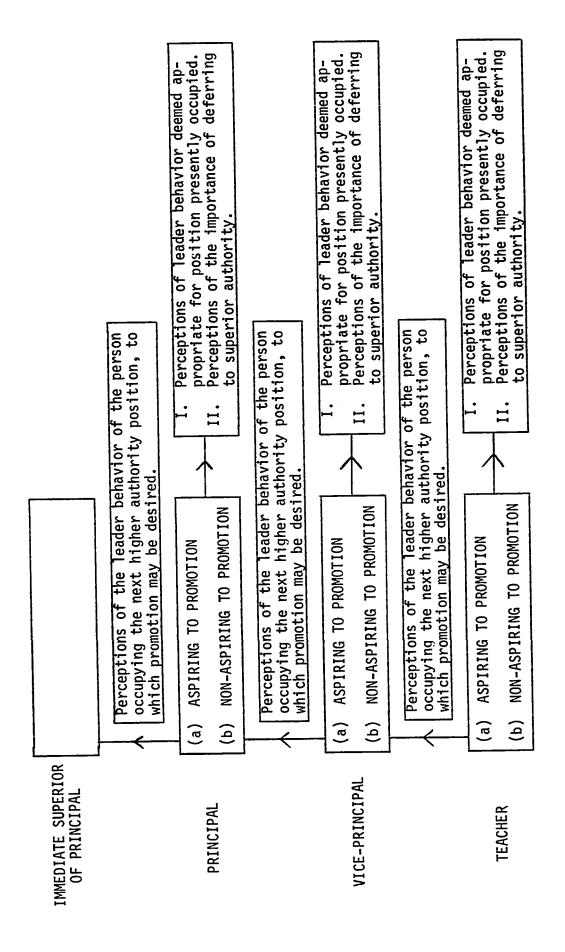


FIGURE 1 AREAS OF INVESTIGATION

available administrative positions has resulted in an increased need for achieving visibility, and it is important that the operation of these factors within the process of administrative selection and promotion be more fully understood. Otto reasserts the need for appropriate selection:

What these people bring with them to their new jobs and what they can become after their initial appointment will determine in large measure what direction education will take (10: p. 28).

This position is further elaborated by Bargen, who affirms that it is the leader's perception of his organization's task that gives direction to the development of the organization, even if his perception is strongly coloured by his own predilictions and personal value system. The leader's particular perception of the task will influence not only the identification of significant problems, but also the assessment of their relative priority (2: p. 3).

However, there is a serious paucity of research into the phenomenon of perception within the context of educational administration. Perception is at the heart of the administrative process, and is involved in power and authority relationships, decision-making, communication, group morale and leadership. Without a knowledge of the behaviors exhibited by administrators, the process of administration cannot be adequately understood. These behaviors, in turn, depend upon the role perceptions held by administrators.

Social science has already provided some theories and conjectures about organizational advancement. However, there is a danger in the unmodified transfer of the concepts and research findings from the general field of the social sciences to the area of educational

administration. Such ideas as those of Presthus, in his discussion of the "upward mobile" (12: pp. 164-204), may be useful analytical tools for throwing some light on the problems of interactions within the educational organization, but they must first be tested <u>in situ</u>, and neither rashly nor uncritically applied, if their potential value is to be fully realized. This view is also taken by Griffiths, who questions "the wholesale and indiscriminate application of studies of business, industry, the military and the federal government to education" (7: p. 30). In summing up the findings of an investigation of teacher mobility and the behaviors and attitudes associated with a desire for promotion, Griffiths notes: "While much is, no doubt, common to all organizations, the personnel may well be different" (7: p. 31).

Thus, though different organizations may possess many common features, continuing research is necessary to determine the unique qualities of particular types of organization. Accordingly, rather than borrowing concepts uncritically, the need is for more and more studies in the specific context of educational organizations. Consequently, within the present study an attempt has been made to use, and to test, the insights provided by findings from other areas of the social sciences, in exploring the role perceptions associated with a desire for advancement in the educational organization.

IV. DEFINITION OF TERMS

Elaboration of the major concepts employed in this study is undertaken within the context of the later discussions that accompany the conceptual framework and the reviews of related literature and

research. Definitions for the particular usage of those terms that are most frequently cited are set out in the following glossary.

Perception is the process by which individuals interpret the external world in terms of their own experiences and background of meanings. The process is transactional, being influenced both by factors in the perceiver and by factors in the environment; and creative, since the perceiver attributes certain aspects of his own experience and personality to an environment which he believes to exist independently.

<u>Position</u>, or status, is a place in an organizational structure, to which legitimate power or authority has been attached. A set of organizational positions may be viewed in terms of a hierarchy of ascending authority, with increased formal power to prescribe the behavior of subordinates being vested in the positions higher up the hierarchy.

Role and position are inseparable, since a role is the dynamic aspect of a position. A role is the set of behaviors which are more or less characteristic of all the occupants of a given type of position, or the ways of behaving which are generally expected of individuals who occupy the position.

Role Behavior is the actual behavior of a specific individual as he takes on the role associated with a position; the outcome of the interaction between an individual personality and the general expectations for behavior in that position.

Role Perception is the individual interpretation of role behavior. It may be a perception of the actual role behavior exhibited by

the incumbent of a position; or it may be an individual's own expectations for a role--that is, his perceptions of role behavior appropriate for the incumbent of a particular position.

As a summary of the frame of reference accepted in the above definitions relating to role, the views of Getzels and Guba are appropriate. In discussing the concept of role, Getzels and Guba explain how it is possible for the same role to be occupied, and consequently modified, by incumbents with differing personalities:

The behaviors associated with a role may be thought of as lying along a continuum from "required" to "prohibited". Certain expectations are held to be crucial to the role, and the appropriate behaviors are absolutely required of the incumbent. Other behaviors are absolutely forbidden. Between these extremes lie certain other behaviors, some of which would be considered permissible, at least in the ordinary case. It is this flexible feature of roles that makes it possible for role incumbents with different personalities to fulfil the same role and give it the stamp of their individual styles of behavior (6: pp. 426-427).

Immediate Superior refers to the person occupying the next higher position in the hierarchy of legitimate authority. In this study, the focus is upon the most common positional authority series to be found in schools, viz., teacher, vice-principal, and principal.

<u>Promotional Aspiration</u> is a desire for advancement to a higher position of authority; an ambition for status betterment, held by an individual at a given time.

<u>Deference to Superior Authority</u> refers to the individual's readiness to order his behavior to accord with his perceived expectations of what is pleasing to those who occupy higher positions.

V. ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS

Following Chapter I, where the problem was delineated, the areas of investigation presented, and the significance of the study discussed, Chapter II presents the conceptual framework for the study. The five main strands of the investigation's theoretical base are discussed, and reference is made to a selection of relevant research as support for the theoretical interrelationships posited. The central problem is related to the conceptual framework, and the major hypothesis of the study is postulated. In Chapter III, the central problem is resolved into a number of more specific questions, and researchable sub-problems are generated. Accompanying each sub-problem is a review of related research findings from the field of education and the social sciences generally, in the light of which, research hypotheses are developed. Chapter IV contains an account of the methods of investigation and the research procedures. The assumptions underlying the study are first presented, followed by a detailed description of the instruments employed. In the light of the instrumentation chosen, operational definitions are then outlined. Delimitations are stated, and the selection of the sample is described. The reduction of the potential study sample to the final experimental sample, and the representativeness of the experimental sample are here reported, and the limitations of the study are acknowledged. In Chapter V, the statistical procedures used to analyse the data are described, together with the methodology employed in followup tests of validity and reliability. In Chapters VI and VII, a detailed description of the experimental sample is provided, the data are analysed, and the results reported. The findings are scrutinized and their significance is examined. The final chapter of the thesis presents a summary of the study, and some general conclusions and implications for both educational administration in particular, and the social sciences in general. Following the bibliography is an appendix, which contains copies of the correspondence undertaken in gaining the experimental sample of respondents, and the instruments employed.

VI. SUMMARY OF CHAPTER I

Reference was made to the importance of reliable procedures for appropriate administrative selection, and of a greater understanding of the variables underlying the promotion process, in a time when educational facilities are expanding rapidly. A brief review of studies previously undertaken, disclosed a lack of system and consistency in the selection criteria and promotion policies operating in Western Canada, and the fact that visibility is apparently not gained through involvement in extra-organizational activities. A suggestion by Gross, that differences in aspiration may lead to differences in role perception because of a desire for visibility, provided the basis for a number of questions which comprise the central problem of the study--the relationship between level of promotional aspiration and role perceptions; both of the actual leader behavior exhibited by those in the next higher authority position, and of the appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied, together with perceptions of the importance of deferring to superior authority. Assuming a standard career pattern,

the three positions of teacher, vice-principal, and principal were selected for investigation. The significance of the study was discussed, in relation to the importance of perception as a variable underlying the administrative process; in terms of the need to improve selection procedures by a greater understanding of the variables underlying the processes of administrative selection and promotion; and with regard to the necessity for adequately testing social science concepts in the educational context, rather than applying them uncritically and unmodified. Preceding an overview of the thesis organization, the terms most frequently cited throughout the thesis were defined in the context of their particular usage in this study.

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CHAPTER II

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The purpose of this chapter is to present the conceptual framework against which the study's central problem was examined, and in relation to which the major hypothesis was postulated. The theoretical base on which the study rests is composed of five main strands, viz.:

- I. Perception.
- II. Leader Behavior Dimensions of Initiating Structure and Consideration.
- III. Selective Perception and Reward Systems.
 - IV. Upward Mobility Orientations and Role Behavior Emphasis.
 - V. Deference to Superior Authority.

Each is discussed in turn, and a brief review is provided of relevant literature and research findings which support the theoretical relationships developed.

I. PERCEPTION

Ittelson and Cantril define perception in terms of their "transactional" theory:

Perception is that part of the process of living by which each person, from his own unique personal behavioral centre, creates for himself the world in which he has his life's experiences, and through which he strives to gain his satisfaction (13: p. 5).

According to this view, persons do not perceive by reacting objectively to stimuli in the environment. Instead, suggest Ittelson and Cantril, a process of transaction takes place, whereby the perceiver

assigns meanings and significance that are not inherent in the stimulus. The net effect is that each perceiver sets up his own unique world of reality. Within the transaction between perceiver and stimuli, each individual creates his own psychological environment, by attributing certain elements of his experience to the external world, which, he believes, possesses an independent existence. Thus, persons, objects, and events are perceived as external objective realities, possessing inherently the characteristics that have actually been attributed to them by the perceiver. The perceptual process is influenced by factors in the perceiver, as well as by factors in the external environment. Krech and Crutchfield have classified these two major determinants of perception as "structural" factors, which are extra-organismic, and are derived solely from the environment; and "functional" factors, which derive primarily from the needs, experiences, and memory of the individual (14: p. 81). Therefore, each person is limited in what he perceives, and his own experiences and accumulated background of meanings influence his interpretation of what he sees.

The recent acceptance of the effect of personal characteristics on perceptions of the external environment, has had considerable influence in organization theory. If sense impressions and their interpretation were uniform, it would be a simple matter to explain, predict, and control organizational behavior. However, as Enns points out:

Perceptions are not simple, accurate reproductions of objective reality. Rather, they are usually distorted, coloured, incomplete, and highly subjective versions of reality (8: p. 23).

According to the transactional theory of perception, purposive

behavior is made more effective and satisfying by substituting for complex objective reality, an individual reality model that has been modified and simplified to accord with needs, values, and expectations.

Providing support for this view, Abbott concludes from a study of superintendent—school board relationships:

The concept of selective interpersonal perception is, therefore, important in understanding administrative relationships. In a sense, each person may be said to function in a world of his making. His attitudes and values serve as a perceptual screen; he interprets his environment according to the way he perceives it, and he reacts to that environment in accordance with his interpretations (1: p. 3).

Thus, when an individual reacts to any situation, his behavior is always a function, not of the absolute character of the situation, but of his perception of it. It is not objective reality that counts, but rather how the individual sees things to be. Consequently, any interaction between an individual organization member and the organizational environment, will be interpreted in terms of the individual's background and culture, his experiences, his expectations, his needs, his attitudes, and his values. As Newcomb explains: "In role behavior . . . what a person does, feels and thinks depends upon what he perceives" (19: p. 332).

Pierce and Merrill argue that the administrative process cannot be adequately understood without a knowledge of the behaviors exhibited by administrators, which in turn depend on the perceptions held by administrators regarding their roles.

Consequently, if knowledge of a person's perceptions is available, it is possible to predict his behavior. . . . This theory holds that it is not possible for a person to perform in a manner inconsistent with his perceptions . . . (and) that the starting point in analysing and describing the behavior of an administrator is the

determination of his perceptions as related to himself and his job (21: p. 345).

This brief foregoing discussion suggests that perception may be envisaged as an active, "creative" element in administrative performance. The achievement of an organization may be measured in terms of the extent to which it fulfils its purposes or task, and the behavior of an administrator is directed towards facilitation of that achievement. However, the organizational task is never directly reflected without distortion in the administrator's behavior, which is governed by his perception of the task. How an administrator perceives the organization's task and his role in relation to it, will influence his choice of the problems to be solved, their order of priority, and his decisions regarding alternative solutions. As a result, some administrators will identify as their major problems, issues that are critical to the task, while others will putter with peripheral administrative trivia. Some will plan their decisions in terms of coherent long-range perspectives, while others will operate from day to day. Some may emphasize goal achievement and productivity, while others may stress group maintenance and cohesiveness.

II. LEADER BEHAVIOR DIMENSIONS OF INITIATING STRUCTURE AND CONSIDERATION

Current approaches to the study of leadership, which emphasize leader behavior and performance, rather than traits, received much of their initial impetus from the study of small groups with minimum structuring. Investigation of the ways in which such groups function, disclosed patterns of role differentiation, wherein members displayed

a degree of specialization in the type of behavior they undertook. Not only did some members engage predominantly in leader behavior, but in addition, specialization and role differentiation were found to apply also within the leadership function. Leader behavior was of two distinct types, related to goal attainment, and to maintenance of the group. In task-oriented groups, there emerged a "task specialist", who supplied ideas and guided the group towards the goal, but because task-oriented behavior produced a build-up of tension, a "social-emotional" leader, who could promote morale and cohesiveness, provided the balancing type of leader behavior that ensured the survival and continuity of the group (3: p. 259).

Considerable theoretical formulation and empirical evidence have since been accumulated, to indicate that leader behavior in formal organizations also comprises acts that are functionally related either to goal achievement, or to the maintenance and strengthening of the group. As a result, constantly recurring themes in organization theory have been the duality of conditions necessary for organizational survival and development, and the parallel related duality of leader behaviors required to accomplish such objectives.

This dual dichotomy of organizational objectives and corresponding leader behaviors has been widely discussed, and it would be possible to present an extensive list of related writings, displaying a wide range of terminology. The following will serve as examples. Organizational objectives have been classified by Cartwright and Zander under the headings of goal achievement and group maintenance (6: p. 494); by

Olmsted as locomotion and cohesiveness (20: p. 112); and by March and Simon as productivity and satisfaction (17: p. 34).

The position is well summarized by Bennis:

Organizational and group theories are . . . honeycombed with this duality. For Chester I. Barnard, satisfying the requirements of efficiency (personal relations) and effectiveness (productivity) is the prime task of the effective manager. Harold J. Leavitt refers to "pyramids and people"; Argyris, to the essential conflict between the restricted nature of formal organization and the individual's "self actualization" (4: p. 65).

Probably the best known and most widely employed parallel dichotomization of the leader behaviors which are related to the previously discussed goal-directed, task-oriented activities on the one hand; and the social-emotional, group maintenance activities on the other, has been Halpin's division of leader acts into the dimensions of Initiating Structure and Consideration.

Initiating Structure refers to the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and the members of his group, and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication and ways of getting the job done. Consideration refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and members of the group (11: p. 1).

This conceptualization of the leadership phenomenon is usually referred to as the "structural-functionalist" approach. Here, the emphasis is not upon a cluster of traits and characteristics with universal applicability, which it is assumed a leader should possess; nor upon the situational requirements of particular organizations or groups, with regard to the qualities presently demanded of their leaders.

Instead, the focus is upon the general functional requirements of all organizations, on which the leader's behavior may exert some effects.

These general functional requirements of all organizations are those referred to previously as goal achievement and group maintenance (16: p. 51).

III. SELECTIVE PERCEPTION AND REWARD SYSTEMS

When an individual enters an organization, and occupies a position within it, he may be confronted by a set of vague and contradictory expectations for his role behavior. In order to protect members from conflict and pressures, and assure as far as possible the achievement of the organization's goals, a limited number of functionally specific expectations is extracted from the role set. These are formalized and adopted as official rulings, often taking the form of handbooks, policy manuals, and job descriptions. These reasonably explicit, officially sanctioned expectations constitute what Abbott calls the "codified behavior system" (2: p. 5).

However, the individual brings to his role a personality, which is characterized by need dispositions. In the development of an individual's role concept, his needs serve as a perceptual screen, and a process of selective perception may operate, as he views the officially prescribed role expectations. Thus, the role concept which an individual develops, both through formal instructions and incidental learning, is likely to have been modified by the perceptual intrusion of his own needs and values, which have determined the particular expectations emphasized or de-emphasized.

As a member of a formal organization, then, each individual may be conceived to be functioning in two separate situations, the one imbedded in the other. The first consists of the official definition of the position, the codified behavior system, and the second consists of the individual's own role concept, which represents essentially an expression of those facets of the personality which are relevant to organizational membership. The interaction of these two situations, a perceptual process, represents for each individual a cognitive orientation to roles (2: p. 7).

This "cognitive orientation" will not be identical with either the organization's codified behavior system, or the idealized role concept which the individual may have possessed previously, since it is formed on the basis of perceptions, which are themselves influenced by values and attitudes. However, it will reflect elements derived from the role expectations of both the organization and the individual.

Thus, the cognitive orientation to a role represents the individual's concept of his job--what he thinks he is supposed to do and how he is to do it. It is his perceptual response to the organization's codified behavior system (2: p. 7).

In addition to a cognitive orientation towards his role, an individual develops affective responses also. He may behave in accordance with his perception of the way the role has been defined for him, but his enthusiasm is often likely to depend on the attitudes and feelings generated by those personal satisfactions which he estimates will be forthcoming, if he behaves in organizationally-approved ways.

In exchange for individual member contributions of activity to the organization's functioning, incentives and rewards are provided to motivate behavior in a desired direction. An individual who stays within an organization can anticipate organizational rewards for expected performance. Promotion may be one such reward expected to be forthcoming,

when the individual's role behavior is in keeping with organizational requirements. Thus, the reward system, according to Abbott, operates as an intervening variable to alter an individual's cognitive orientation to his role (2: p. 9). There is a considerable body of evidence suggesting that the modification of the cognitive orientation to role, which is brought about by rewards, involves a shift towards an emphasis upon such "system-oriented" aspects of behavior as goal achievement, task orientation, and the Initiating Structure dimension of leader behavior.

IV. UPWARD MOBILITY ORIENTATIONS AND ROLE BEHAVIOR EMPHASIS

Merton has analysed the "carry-over effect" of reward in bureaucracies, and has proposed that the effect of the reward extends beyond the gratification of the individual's immediate need, to influence his outlook and attitude towards both the reward system and the organization as a whole (18). In bureaucratically structured organizations, such as large school systems, an individual's promotion does not depend solely on the opinion of his immediate superior. Instead, allocation of rewards tends to be under strong organizational control, with the reward system fairly formalized and incorporated into the structure. According to Litterer:

People in bureaucracies learn quite early what is expected of them. They appreciate that their security and advancement rest heavily on their personal competence, and there is a high certainty to the reward conditions, which increase the intensity of the effect of the system (15: p. 288).

In an analysis of individual behavior within large organizations, Presthus suggests that advancement depends on the type of accommodation which the individual makes to the demands of the organization (22: p. 9).

Following interpersonal theory, we assume that men behave according to the perceived expectations of a given social situation. Over a period of time, such responses become relatively consistent; they are continually reinforced because they meet compelling individual needs for security, recognition, and group acceptance. . . . Such accommodations are always the result of interaction between the bureaucratic situation and personality (22: p. 164).

Considerable similarity to Abbott's "cognitive role orientation" is evident in the Presthus conceptualization cited above. Three modal patterns of accommodation are described; upward mobility, indifference, and ambivalence. Of these, the "upward-mobile" is the successful organization member; who desires, seeks, and achieves promotion, enjoys organizational life, and reaps the benefits of increased status and salary. Presthus is of the opinion that advancement within a large organization demands a particular kind of individual perception--both of the organization as a whole, and of the roles within it. The upwardmobile's perceptual framework, as described by Presthus (24: pp. 167-179), displays a considerable bias towards the Initiating Structure dimension of leader behavior. Because organizational goals and task orientation become so strongly internalized, he possesses a capacity for action and a sustained attention to business, displaying strength, efficiency and self-control. Decision-making in conflict situations presents little difficulty for him, since he sees the organization's values as decisive. He regards his subordinates with detachment, and makes decisions in terms of the organization. As a successful organizer, the upward-mobile

"views men as instruments, as pawns to be manipulated in a master plan," and he "enthrones administrative, keeping-the-organization-going skills and values" (22: pp. 178-179). Presthus summarizes the upward-mobile's perceptual frame of reference as follows:

The upward-mobile's orientation is thus fundamentally "procedural" as distinguished from the "substantive" attitude toward work often regarded as decisive in career success (22: p. 190).

As Presthus admits (22: p. 166), this pattern of accommodation is a modal type, oversimplified and idealized, but he suggests that it may have value as a conceptual tool, providing some insights into individual behavior in organizations.

A further link between task-orientation and promotional aspirations is evident in the findings of Cohen (7), that the communications directed to "high power" persons by low status, mobile members of an organization were more task-centred than those from low status, non-mobile members. ("High power" persons were defined as those who possessed the ability to satisfy the needs of subordinates.) Such task emphasis in communication content may be explained as the result of a desire on the part of the low status mobile personnel to impress their high power superiors that they were performing competently with the interests of the organization at heart, and were accordingly promotion-worthy.

Summarizing the results of several studies of the characteristics of the successful American business executive, Henry described those individuals with strong mobility drives, as perceiving authority in terms of a controlling but helpful relationship with superiors; displaying

considerable responsiveness to superiors; but looking to subordinates in a detached manner, perceiving them as "doers of work," rather than as people. The successful executives treated subordinates impersonally, with no real feeling of being akin to them, or of having a deep interest in them as individuals (12: p. 290). In terms of the previously discussed dimensions of leader behavior, the executives with strong promotional mobility interests could be described as low in their emphasis upon Consideration.

In a study of organizational change occasioned in school systems by executive succession, Carlson investigated the differences in administrative behavior exhibited by two broad categories of school superintendents, to whom he gave the names "career-bound," and "place-bound."

The career-bound superintendent was the "outsider," putting career above place, and displaying a readiness to leave the home school system and accept a superintendency elsewhere; whereas the "insider," or place-bound superintendent wanted promotion, but only if it could be had in a specific place—his home school system (5: p. 8).

Carlson found that differences existed in the attitudes and administrative performances of the two types of superintendent. Undertaking a secondary analysis of raw data gathered by Seeman (23), he found that insiders' attitudes towards promotional mobility differed significantly from those of outsiders (5: p. 63). Seeman's data were obtained from analysis of responses to a questionnaire, the purpose of which was to distinguish those for whom mobility interests held greater importance than more intrinsic concerns such as family affairs, personal

health, and community interests. Eleven "insiders" scored a mean of 69.8, while thirty "outsiders" scored a mean of 78.5. The higher score indicated a higher level of interest in occupational mobility. Carlson also found that outsiders developed new rules of organization to a much greater extent than insiders. While insiders were concerned in their rule-making activities mainly with technical and managerial aspects of the organization, maintaining and reinforcing old rules; the outsiders were more prone to modify and redefine the school system, its internal relationships, its commitments, its methods and procedures, and its communication network, supplanting old rules with new (5: pp. 28-29). Thus, outsiders not only scored higher on the mobility scale, but were also more concerned with establishing carefully planned patterns of organization, and in determining clearly the relationship betwen themselves and their staffs. By combining these two pieces of evidence from Carlson's investigation, a further link is established between high levels of promotional aspiration, and role perception that places emphasis on the "structuring" dimension of leader behavior.

The Seeman study cited above was concerned with the relationships between actual mobility, attitudes towards mobility, and administrative performance. Use was made of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire data for fifty school superintendents, available from Halpin's study, where scores for Initiating Structure and Consideration were obtained from school boards, staff members, and the superintendents' self ratings (10). Forty-four of the fifty superintendents later responded to an instrument designed to measure their attitudes towards

promotional mobility. A series of partial correlations was set up between the mobility orientation scores, and the scores on the two dimensions of leadership. Two statistically significant results emerged. There was a significant negative correlation (-.37) between mobility orientation scores, and school board descriptions of the leader behavior dimension of Consideration. In addition, a significant positive correlation of +.38 was established between mobility orientation scores, and Initiating Structure scores on the superintendent's own rating. Seeman interpreted these results thus:

Executives who are highly committed to mobility are said by board members to be low in Consideration, and describe themselves as being relatively high in Initiating Structure (23: p. 637).

In a study of teacher mobility in New York (9), Griffiths described a group of teachers to whom he gave the name "G. A. S.ers," that is, those who were "Getting Attention from Superiors." Perceptions of the most common types of teaching personnel, and the reasons for teacher mobility were investigated by means of individual interviews and the analysis of records in a small representative sample of schools. Certain gross indications and modal characteristics of the promotionally oriented New York teacher were yielded. The so-called "Gasers" were the teachers for whom teaching was not the primary interest, who actively sought promotion, who voluntarily accepted irritant-type extra duties in their own time, and who constantly took every opportunity to impress superiors with their competence and promotion suitability. They were the teachers who found success, and who ultimately became administrators,—in Griffiths' words, "who got to run the system." Analysing the teacher

accommodation styles found in the investigation, Griffiths equated the Gasers of the New York study with Presthus' "upward mobiles." Like the upward mobiles, the Gasers displayed fundamentally task-oriented and procedural attitudes, and exhibited a tendency to regard teachers impersonally.

About one-eighth of the sample, predominantly men, were upwardly mobile by exploiting the visibility system. Approximately two-thirds of the teachers studied were designated as "pupil oriented." These were the dedicated teachers with little interest in mobility, whose aim was to provide the best teaching they could for the students in their care. Another group of about five per cent were classed as intellectuals, or "subject oriented." Their mobility interests were horizontal, in the direction of greater subject orientation. In the remaining fifteen per cent, the "benefits-oriented" group, two subgroups appeared—those who were horizontally mobile towards the "best deal," seeking the benefits that accrue to the teaching profession, and those who had once had strong upward mobility orientations, but had since lowered their aspirations.

Summarizing the findings presented on promotional mobility, it would appear that individuals who have strongly held aspirations for advancement within large organizations possess a particular kind of perceptual perspective, both of their roles and the organizations which they serve, so that organizational demands take precedence over concern for people, and considerable emphasis is placed on task achievement.

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V. DEFERENCE TO SUPERIOR AUTHORITY

The promotionally aspiring individual who is in competition with others for appointment to a higher position must impress his superiors, who have the ability to satisfy his desires for advancement. In attempting to gain visibility, it is important not to antagonize those who possess the power to select who will be promoted. Unless the organization makes a practice of openly encouraging and rewarding autonomy, divergent thinking, and activity that is governed primarily by a loyalty to the client rather than the organization, then it is safest, in the interests of promotional ambitions, to conform to organizational expectations and to respect superior authority.

According to Presthus, "the most significant item in the upward-mobile personality is his respect for authority" (22: p. 196). Elsewhere he states: "A related upward-mobile skill is the careful avoidance of anything controversial. A major objective is to avoid prejudicing any future career opportunity" (22: p. 188).

In identifying with the organization, the upward-mobile internalizes the organization's values, which thus become premises of his actions. In Presthus' view, the ability to identify strongly with the system is "highly productive in personal terms since it qualifies the upward-mobile for the organization's major rewards" (22: p. 168).

In exploiting the visibility system of the educational organization, the individual who possesses strong orientations towards promotional mobility may frequently exhibit many of the outward signs of a professional attitude. To enhance his appearance of promotion-suitability,

he may join professional associations, subscribe to professional journals, write and present papers, and undertake studies leading to further qualifications. The key distinction between the behavior of the "true" professional, and the "pseudo-professional" who takes on the outer coverings only, in a desire for promotional advancement, lies in the attitude displayed towards superior authority. While the "true" professional puts the interests of his client first and is ready to act autonomously, the behavior of those who strongly aspire to advancement is more likely to be superior authority oriented, deferring to those in power at higher levels of the hierarchy, and extending primary loyalty to the organization. As Presthus points out, a distinction exists between the upward-mobile's values and his behavior. "He can usually assume the appropriate roles, whether or not he identifies with the underlying ideals" (22: p. 169).

VI. THE CENTRAL PROBLEM AND MAJOR HYPOTHESIS

At this point, it is appropriate to reiterate the central problem of the study, which was stated in the introductory chapter, and by relating it to the conceptual framework previously presented, the major hypothesis for the investigation may be postulated.

The central problem concerns the relationship which exists between promotional aspirations and role perceptions. More specifically, how is an orientation towards promotional mobility up the hierarchy of authority positions, related to role perception, in the setting of the educational organization? What are the relationships between the level

of promotional aspirations possessed by school personnel, and the role perceptions which they hold-both of the leader behavior appropriate for the position presently occupied, and of the leader behavior exhibited by the incumbent of the next higher position?

It is hypothesized that within the setting of the educational organization, high levels of promotional aspiration are associated with role perceptions that emphasize the Initiating Structure dimension of leader behavior and deference to superior authority, and de-emphasize Consideration.

VII. SUMMARY OF CHAPTER II

This chapter has presented a conceptual framework, in terms of which the study's central problem might be considered, leading to the formulation of a major hypothesis. In constructing the conceptual framework, five theoretical strands were examined. Perception was described as an important factor in interpersonal and organizational relationships, with needs, values, and past experience influencing an individual's interpretation of the external environment's objective reality. The combination of an individual's perceptual frame of reference with the organization's codified behavior system results in a cognitive orientation to role, which undergoes a shift as it is affected by the intervening variable of the organization's reward system. Goal Achievement and Group Maintenance were put forward as the dual requirements for organizational survival and development, and the parallel dichotomy of leader behaviors necessary to achieve these ends—

Initiating Structure and Consideration, were discussed. Further theoretical analysis and research findings were marshalled in support of the contention that a high level of promotional aspiration is associated with role perceptions which emphasize the Initiating Structure dimension of leader behavior and deference to superior authority, and de-emphasize Consideration. By relating the central problem to the conceptual framework, the major hypothesis of the study was developed.

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CHAPTER III

SUB-PROBLEMS AND RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

For purposes of analysis, the central problem concerning the relationship between promotional aspirations and role perceptions, was resolved into a number of more specific questions, as follows:

- (a) What are the role perceptions generally held by teachers and administrators, of leader behavior appropriate for the positions which they themselves presently occupy?
- (b) Are there differences between teachers and administrators, and between those occupying different administrative levels, in their perceptions of appropriate leader behavior for the positions presently occupied?
- (c) What perceptions are generally held by subordinates, of the leader behavior exhibited by administrative personnel who are their immediate superiors?
- (d) Are differences in the strength of promotional aspirations associated with differences in perception, both of the actual leader behavior exhibited by superiors, and of the leader behavior deemed appropriate for the position presently occupied?
- (e) Are differences in the strength of promotional aspirations associated with differences in perception of the importance of deferring to superior authority?
- (f) What relationship exists between personal variables such as age, and length of time in the position presently held, and the strength of promotional aspirations possessed?

In order to investigate the relationships posed in the questions above, a process of further division and narrowing of the focus was employed to yield the following researchable sub-problems.

Sub-problem 1

What relationships exist between the type of position held, and the relative emphasis on the leader behavior dimensions of Initiating Structure and Consideration, perceived as appropriate for the position presently occupied?

Applewhite has suggested that differences in hierarchical level are associated with differential role perceptions, both for the present occupational level held, and for the roles pertaining to other levels.

As the occupants of different hierarchical levels view those at other levels from their peculiar perspective, so also are their self-perceptions commensurate with their level-that is, there is a tendency to conceive of oneself in ways appropriate to the hierarchical level occupied (3: p. 143).

The same position is also taken by Ghiselli, who states that "persons at different occupational levels perceive themselves in different ways" (12: p. 175), while studies by Coates and Pellegrin (5: p. 206), and Porter (19: p. 107), have shown that management personnel, as opposed to non-management personnel, perceive themselves as dominant types, possessing initiative, energy and changemaking leadership qualities. These findings are supported by the results of an investigation by Fleishman, which indicated that "the higher people were in the plant hierarchy, the less consideration

they felt the workers should get, and the more structuring they felt should be initiated" (10: p. 158).

What a person perceives is influenced by the organization, his position in it, and the feelings possessed about both. An individual's perceptions in an organizational setting are usually limited in scope and accuracy by their focus only on those aspects of a situation which are directly related to the position held, and the particular goals, activities, and responsibilities which are entailed. Accordingly, a person tends to perceive only those things which are most relevant to his role. Because of this, Enns suggests that teachers and administrators in the same school may see the same event in entirely different ways, because of the difference in the nature of their positions (8: p. 25).

When an individual enters an organization, or takes on a new role within it, he is subjected to a process of socialization, according to Abbott (2: p. 6), during which he learns the nature of his role. The role socialization process involves two dimensions, that of intentional instruction and incidental learning (24: p. 226). The intentional instruction, as far as the vice-principal or principal of a school in a bureaucratically structured public education system is concerned, consists very largely of superordinate directives, regulations, administrative handbooks, and policy statements. Though there may be some reference to interpersonal or expressive role expectations in these communications, the emphasis is likely to be predominantly instrumental and procedural, concerned with questions of

task and management. The effects of the more direct and explicit intentional instruction are likely to be further reinforced by incidental learning of the traditional public and intra-organizational expectations for the administrator's role as one of manager and organizer.

Examination of the literature discloses the view that both the teacher and the educational administrator are required to engage in leader behaviors, as part of an effective role performance. However, the type of leader behavior appropriate for each role appears to differ in its emphasis upon the two dimensions of Initiating Structure and Consideration. It would appear that the teacher, involved with children's personality formation as a prime goal, is more concerned with the Consideration aspect of leader behavior; while the administrator, whose major function consists of facilitating teaching and learning, is more concerned with Initiating Structure. According to Enns, the success of the teaching function, in making possible learning by students, "depends very much upon the rapport between pupils and teacher" (9: p. 4), and if teachers are to provide this kind of personal attention to pupils, they must depend on the administrators for the facilitation of their teaching function through attending to such tasks as organization, communication, decision-making, controlling, directing, influencing and co-ordinating (9: p. 5).

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While it is true, as Reeves points out (22: p. 11), that the teacher has certain administrative duties to perform, and while the

administrator must also be concerned to some extent with teaching activities, nevertheless the general point holds good that the teacher's role as presently defined by the expectations of community, employer, students and teachers themselves, would appear to emphasize Consideration to a greater extent, and Initiating Structure to a lesser extent, than that of the educational administrator.

Research Hypothesis 1.1. Teachers will perceive significantly lower frequencies of Initiating Structure, as appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied, than will administrative personnel.

Research Hypothesis 1.2. Teachers will perceive significantly higher frequencies of Consideration as appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied, than will administrative personnel.

Research Hypothesis 1.3. Teachers will perceive significantly higher frequencies of Consideration, as compared with Initiating Structure, as appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied.

Research Hypothesis 1.4. Administrative personnel will perceive significantly higher frequencies of Initiating Structure, as compared with Consideration, as appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied.

Research Hypothesis 1.5. There will be no significant difference between principals and vice-principals in their perceptions of the frequencies of Initiating Structure and Consideration deemed as appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied.

Sub-problem 2

What are the perceptions generally held by subordinates, of the leader behavior displayed by those administrative personnel who are their immediate superiors?

Costello and Zalkind suggest that perceptual accuracy can be distorted by the lack of visibility of the traits and activities being

judged (6: p. 47). In the leader behavior of the educational administrator, the Initiating Structure dimension is far more visible to subordinates, than those activities which involve Consideration. It is relatively easy for subordinates to perceive correctly the various task-oriented and managerial activities involving organization, direction, and communication; such as for example, assigning specific staff members to particular duties, or requiring that a task be performed according to a stated plan. However, group-maintenance activities, such as making staff members feel at ease when talking with the administrator, are far less visible, far less capable of accurate perception, and far more subject to distortion because of characteristics possessed by the perceiver.

This phenomenon of perceptual distortion through lack of visibility becomes much more marked as the size of the group increases. While it may be difficult for subordinates to perceive leader behavior accurately, even in a very small organization where a high level of personal interaction is possible, such difficulty is accentuated as the organization increases in size. Hemphill has found that as the size of the group changes, perception of the leader by the group members also undergoes a change, in the direction of emphasis upon Initiating Structure. This study indicated that "there is a tendency for the leadership role in the larger groups to take on a greater degree of impersonal direction connected with firmness and impartiality in enforcement of rules" (15: p. 19). Thus, in a study which is centered in urban schools that are sufficiently large to have a

vice-principal, it is likely that subordinates' perceptions of the leader behavior exhibited by administrators who are their immediate superiors will emphasize Initiating Structure over Consideration.

Research Hypothesis 2. Subordinates will perceive significantly higher frequencies of Initiating Structure, as compared with Consideration, when describing the leader behavior of their immediate superiors.

Sub-problem 3

What relationship exists between the level of promotional aspirations possessed by an individual, and his perceptions of the appropriate leader behavior for the position which he presently occupies?

Role socialization is a transactional process, involving dynamic interactions between the individual's need dispositions and the institutional role definitions. For the individual who has strong orientations towards promotional mobility, the "esteem" and "self actualization" needs may operate as powerful motivating factors, influencing his perception of the codified behavior system. To satisfy these needs, promotion is necessary, and achieving promotion depends on meeting the organizational demands for appropriate behavior. Thus, when strong aspirations for advancement permeate an individual's perceptual response to the codified behavior system, his cognitive role orientation will be likely to emphasize the organization's expectations for goal achievement and task directedness, because in most instances these are made more explicit and receive greater official stress than group maintenance activities. In addition to

intentional instruction, the role socialization process also involves incidental learning, which may reinforce the perception that role behavior for the ambitious should be predominantly task-oriented. For example, one of Halpin's major findings from early research with the LBDQ was that superiors are more concerned with the Initiating Structure aspects of the leader's behavior, while subordinates are more desirous of the Consideration which the leader may extend to them as group members (14: p. 22). Since organizational promotion is usually dependent on the judgment of superiors, rather than of subordinates, it is likely that the teacher, vice-principal or principal who desires advancement will emphasize the Initiating Structure elements of leader behavior in his role performance. Further support for this position is provided by the findings of Moser, whose investigation of the relationships between the perceived and professed leadership styles of principals and superintendents disclosed that superintendents express less confidence in, and give the lowest effectiveness ratings to principals whom they perceive as exhibiting idiographic behavior. In addition, superintendents express the highest confidence in, and give the highest effectiveness ratings to principals who profess to be nomothetic (18: p. 3).

It seems fairly clear that formal and informal factors will combine to influence the role perception of the individual who aspires to promotion in the school organization. For the ambitious vice-principal or principal, the formal expectations and the codified behavior system will play a considerable part in directing role

behavior towards an emphasis on Initiating Structure, but what of the ambitious teacher, for whose present role the expectations of leader behavior generally emphasize Consideration? Rosenberg (23: p. 24) suggests that anticipations of a future occupational role may exert considerable influence on current role behavior, a process to which he assigns the term "anticipatory socialization." This view would indicate that once a teacher has made a decision to seek future promotion to administrative levels, it is likely that he will incorporate into his present role behavior a representation of the values, attitudes and behaviors appropriate for his chosen future occupation. Thus, perception of the role behavior appropriate for the present position undergoes influence from anticipatory perceptions of the role aspired to. According to Ratsoy, preparation for an occupation--in this case educational administration--is a type of anticipatory socialization, because a process of learning and identification with the desired role takes place long before the person formally assumes the role (21: p. 32). For the teacher who seeks advancement to administrative positions, his anticipatory socialization will take place during a period of preparation, both formal and informal, usually involving the acquisition of additional academic qualifications, and the accumulation of a required level of experience. During this time, he will acquire skills and develop attitudes that are perceived to be appropriate for the future position sought.

Research Hypothesis 3. School personnel who possess high levels of promotional aspiration will perceive significantly higher frequencies of Initiating Structure, and significantly lower frequencies of Consideration, as appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied, than those who possess low levels of promotional aspiration.

Sub-problem 4

What relationship exists between the level of promotional aspirations possessed by an individual, and his perceptions of the leader behavior exhibited by his immediate superior?

As the ambitious teacher, vice-principal, or principal observes the leader behavior of his immediate superior, a process of selective perception is likely to operate. It is probable that perceptions of the administrative roles will already be associated with a strongly accentuated impression of the importance of task-oriented activities, because of the official expectations that are explicitly stated for these roles. In addition, the effects of the organizational reward system may intervene to emphasize this perceptual bias, with the result that perceptions of the leader behavior exhibited by the incumbent of the next higher position will probably be dominated by an emphasis on goal-directed, Initiating Structure activities. On the other hand, leader behavior of the Consideration type is likely to be "screened out" perceptually, because of its apparent relative insignificance among organizational priorities.

Further support for the proposition that a person who aspires to promotion will perceive an emphasis on Initiating Structure in the

leader behavior of his immediate superior, is provided from the study of perceptual readiness. It has been shown that the extent to which an individual is ready to perceive phenomena, depends on the degree to which he is attuned to what is likely to be present in the environment. It seems reasonable to suggest that the ambitious person whose perception is very likely directed towards the Initiating Structure dimensions of role behavior, through the effects of the reward system and the official, codified, task-oriented expectations, will predominantly perceive Initiating Structure activities on the part of his superior, because it is this aspect of leader behavior to which he is most attuned, and for which he is most perceptually ready.

It may also be argued that the distorting mechanism known as projection may affect the perceptions of the person who aspires to promotion. Projection is a process of attributing to others those characteristics which are really one's own (8: p. 25). Thus, if the ambitious teacher, vice-principal, or principal perceives an emphasis upon Initiating Structure as appropriate leader behavior for his own position, as has previously been argued, he may ascribe this same emphasis to others, particularly to his superiors, since they may represent for him the symbols of his own upward mobility interests and future achievement (20: pp. 179-186).

This view finds support in the study carried out by Abbott, who found that individuals tend to be selective in their perceptions of values, and that psychological projection plays an important part

in the perceptual process.

An individual's own values had an important influence upon his perceptions of the values held by others. Persons who held emergent values tended to view others as being emergent, while those who held traditional values tended to view others as being traditional. Moreover, these patterns of perception were unrelated to the actual values of those whose values were being perceived (1: p. 3).

While the possession of strong orientations towards promotional mobility cannot be located unreservedly in either of Spindler's patterns of general American cultural values (25: p. 156), it would seem to be associated more with the emergent end of the continuum. The essential point here, however, is that individuals who aspire to promotion will possess a certain constellation of value orientations, and in terms of Abbott's findings will probably impute these values to In other words, the individual who desires advancement will tend to perceive others as valuing those behaviors and attitudes which are significant to him. Thus, because his superiors represent a symbol of achievement for the individual who seeks status betterment, and because an emphasis on Initiating Structure is likely to be perceived as a trait which is necessary equipment for attaining promotional mobility, the ambitious person will probably impute to his superiors a greater degree of Initiating Structure behavior than they do in fact manifest.

Some empirical support for the contention that differences in promotional aspiration are associated with different perceptions of actual leader behavior is provided by Kipnis' investigation of the relationships between mobility expectations and various superior-

subordinate relationships in an organization (9). The hypothesis that individuals with low mobility aspirations would hold less favorable attitudes towards management changes in working procedures, than would those with high mobility aspirations, was confirmed.

Research Hypothesis 4. School personnel who possess high levels of promotional aspiration will perceive significantly higher frequencies of Initiating Structure, and significantly lower frequencies of Consideration, than those with low levels of promotional aspiration, when describing the leader behavior of their immediate superiors.

Sub-problem 5

What relationship exists between the level of promotional aspirations possessed by an individual, and his perceptions of the importance of deferring to superior authority?

For the upward-mobile, Presthus asserts, the organization qua organization has considerable meaning, evoking his loyalty and affirmation, and providing a constant source of reference. To gain promotion, the demand is for conformity, and the upward-mobile will not "seriously question a system that has proved its rationality" (20: p. 168). When faced with a situation that requires a choice between client interest and organizational requirements, the upward-mobile aligns himself with the organization.

This suggests that the capacity to rationalize organizational claims is part of the value equipment of the upward-mobile. He may respect individual dissent and error, but the question is one of priority, and in the last analysis he will accept the organization's values (20: p. 179).

Deviation from the behavior considered appropriate at the different hierarchical levels of an organization can lead to censure

by superiors and undermine chances for advancement. Ghiselli has found (12: p. 174) that someone in a lower level position who behaves towards his superior like a person in a higher status, will be less favorably regarded by his superior.

Investigations by Jones into tactics of ingratiation between subordinates and leaders in a hierarchy, showed that conformity and self-enhancement were the most common characteristics of upward communications (16).

Reference to the process of identification may also be employed to support the view that the ambitious person will practise conformity with organizational norms, and will demonstrate respect for superior authority. Presthus asserts that organizational identification is often a feature of the personality of the upward-mobile, who models his conduct very closely on that of his more successful superiors (20: p. 185). A similar view is expressed by Gardner in the following terms:

In general, the mobile and successful executive looks to his superiors with a feeling of personal attachment and tends to identify himself with them. His superiors represent for him a symbol of his own achievement and activity desires, and the successful junior tends to identify himself with these traits in those who have achieved more (11: p. 178).

In a study of 1000 foremen from nineteen midwestern manufacturing plants, Balma, Maloney and Lawshe found a low, but significant "positive relationship between foreman identification-with-management scores, and management ratings of how well the various foremen's work groups are doing their present job" (4: p. 373). Putting this

another way, the foremen who received the highest ratings were those who were most like their superiors. In addition, the foremen with higher management identification scores would have greater likelihood of promotion, since they were perceived by the superiors as having more effective work groups. The authors of this study also suggested that there is a positive relationship between a foreman's identification with management, and his aspirations of promotional mobility. As Applewhite points out: "Those who promote others like to promote those who have similar perceptions" (3: p. 155).

Research Hypothesis 5. School personnel who possess high levels of promotional aspiration will assign a significantly higher importance to deferring to superior authority, than those with low levels of promotional aspirations.

Sub-problem 6

What relationship exists between the leader behavior perceived by administrative personnel to be appropriate for the position presently occupied, and perceptions of their actual leader behavior, embodied in descriptions supplied by their subordinates?

If it is correct, as previously postulated, that both teachers and administrators emphasize the task-oriented aspects in their perceptions of administrative behavior, then it is reasonable to assume that a positive relationship may exist between superior perceptions of appropriate leader behavior, and subordinate perceptions of actual leader behavior, within the context of the Initiating Structure dimension.

Although there may be similarity in superior-subordinate

perceptions of the Initiating Structure dimension of leader behavior, the same conditions are unlikely to apply in the Consideration dimension. In the case of Initiating Structure, a commonly held set of expectations for administrative behavior tend to prevail. The administrator is generally known as a manager and organizer, and he is formally required to structure the school's operation. It is such structuring behavior that is most obvious to subordinates, even in a large school, where the administrator's activities may not be continually visible. However, in the Consideration dimension of leader behavior no such levelling factors operate, and it is likely that a divergence will appear between superior perceptions of appropriate leader behavior, and subordinate perceptions of actual leader behavior. As Applewhite points out: "There may be a difference between having favorable attitudes toward being considerate, and actually being so" (3: p. 149).

However, Abbott has found that the values held by individuals have an important influence on the kinds of perceptual errors made.

When the values of the perceiver and the perceived were similar, errors tended to be random. When the values of the perceiver and the perceived were dissimilar, errors followed a systematic pattern, and tended to move in the direction of the perceiver's own value position with a frequency that was significantly greater than would have been expected to occur by chance (1: p. 2).

For this reason, it is hypothesized that similarity in the strength of promotional aspirations will provide a balancing factor, that results in a congruence of superior-subordinate perceptions in the Consideration dimension of leader behavior.

Research Hypothesis 6.1. There will be no significant difference between the frequencies of Initiating Structure, perceived by subordinates when describing the actual leader behavior exhibited by their immediate superiors, and the frequencies of Initiating Structure perceived by those superiors to be appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied.

Research Hypothesis 6.2. Significant differences will exist between the frequencies of Consideration, perceived by subordinates when describing the leader behavior of their immediate superiors, and the frequencies of Consideration perceived by those superiors to be appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied.

Research Hypothesis 6.3. When subordinates and their immediate superiors possess similar levels of promotional aspiration, there will be no significant difference between the frequencies of Consideration perceived by subordinates when describing the actual leader behavior of their immediate superiors, and the frequencies of Consideration perceived by those superiors to be appropriate for the position presently occupied.

Sub-problem 7

What relationship exists between an individual's age and his level of promotional aspiration?

The potential future gain from a commitment to promotional mobility, which would compensate for the present sacrifices demanded in other personal areas of life, is very much greater for the young man, than for the older man who is nearing the end of his career.

Balma found in a study of the foreman's role in modern industry, that age was related to aspirations of upward mobility, with the strongest management identification shown by the younger foremen (14: pp. 373-377).

In a study of staff-line relationships in three industrial plants, Dalton discovered that younger staff officers were markedly more ambitious than the older officers.

There was much concern to win rapid promotion, to make the "right impressions" and to achieve individual recognition (7: p. 403).

Research Hypothesis 7. Young school personnel will manifest significantly higher levels of promotional aspiration than older personnel who are incumbents of similar positions.

Sub-problem 8

What relationship exists between the level of promotional aspirations possessed by individuals of the same age who occupy similar positions, and the length of time which they have spent in their position?

It is likely that another variable intervenes in the relation—ship between promotional aspirations and age; namely, the length of time spent in the present position. In the period immediately following advancement to a position, the ambitious appointee may be buoyant with hopes of further promotions. While aspirations will not wither quickly, because of the fairly general acceptance of the criterion of seniority, and the need for experience and additional qualifications prior to further promotion, there will come a time when the upwardly aspiring individual may begin to lose his enthusiasm, in the knowledge that too many years have passed, and the hoped for advancements have not eventuated.

This raises the question: does length of time in a position account for differences in promotional aspirations among school personnel of the same age who occupy similar positions?

In the realization that some role incumbents have no aspirations for further advancement, perhaps seeing their present position

as only a temporary occupation before marriage, or on the other hand perhaps regarding their current role as the pinnacle of their careers, it seemed reasonable that the investigation should be confined to those teachers, principals, and vice-principals who indicated that they desired further promotion.

Research Hypothesis 8. There will be significant differences in the levels of promotional aspiration possessed by school personnel of the same age, who occupy similar positions, and who desire further advancement, when they are classified according to length of time in their position.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER III

The central problem was resolved into a number of more specific questions concerning: generally-held role perceptions for the positions under scrutiny; differences in role perception associated with differences in position occupied; generally-held subordinate perceptions of the leader behavior exhibited by immediate superiors; differences in role perception of actual and appropriate leader behavior; and differences in personal variables associated with differing levels of promotional aspiration.

Further narrowing of the focus then generated a number of researchable sub-problems. For each of these, a review of the relevant theoretical issues and research findings was provided, leading to the development of fourteen specific research hypotheses, as follows:

Research Hypothesis 1.1. Teachers will perceive significantly lower frequencies of Initiating Structure, as appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied, than will administrative personnel.

Research Hypothesis 1.2. Teachers will perceive significantly higher frequencies of Consideration as appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied, than will administrative personnel.

Research Hypothesis 1.3. Teachers will perceive significantly higher frequencies of Consideration, as compared with Initiating Structure, as appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied.

Research Hypothesis 1.4. Administrative personnel will perceive significantly higher frequencies of Initiating Structure, as compared with Consideration, as appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied.

Research Hypothesis 1.5. There will be no significant difference between principals and vice-principals in their perceptions of the frequencies of Initiating Structure and Consideration deemed as appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied.

Research Hypothesis 2. Subordinates will perceive significantly higher frequencies of Initiating Structure, as compared with Consideration, when describing the leader behavior of their immediate superiors.

Research Hypothesis 3. School personnel who possess high levels of promotional aspiration will perceive significantly higher frequencies of Initiating Structure, and significantly lower frequencies of Consideration, as appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied, than those who possess low levels of promotional aspiration.

Research Hypothesis 4. School personnel who possess high levels of promotional aspiration will perceive significantly higher frequencies of Initiating Structure, and significantly lower frequencies of Consideration, than those with low levels of promotional aspiration, when describing the leader behavior of their immediate superiors.

Research Hypothesis 5. School personnel who possess high levels of promotional aspiration will assign a significantly higher importance to deferring to superior authority, than those with low levels of promotional aspiration.

Research Hypothesis 6.1. There will be no significant difference between the frequencies of Initiating Structure, perceived by subordinates when describing the actual leader behavior exhibited by their immediate superiors, and the frequencies of Initiating Structure perceived by those superiors to be appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied.

Research Hypothesis 6.2. Significant differences will exist between the frequencies of Consideration, perceived by subordinates when describing the leader behavior of their immediate superiors, and the frequencies of Consideration perceived by those superiors to be appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied.

Research Hypothesis 6.3. When subordinates and their immediate superiors possess similar levels of promotional aspiration, there will be no significant difference between the frequencies of Consideration perceived by subordinates when describing the actual leader behavior of their immediate superiors, and the frequencies of Consideration perceived by those superiors to be appropriate for the position presently occupied.

Research Hypothesis 7. Young school personnel will manifest significantly higher levels of promotional aspiration than older personnel who are incumbents of similar positions.

Research Hypothesis 8. There will be significant differences in the levels of promotional aspiration possessed by school personnel of the same age, who occupy similar positions, and who desire further advancement when they are classified according to length of time in their position.

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CHAPTER IV

METHODS OF INVESTIGATION AND RESEARCH PROCEDURES

This chapter develops the overall research design and the strategies of investigation employed in the study. Assumptions, instrumentation, and methods of data collection are described; the assembling of the experimental sample is explained, and its representativeness reported. Limitations of the study are acknowledged.

I. ASSUMPTIONS

It was assumed that an individual's perception of the leader behavior exhibited by his immediate superior; his perception of the leader behavior appropriate for his own present position; his attitudes towards promotional mobility; and his perceptions of the importance of deferring to superior authority, could all be measured by analysis of questionnaire responses. While some critics would assert that behavior should be studied, rather than verbal interpretations and explanations, particularly in such instances as professed attitudes toward superior authority, Kluckhohn argues:

Sometimes what a person says . . . is truer from a long term viewpoint than inferences drawn from his actions under special conditions . . . as a matter of fact, people often lie by their acts and tell the truth with words. The whole conventional dichotomy is misleading because speech is a form of behavior (29: p. 406).

In this particular study, the use of questionnaire techniques for the collection of data appeared to possess a number of advantages over interview and observational methods, although interviews were in fact employed later, with a randomly selected subsample as follow-up reliability and validity checks. Selltiz points out (47: pp. 238-241) that the questionnaire approach ensures uniformity from one measure to another; is markedly superior from a utilitarian point of view if large sample numbers are involved; and provides respondents with a greater confidence in their anonymity. Although perceptions of questionnaire terminology may vary from individual to individual, and this might appear to undermine claims regarding uniformity of measurement, this disadvantage can be minimized by careful development of the questionnaire instrument, and testing for internal consistency, validity, and reliability. For this reason, well known, widely used pre-existing instruments which had already undergone rigorous testing and development were chosen for the study; namely, the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, and its parallel forms the LBDQ "Ideal," and the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire; Seeman's Mobility Achievement Scale; and the MacKay-Miklos adaptation of Corwin's Professional Role Orientation Scale. These are further discussed in a subsequent section dealing with instrumentation, and the composite questionnaire form containing these instruments is presented in Appendix B.

It was also assumed that responses to the five Likert-type scales which were employed as instruments in this study would yield interval scale data. In terms of the strictest requirements of statistical precision, a Likert-type instrument does not qualify as more than an ordinal scale. That is, it makes possible the

ranking of individuals, but provides no basis for inferring by how much the individuals differ. Nevertheless, most researchers feel confident enough to employ parametric statistics with Likert scales. There is a considerable body of authoritative research which provides precedents for regarding LBDQ responses as yielding interval scale data.

An additional assumption, previously discussed in the earlier presentation of the problem, proposed a standard career pattern of promotional steps from teacher, to vice-principal, to principal.

In this study, most of the statistical tests employed were parametric in nature, and as such involved a number of statistical assumptions concerning the nature of the distribution of variables in the population from which the sample was drawn. For example, the test of Analysis of Variance assumes homogeneity of variance.

Wherever parametric statistics were employed, an attempt was made to meet the required assumptions. Wherever it was known that it was not possible to satisfy the parametric assumptions, the resulting implications have been discussed, and an account has been provided of the statistical modifications adopted.

II. DATA REQUIRED

In order to test the proposed hypotheses, it was necessary to gather certain identification data on schools, teachers, vice-principals, and principals; data on perceptions of leader behavior deemed appropriate for the position presently occupied; data on

perceptions of the actual leader behavior exhibited by immediate superiors; data on perceptions of the importance of deferring to superior authority; and data on levels of promotional aspiration.

III. INSTRUMENTATION

One composite printed questionnaire form included the following sections: a Personal and School Data Questionnaire; the Seeman Mobility Achievement Scale; the MacKay-Miklos Canadian version of Corwin's Professional Role Orientation Scale; the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire; and the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire "Ideal" Form.

The copyrighted Leadership Opinion Questionnaire by Fleishman, was supplied separately to principals and vice-principals. Examples of all the above questionnaire forms are presented in Appendix B, and a brief discussion of each of the instruments follows below.

Personal and School Data Questionnaire

This instrument was used to elicit the following information on personal and school variables: sex, age, academic and professional training, teaching level, marital status, teaching experience, number of years in present position, type of school, and size of school.

The Mobility Achievement Scale

In order to determine the promotional aspirations possessed by

teachers, vice-principals, and principals, the Mobility Achievement Scale was employed (45). This instrument provides a measure of the "mobility orientation," or attitude towards occupational mobility, possessed by respondents. Seeman, the originator of the scale, describes its purpose in the following way: "The scale is conceived as a measure of the relative reward value the individual places on occupational mobility" (37: p. 219).

The instrument is a fourteen item scale, which offers the respondent a choice between occupational mobility and a series of other values, such as friendship ties, family values, health, or intrinsic work satisfaction. The items measure the degree to which respondents place the value of occupational mobility above other values in their hierarchy of goals (46: p. 276).

Development of the M.A. Scale. In constructing the Mobility

Achievement Scale, Seeman aimed at developing a suitable attitude

measure which would reveal an individual's relative commitment to

advancement; that is, his "mobility orientation," as opposed to an

orientation towards intrinsic achievement. (Seeman defines "achievement" in this sense, as referring to goals that are intrinsically

valuable to the respondent, in contrast to the value of status betterment. School programs, family interests, friendship and community

ties--all these in the meaning of the scale are taken as instances

of "achievement" emphasis, as opposed to "mobility" emphasis.)

The underlying concept of the scale is expressed in the following way--given a choice among specific alternatives, which

values will the respondent sacrifice in the interests of advancement (45: p. 634)? Seeman acknowledges that the approach used in the scale is based heavily on the methodology employed in an investigation carried out by Reissman (41: p. 233).

The M.A. scale was developed on the basis of a series of interviews with practising administrators, who suggested items that would be appropriate in a test of mobility orientation. A process of refinement and modification resulted in an initial sixty-item form of the scale, which was then further analysed and simplified to yield the final fourteen-item instrument, containing four types of questions about mobility:

- 1. Do the respondent's personal commitments toward mobility reflect a positive or negative view?
 e.g. "One thing that would keep me from moving up is the thought of the increased responsibility breathing down your neck." (To which the respondent replies in terms of a five point scale, ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree".)
- 2. Given a choice between specific alternatives, will the respondent be prepared to sacrifice some other value in the interests of advancement? If so, to what extent?
- e.g. "A person must be willing to put off having children for a while, if he wants to be ready to take advantage of the opportunities for advancement."
- 3. Are the consequences of mobility viewed as essentially negative or positive?

- e.g. "I wouldn't let being a 'stranger' for a while keep me from moving every so often to a higher position in a new community."
- 4. Does the respondent possess a generally favorable or unfavorable view of the mobile person and his motives?
 e.g. "The man who says he isn't out to 'get ahead' in his field is either kidding himself or trying to kid others."

The reliability of the M.A. Scale. Seeman reports that a corrected split-half reliability of 0.64 was obtained in a study of forty-four school superintendents, while in a parallel study of 100 high school principals, a figure of 0.75 resulted (45). Silberstein's investigation of the relationship between mobility and prejudice, also yielded a reliability figure of 0.75 (48: p. 258).

The validity of the M.A. Scale. Seeman points out that the concepts underlying the test preclude using the fact of actual mobility as a criterion, and admits that it is difficult to apply direct indices which might serve as unequivocal validating agents. He therefore suggests that establishing the validity of the scale involves establishing construct validity, demonstrating the utility of the constructs and their measures, in the process of reducing to meaningful order the matrix of events (45: p. 635). Three studies are cited as part of the process of validation, to the extent that their use of the M.A. Scale produces a set of consistent theoretical results. The first, the study by Silberstein (48), yielded results consistent with prediction that the effects of mobility on prejudice

depend on the meaning of mobility for the individual; that is, on his attitude to advancement, or mobility orientation as measured by the M.A. Scale. In another study, Robin tested the hypothesis that the performance of insurance executives would be reflected in their mobility orientation (42). In a third study cited by Seeman as supporting the validity of the instrument, forty-four of the fifty school superintendents on whom LBDQ data were available from the Halpin investigation (23), were tested for their mobility attitudes with the scale. This investigation demonstrated that the fact of actual upward or downward mobility in itself has no significant relationship with leadership style. However, taking account of attitudes toward mobility does yield significant results.

Use of the M.A. Scale in the present study. By employing this instrument, a measure of the respondent's attitude towards promotion, or promotional aspirations, was obtained. What was measured was the individual's perception of the attractiveness of advancement—its attractiveness for him personally. It is conceivable that some respondents might possess a high degree of orientation towards promotion, desiring it strongly, yet having little actual chance of achieving it in reality. This does not matter; it is the individual's attitude towards advancement which is the key variable under scrutiny, and the study examined the relationship between this variable and role perception.

The Role Orientations Scale

The instrument that was employed to measure perceptions of the importance of deferring to superior authority, was the Role Attitudes Questionnaire. This is an adaptation for Canadian use, by MacKay and Miklos (33), of Corwin's Professional Role Orientation Scale (5). Nine items from the sixteen-item MacKay instrument were selected as a measure of deference towards superior authority. The original Corwin scale from which the MacKay questionnaire was adapted, is the best-known and most commonly used measure of teachers' professional role orientations, that is, their attitude towards teaching as a profession. The word "professional" was discarded from the title of the MacKay form, in order to avoid possible response coloring.

The development of the Role Orientations Scale. The development of the Corwin scale initially involved an extensive review of the literature, following which a large number of items were tentatively selected on the basis of their apparent appropriateness with relevance to several accepted dimensions of the concept of professionalism. After judgment of their suitability by a team of sociologists, the items were reduced in number, refined, and modified. Four dimensions of professionalism were ultimately arrived at, and these constituted the subscales of the instrument. These were: client orientation; orientation to the profession; competence based on a monopoly of knowledge; and decision-making authority and control over work. For each item statement, the respondent was required to

answer in terms of a five part choice, ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree."

Tests of internal consistency on the Role Orientations Scale. In order to test the internal consistency of the scale, the original form of the questionnaire was administered, and all items which did not sufficiently discriminate between the high and low scoring groups of the sample were discarded. For every item, the responses of those whose total scale scores lay in the upper quartile of the distribution were compared with those of the lower quartile, and group scale value differences computed. A critical ratio test was applied to test the significance of difference of means. Where items displayed no statistically significant difference, they were discarded.

Scale reliability. Items that had been accepted following tests of internal consistency were randomly divided into two groups, and correlations established. The resultant corrected split-half reliability was 0.65. This was judged to be an acceptable scale reliability, but it was not considered that the subscales possessed adequate reliability, due to the small numbers of items contained.

Validating the Scale. In order to validate the scale, it was applied to groups of teachers judged as being "high" and "low" in professionalism. The criteria for determining standards of reputed professionalism were length of training, type of pre-service education, contribution of articles to professional journals, and membership in

professional associations. When the high and low professional groups responded to the scale, a critical ratio resulted, which was significant well beyond the .01 level.

Criticisms of the Professional Role Orientations Scale. While the validity and reliability of the scale have been established, and while Robinson found the instrument highly discriminating in determining differences in professionalism between schools (43: p. 198), the scale may legitimately be criticized on the basis of its shortness. Although professionalism is a complex and multi-dimensional concept, the instrument provides only a global rating of professionalism.

Use of the Role Orientations Scale in this study. It may be seriously questioned whether an individual's readiness to subscribe to professional journals and belong to professional organizations are necessarily important indicants of professionalism, particularly as they provide opportunities to gain visibility, for those who aspire to promotion. While it is admitted that "professional" subscriptions and memberships are likely to accompany client loyalty, autonomy, and esoteric competence in the behavior of a truly professional practitioner, it can be argued that it is the attitude towards the organization and hierarchical authority that most effectively discriminates between the true professional who has internalized the values of the concept, and the individual who merely wishes to don a respectable cloak of seeming professionalism. The same view is advanced by Presthus, who argues that reactions to authority

constitute the most critical variable in organizational accommodation (39: p. 140). For example, Griffiths' study indicated that the group he termed "Gasers" were outwardly professional in some of the dimensions of the concept, but that respect for superordinate authority, and a desire to impress superiors so characterized their behavior, that they were equated with the Presthus "upward-mobiles" (21).

Accordingly, items in the MacKay-Corwin scale referring to professional associations, journal subscriptions, opinions on standards of entry to the profession, and professional competence were not scored. Instead, the focus was upon the extent to which the respondent was ready to commit himself to actions which were in accord with accepted notions of professionalism, but which involved the necessity of disregarding superior authority. Items such as the following were used to measure perceptions of the importance of deferring to superior authority:

- (a) It should be permissible for the teacher to violate a rule, if it is felt that the best interests of the student will be served in doing so.
- (b) A teacher should consistently employ ideas of the best educational practices, even though the administration prefers other views.

The selected items which were scored in this study all required the respondent to indicate the extent of his agreement with statements that suggested the need to pursue an autonomous professional course of action, even in the face of opposing demands, orders, regulations, or expectations from the superior authority. (See Items numbered 26, 27, 28, 29, 31, 34, 39, 40 and 41 in the composite questionnaire presented in Appendix B.)

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (1957)

The major instrument used in this study was the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (hereafter called the LBDQ). This instrument was employed to gather data on an individual's perceptions of the Initiating Structure and Consideration dimensions of the leader behavior exhibited by his immediate superior.

The LBDQ was produced as the result of an interdisciplinary attempt by social scientists at the Ohio State University to provide a quick and easy description of leader behavior in groups (27: p. 35). The team approached the controversial topic of leadership by planning an attempt to examine, analyse, and measure leader behavior or performance, rather than traits. To begin with, a definition was adopted which included the concepts of goal achievement and group maintenance, so that leadership was seen as "the behavior of an individual when he is directing the activities of a group towards a shared goal" (27: p. 7). Nine categories of leader behavior were suggested, and almost 1,800 specific items were constructed. Factor analysis of responses to these questions yielded three factors, which were identified as Maintenance of Membership, Objective Attainment Behavior, and Group Interaction Facilitation Behavior (27: pp. 25-27). In a continuing process of reduction and simplification,

the items were further condensed, to obtain an easily administered, comparatively brief questionnaire, which contained scales to characterize the leader's behavior in a particular group, and distinguish it from the behavior of leaders in other groups. Halpin and Winer, in a study of leader behavior in aircraft bomber crews, further modified the preliminary form of the LBDQ, by reducing the number of categories of leader behavior to eight (25). Four major factors were revealed by factor analysis of the modified instrument. These were given the names of Consideration, Initiation of Structure, Production Emphasis, and Sensitivity (Social Awareness). The first two. Consideration and Initiation of Structure, accounted together for 83.2 per cent of the common variance (26: pp. 43-45). Halpin and Winer accordingly undertook the construction of a short form of the LBDQ, consisting of four subscales (26: pp. 46-50). This instrument consisted of Consideration (fifteen items), Initiation of Structure (fifteen items), Production Emphasis (twenty-five items), and Social Awareness (twenty-five items). It was hoped that the additional items on the last two subtests would build up these scales, but the researchers were unsuccessful in this attempt. Production Emphasis and Social Awareness continued to make no more than minor contributions to the total common variance, and as a result, Halpin developed the now well-known forty-item form, with the two dimensions of leader behavior designated as Consideration and Initiating Structure.

The main features of the widely used LBDQ are described by

Halpin in his manual for the use of the instrument:

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) provides a technique whereby group members may describe the leader behavior of designated leaders in formal organizations. The LBDQ contains items, each of which describes a specific way in which a leader may behave. The respondent indicates the frequency with which he perceives the leader to engage in each type of behavior by marking one of five adverbs: always, often, occasionally, seldom, never. These responses are obtained from the members of the leader's immediate work-group and are scored on two dimensions of leader behavior (24: p. 1).

The LBDQ Form XII. Stogdill contended that it was unreasonable to believe that only two factors were sufficient to account for all the observed variance in leader behavior (50: p. 2). Formulation of a new theory of role differentiation and group achievement led Stogdill to suggest new factors. As a result, the number of items in the LBDQ measuring Initiating Structure and Consideration were reduced, and ten new subscales were added, giving rise to the multidimensional LBDQ: Form XII.

However, two recent studies by Brown (4), and Punch (40), have demonstrated that the factoring of LBDQ XII data results in the emergence once again of two major dimensions of leader behavior—Factor I, to which the term "System Orientation" was applied, (composed heavily of Initiating Structure, Production Emphasis, and Role Assumption); and Factor II, called "Person Orientation," (composed heavily of Consideration, Tolerance of Freedom, and Tolerance of Uncertainty). These two factors bear a significant resemblance to Halpin and Winer's two original factors of Initiating Structure and Consideration in the 1957 LBDQ (4: p. 69).

Reliability of the LBDQ. Halpin reports the estimated reliability by the split-half method as .83 for the Initiating Structure scores, and .92 for the Consideration scores (24: p. 1).

Regarding the later Form XII version, Stogdill reports reliabilities of the instrument's subscales, ranging from a high of .91 to a low of .38, with a median of .78 (50: p. 11).

Validity of the LBDQ. The Ohio State Leadership studies began virtually without theory, and proceeded from a minimum number of assumptions about leadership (20: p. 70). The focus was upon how leaders operate, and an interdisciplinary team using an approach that was essentially psychometric, contributed a multitude of items relating to supposed categories of leader behavior, which were progressively reduced and simplified. Later, organization theory, small group theory, and role theory supplied theoretical formulations which provided a framework for the phenomena described by the LBDQ (20: p. 70).

While commenting upon the fascination with the LBDQ displayed by researchers during the last decade, Greenfield points to the large number of increasingly sophisticated statistical studies that have employed factor analysis and correlation, in attempts to establish causal links. Though he criticizes the relationships explored as somewhat simplistic, and lacking the multivariate analysis that he sees as necessary to provide adequate descriptions of leader behavior and its connection with group structure and process, Greenfield makes the following comments on the construct validity of the LBDQ:

By implication, however, the weight of the reported relationships and the repetition of them inevitably suggests determining and mediating effects that are unwarranted by the research design. These studies have helped to establish a construct validity for the LBDQ in school settings, at least in the two major versions used. The validity was established in terms of a number of other organizational variables, notably output variables of one kind or another (20: p. 69).

Two general validity categories are discussed by Ebel (6: pp. 380-381). The first, "direct validity," depends on professional judgment and rational analysis. In terms of the instrument's formulation and subsequent refinement by a team of interdisciplinary experts, it appears likely that direct validity, particularly of the following types--validity by definition, content validity, and face validity, has been established for the LBDQ. The second type of validity, "derived validity," which depends upon empirical and statistical evidence, also seems to have been satisfied by the great wealth of studies using the instrument. The major types of derived validity established in LBDQ investigations would appear to be factorial validity and construct validity.

Research at the University of Alberta using the LBDQ. Leader behavior has received considerable attention in graduate theses presented at the University of Alberta, and the LBDQ has been employed frequently as a research instrument.

The following are some examples of its use. Warren investigated the relationship between expectations for the principal's leadership role held by principals and teachers (53). The relationship between teacher leader behavior and teacher effectiveness was

explored by McBeath (34), while Greenfield investigated pupil growth and teacher leader behavior (19). Morris tested the hypothesis that staff characteristics and principal leader behavior were interrelated (35), and Fast attempted to relate teacher satisfaction and expectations with leader behavior (11). The relationships between principal leader behavior, teacher morale, and pupil growth were investigated by Keeler (28), and Stewart examined the relationship between teacher descriptions of leader behavior and ratings of effectiveness given by district superintendents (49). In addition, the revised LBDQ instrument, Form XII, has been employed in a number of studies, for example by Schmidt (44), and Girard (18).

The choice between the LBDQ (1957) and the LBDQ-Form XII.

Although the LBDQ Form XII has gained considerable popularity, and has been used in many recent investigations in educational settings, it was decided instead to employ the earlier LBDQ in this study, for a number of reasons:

- 1. The LBDQ Form XII possesses a lower reported reliability of subscales than the LBDQ.
- 2. Recent investigations have indicated that the twelve subscales of the LBDQ Form XII which were intended to encompass the entire domain of perceived leader behaviors, reduce to two factors-"System Orientation" and "Person Orientation," which bear a significant resemblance to Initiating Structure and Consideration.
- 3. The LBDQ's shortness, with only forty items, as compared with the LBDQ XII's one hundred items, provided an important

utilitarian reason for its choice in preference to the later instrument, since respondents were asked in addition, to reply to personal data questionnaires, as well as instruments to measure their perceptions of leader behavior appropriate to their own role, deference to superior authority, and promotional aspirations.

4. The LBDQ is available in two alternative forms--the LBDQ "Ideal," and the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, which may be employed to measure perceptions of appropriate leader behavior, as opposed to manifest leader behavior.

Criticisms of the LBDQ. Considerable criticism of the LBDQ has arisen from the fact that leader behavior has very often been equated with perceptions of leader behavior. For example, Erickson has asserted that "such perceptions cannot be assumed to depict administrator behavior accurately" (10: p. 417). In similar vein, Greenfield suggests that the chief danger arising from dazzling successes with the use of the LBDQ as an instrument to describe leader behavior, is that the items may too easily be thought of as attributes of the individual, which he brings independently to the group, and which determine the leadership functions performed (20: p. 57).

However, Brown points out that users of the LBDQ assume that how the leader really behaves is of much less importance, than how his subordinates perceive him to behave. It is their perception of his behavior that influences their actions. Defending the use of a description questionnaire form of research tool such as the LBDQ, he admits that a subscale score does not represent the leader himself,

but rather the average perception of him as held by his staff, opening the possibilities of perceptual distortion. However, assuming that leadership is a transaction between the behavior of the leader and the perceptions possessed by the led, these descriptive statements permit staff responses that are amenable to generalizing and averaging out with respect to leadership. Brown does suggest, however, that if descriptions of leader behavior are based solely on the perceptions of followers, then much more needs to be known about the followers, than has previously been the case (4: p. 67).

Greenfield, however, sees weaknesses in those procedures which involve averaging out and generalizing staff perceptions. He suggests that a major problem lies in the unclear relationship between individual and group properties, and that the question as to what variables adequately express the syntality of the group, rather than merely the average value of heterogeneous individual perceptions and judgments, is still largely unresolved.

It is apparent that the LBDQ sums and averages individual perceptions and judgments, thus raising the problem of halo and difficulty of relating phenomena at one level to those at another (20: p. 71).

The criticisms that the LBDQ does not measure leader behavior, but rather individual perceptions of leader behavior, and that dangers exist in summing individual perceptions, were not applicable to the present research design. In this study, the central focus was upon perception, not behavior—the differential perception of behavior displayed by immediate superiors, and the differential perception of

appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied. Individual perceptions of Initiating Structure or Consideration were not added to obtain a composite staff score. Instead, the focus was upon the individual's perception, and the relationship which this bore to the level of promotional aspiration.

A second major criticism, made by Greenfield of recent Canadian LBDQ research into leadership, is that there has been a disproportionate emphasis on leadership-output relationships, with a rather narrow range of criterion variables selected for investigation (20: p. 69). Greenfield argues for a greater emphasis on studies that relate input variables; and quotes, as an example of the type of study that ought to be undertaken more frequently, Thompson's investigation, which examined such relationships as the qualifications possessed by subordinates, and the expectations which they held for the superintendent's leader behavior (51).

It would appear that this criticism also, does not apply to the present study, which was an investigation of input variables, such as levels of promotional aspiration, age, and hierarchical position occupied; and their relationship to perceptions of leader behavior. Here, instead of LBDQ scores being treated as predictor variable inputs, and related to outputs such as school effectiveness and teacher morale, the LBDQ scores became the criterion or dependent variable.

The LBDQ "Ideal" Form, and the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire

To measure perceptions of the leader behavior deemed appropriate for the position presently occupied, two parallel forms of the LBDQ were used. In the case of teachers, it was the "Ideal" form of the 1957 instrument (13), while for principals and vice-principals, it was Fleishman's Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, or LOQ (15).

Development of the LBDQ "Ideal," and the LOQ. The LBDQ was initially adapted by Fleishman for use in industrial settings, in the form of the Supervisory Behavior Description Questionnaire, or LBDQ "Ideal" form (13: pp. 103-119). In this form, it measured perceptions of ideal leader behavior, or what an individual thought an ideal leader ought to do. The items were the LBDQ set of leader behavior descriptions, and the respondent was asked to indicate how often the ideal leader should act as described by the item. the Supervisory Behavior Description Questionnaire (or LBDQ "Ideal"), Fleishman then developed the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (14). The items of this instrument were parallel to those of the LBDQ and LBDQ "Ideal," except that the focus of perception had undergone a shift. Instead of being asked what should the ideal leader do, the respondent was now asked--"What should you, as a supervisor, do? How frequently should you do what is described? What is your sincere belief of the most desirable way for you, as an administrator, to act?"

In developing the LOQ, a sample of one hundred foremen was asked to indicate how frequently they should each carry out the set of behaviors included in a preliminary questionnaire developed from the LBDQ and SBDQ. A factor analysis of these responses led to the development of a revised questionnaire with items constituting two dimensions of leadership attitude entitled "Structure" and "Consideration," which are defined in the following manner: Structure reflects the extent to which an individual is likely to define and structure his own role and those of his subordinates toward goal achievement; while Consideration reflects the extent to which an individual is likely to have job relationships characterized by mutual trust, respect for subordinates' ideas, consideration of their feelings, and a certain warmth between supervisor and subordinates (16: p. 3). The two dimensions of the LOQ may be regarded as closely similar to the LBDQ (1957) dimensions of Initiating Structure and Consideration. The number of items in the instrument, and the possible range of scores for each dimension are identical with those of the LBDQ.

<u>Validity of the LOQ</u>. In part, the validity of the LOQ can be assessed on the basis of its close relationship to the LBDQ, and its outgrowth from the same interdisciplinary investigation of leader behavior, so that "direct validity," relating to professional judgment and rational analysis, may be similarly asserted in the case of the LOQ. Fleishman also comments:

The principal value of the LOQ with regard to validity, is in its construct validity. The two dimensions measured by the questionnaire were developed by factor analysis procedures, and item analysis was carried out to provide homogeneous measures of Consideration and Structure (16: p. 7).

Reliability of the LOQ. Reliability estimates reported by Fleishman for the Structure dimension, range from 0.67 to 0.88, with a median value of 0.795; and for the Consideration dimension, from 0.62 to 0.89, with a median value of 0.79. He states that the scales are independent of each other, and are not dependent on intelligence nor verbal ability (17: pp. 4-6).

Research using the LOQ. The instrument has been employed by Bass, in studies dealing with the prediction of success of production supervisors (3: p. 515). Litzinger has used the LOQ to compare leadership attitudes of managers in decentralized and centralized banks (31). At the University of Alberta, Girard has employed the instrument in an investigation of dual leadership in schools, comparing the attitudes to leadership exhibited by principals and vice-principals (18).

Use of the LOQ and LBDQ "Ideal" in the present study. Responses to the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire indicated perceptions of the leader behavior deemed appropriate by vice-principals and principals for their present roles as administrators. Teachers, however, responded to the LBDQ "Ideal," and assessed the appropriate behavior for the role of the teacher while acting as leader in the classroom setting. That is, judgments of the frequency with which the ideal

teacher should behave as described, provided a measure of the perceptions held by teachers of the leader behavior deemed appropriate for their present position.

IV. OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

- 1. An individual's perception of the leader behavior exhibited by the incumbent of a higher authority position, was defined operationally in two dimensions as follows: (a) the total score of his responses to the LBDQ Initiating Structure items, and (b) the total score of his responses to the LBDQ Consideration items, assigned in describing that incumbent's behavior.
- 2. A teacher's perception of the leader behavior deemed appropriate for the position presently occupied was defined operationally in two dimensions as follows: (a) the total score of his responses to the Initiating Structure items of the LBDQ Ideal Form, and (b) the total score of his responses to the Consideration items of the LBDQ Ideal Form, assigned in describing the behavior of the ideal teacher while acting as leader in the classroom setting.
- 3. A vice-principal's or principal's perception of the leader behavior deemed appropriate for the position presently occupied was defined operationally in two dimensions as follows: (a) the total score of his responses to the LOQ Structure items, and (b) the total score of his responses to the LOQ Consideration items, assigned while describing that behavior thought most desirable for the respondent in his present position as administrator.

- 4. An individual's level of promotional aspiration was defined operationally as the total score of his responses to the items of the Seeman Mobility Achievement Scale.
- 5. The measure of an individual's perception of the importance of deferring to superior authority, was defined operationally as the total score of his responses to those selected items from the MacKay-Miklos Role Orientations Scale, which involved the need for pursuing an autonomous "professional" course of action, even in the face of opposing demands, orders, regulations, or expectations from the superior authority.

V. INSTRUMENTATION--SUMMARY

Figure 2 below, shows in summary the instruments employed, the data gathered by the instruments, and the respondent groups for each instrument.

VI. DELIMITATIONS

The Population and School Size

Public schools in the nine school districts of Greater Vancouver, British Columbia, with a pupil enrolment of 400 or greater, comprised the population from which a sample was drawn.

The delimitation of school size to a pupil enrolment of 400 or more, resulted from the fact that vice-principals are not appointed until a school reaches this size, and the position of

Instrument	Data	Respondents
Personal and School Data Questionnaire	Biographical, personal and situational variables	Teachers, vice- principals and principals
Mobility Achieve- ment Scale	Level of promotional aspiration	Teachers, vice- principals, and principals
Role Orientations Questionnaire	Perceptions of the importance of deferring to superior authority	Teachers, vice- principals, and principals
LBDQ (1957)	Perceptions of leader behavior taking place in the next higher position	Teachers, vice- principals, and principals
LBDQ (1957) "Ideal" Form	Perceptions of appropriate behavior for the teacher while acting as leader in the classroom setting	Teachers
LOQ	Perceptions of appropriate behavior for the administrator in his present position	Vice-principals and principals

FIGURE 2
INSTRUMENTS, DATA REQUIRED AND RESPONDENT GROUPS

vice-principal is of central importance in a study of promotional aspirations.

There were a number of reasons for the choice of a single large metropolitan set of school districts as the population for the study. In a study by O'Brien, it was found that 78 per cent of school principals in British Columbia had been promoted to that position from within their own school systems, while 100 per cent of senior high school principalships had been filled from personnel within the system (38). Ellis, investigating the career mobility of principals, found that 98.8 per cent of a sample of 272 principals in large urban school systems of Western Canada had been appointed to their position from within the same school system (7). These two investigations, together with those of Enns (9), and Longmore (32), indicated that the career patterns of the majority of those promoted to administrative positions are centred on one school system.

Gross has suggested that promotional aspirations cause a desire to achieve visibility, resulting in differential role perceptions (22: p. 36). The relationship between promotional aspirations and differential perceptions of role would therefore be most appropriately studied where there is the greatest need to achieve visibility—in the urban school system, where, as Ellis and Enns point out, the growth of large organizations and a large force of teaching personnel have resulted in keen competition for the relatively small number of administrative positions available (8: p. 30).

The reward system, which acts as the intervening variable in an

interaction between the organization's codified behavior system, and the individual's personality, to produce a modified cognitive orientation to role (1: p. 7), is an important factor in any investigation of the relationship between promotional aspirations and role perception. For this reason also, the study was delimited to a single large metropolitan set of school districts. Because remoteness, lack of community facilities, and other factors may lower the attractiveness of administrative positions in smaller non-urban systems, resulting in lessened competition for appointment, there may be wide variability in the reward systems applying in different locations. Not only are there likely to be variations in salary allowances, facilities, and conditions, but differences may occur ·also in the qualifications demanded of prospective administrative appointees. Thus, locating the investigation in a single metropolitan set of school districts provided some measure of control over environmental and organizational differences, holding relatively constant a number of variables: promotional routes and conditions; incentives provided; requirements of qualifications and experience demanded for appointment to administrative positions; differing system size; differing geographical location; and differing educational philosophy. This same methodology of variable control was also employed by Lipham (30: p. 2), in his study of the personal variables exhibited by effective administrators. In this case, a single midwestern urban school system in the United States provided the population from which subjects for the investigation were selected.

The Greater Vancouver area is not a single uniform school system, but rather a large metropolitan grouping of nine closely related school districts, namely: Surrey, Delta, Richmond, Vancouver, New Westminster, Burnaby, Coquitlam, North Vancouver, and West Inquiries revealed however that these nine districts of the Greater Vancouver metropolitan area display only minor differences in philosophy, curricula, promotional requirements, and organizational conditions. The nine districts referred to above constitute the Metropolitan Branch of the B. C. School Trustees' Association, and their chief administrators comprise the Metropolitan Group of School Superintendents. For these reasons, it was considered legitimate to regard Greater Vancouver as a single composite metropolitan public school system, of which the nine school districts might be viewed as sub-systems, since considerable congruence of conditions and procedures exists, and considerable interchange of staff and ideas takes place between the districts. The selection of Greater Vancouver as the locale for the investigation provided a population sufficiently large, that subcategories of the sample would contain adequate numbers for meaningful analysis.

Delimitation of Variables and Relationships

The investigation was restricted to a study of the relationships existing between two major intra-organizational variables; promotional aspirations and role perception. In addition, an attempt was made to determine the mediating influence of a number of other selected variables, such as age, sex, and time in the present position,

as they interacted with this relationship. The existence of other possible variables, both intra-, and extra-organizational, which may operate to influence role perception is acknowledged. However, these were considered to be beyond the scope of the present study.

Role perception is itself a complex and multifaceted concept.

For the purposes of this study, it was delimited to the following four dimensions, which were singled out for examination: perception of leader behavior deemed appropriate for the position presently occupied; perception of leader behavior exhibited by the incumbent of the next higher position; perception of the importance of exhibiting deference to superior authority; and finally, the strength of promotional aspirations.

VII. SELECTION OF THE SAMPLE

The Potential Study Sample

The sample of schools investigated was a proportionally stratified random sample (12: p. 314), with school type the basis for the stratification. In constructing the sample, members were drawn at random from the various strata in such a way that the proportions in the strata of the sample were the same as the proportions in the strata of the population. The stratified random sample thus selected comprised a total of one hundred schools. Members of the sample were drawn through the use of a set of random numbers (52: p. 280).

Following the gaining of approval from the nine superintendents of the school districts concerned, letters were sent to the principals

terms of the proposed study, and requesting their co-operation, together with that of the vice-principal and teaching staff, in providing information by means of anonymous questionnaires. Stamped addressed response forms were made available for principals to indicate their willingness to participate in the study, together with the name of a selected test co-ordinator on the staff, who was to be responsible for the distribution and administration of the questionnaire, and the collection and return of I.B.M. answer sheets. Assurance was given that confidential reply envelopes for enclosing answer sheets were to be available for the use of each respondent. Copies of the letters used in seeking co-operation are included in Appendix A.

Although a minimum of four, and a maximum of ten respondents per school is usually required in LBDQ investigations (24: p. 2), principals and co-ordinators were requested to seek the maximum possible staff involvement. In this study, the intention was not to sum individual perceptions of leadership to form a global staff score. Instead, the focus was upon the individual respondent's perceptions of leader behavior, and the relationship which these held with the promotional aspirations possessed by the respondent.

The Experimental Sample

After a period of five weeks had elapsed, schools that had not replied to the initial letter requesting co-operation were contacted once again, and a second attempt made to gain their agreement to

participate. Few, if any, samples where respondents are included voluntarily can be truly random in terms of the strictest procedures demanded for rigorous inference. It is probable that this investigation is no exception. Some schools refused to participate in the study, while others failed to reply to the initial letter requesting co-operation. By sending follow-up letters in a second approach aimed at gaining co-operation, an attempt was thus made to ensure a degree of participation as close to the maximum as possible, thereby reducing the possibility of bias in the experimental sample. In addition, in cases where gross incompleteness of returns was evident, responses from such schools were disregarded, to avoid possibilities of bias. To this end, any school with less than 60 per cent of the total staff returning questionnaires was discarded from the sample. Following the dispatch of the questionnaire to schools that had agreed to participate, a cut-off date of six weeks from the time of mailing was set. Any returns received after this time were also discarded.

The reduction of the potential study sample of one hundred schools, to the final experimental sample of seventy-one schools, is outlined in Table I below.

Representativeness of the Sample

In order to test whether the experimental sample adequately represented the population, a chi square test of proportions was applied (52: p. 84). The results of this test are indicated in Table II below.

TABLE I DEVELOPMENT OF THE EXPERIMENTAL SAMPLE

(a)	Number of schools in proportionally stratified random sample
(b)	Number of schools which initially agreed to participate in the study
(c)	Number of schools which refused to participate in the study
(d)	Number of schools which did not reply to letter seeking co-operation
(e)	Number of schools from (c) and (d) above, responding favorably to the second follow-up approach 0
(f)	Number of schools which later reversed their original decision to participate
(g)	Number of schools which did not return questionnaire answer sheets
(h)	Number of schools discarded from sample because of incompleteness of returns
(i)	Number of schools discarded from sample because of late return of answer sheets
	Net total for Experimental Sample, and percentage response

95

TABLE II REPRESENTATIVENESS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL SAMPLE

Type of School	Number in Type of School Study Population	Percentage of Study Population (E)	Number in Experimental Sample	Percentage of Experimental Sample (0)	$\frac{(0-E)^2}{E}$
Elementary Senior Sec.	4	1.65%	-	1.41%	.03
Elementary Junior Sec.	4	1.65%	_	1.41%	.03
Elementary	173	71.19%	50	70.42%	٠٥٠
Junior Secondary	24	88.6	10	14.08%	1.78
Senior Secondary	10	4.11%	က	4.23%	.003
Secondary	28	11.52%	9	8.45%	*85
Total	243	%00L	7.1	100%	2.673
Degrees of freedom = 5.	.dom = 5.				

Since the calculated value of chi square was less than the critical value at the .05 level of significance, the null hypothesis $H_0:0=E$ was accepted. Thus, the experimental sample did not demonstrate any significant difference from the population proportions, and could therefore be regarded as representative.

Treatment of Incomplete Questionnaires

Returned answer sheets were inspected for incompleteness of response. Any sheet with five or more items not completed was discarded. In the case of answer sheets with four or fewer items unanswered, the median response was entered by the investigator. This approach is suggested by Moser (35: p. 270), as prevailing practice in social science research. One hundred and eight answer sheets were discarded because of incomplete response.

VIII. LIMITATIONS

The delimitation of the study to a single large metropolitan set of school districts, which was required in order to control the effects of possible contaminating variables, necessarily limited to some extent the generalizability of the findings. In view of the continuing trend for the majority of Canadians to live or receive their education in urban centres, restriction of this generalizability may be less important than would at first seem apparent. However, if the conditions of rigorous statistical inference are to be applied, generalizations that are drawn from this study should be limited to the population from which the sample was drawn, or with caution, to

school systems and urban areas with parameters similar to those of Greater Vancouver.

IX. SUMMARY OF CHAPTER IV

This chapter explained the design of the study and the research strategies employed. Assumptions relating to the use of questionnaire methods for data collection, to the instruments selected, and to the statistical tests were acknowledged, and the data required were delineated. The instrumentation used in the investigation was described, with reference to the development, purpose, validity, reliability, and previous use of each test. Criticisms applying to the instruments were also considered. A description of data collection methods was then provided, and the reduction of the potential study sample to the final experimental sample was discussed. The representativeness of the sample was confirmed, and limitations applicable to the study were indicated.

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CHAPTER V

ORGANIZATION OF DATA AND STATISTICAL PROCEDURES

This study was based on the premise that differing levels of promotional aspiration and hierarchical position are associated with differing perceptions of behavior, which could be tested statistically. The present chapter outlines the methods of data organization and the statistical techniques that were employed to test the hypotheses.

I. PREPARATION OF COMPUTER CARDS

Completed I.B.M. answer sheets were processed by an optical scoring machine, and a punched card output was obtained. From these cards, a research data deck was generated, by means of a scoring and conversion program written by Mr. K. Bay, of the Division of Educational Research, University of Alberta. The punched cards in the data deck were encoded with the following information: details of personal and school variables; and scores for mobility orientations, deference to superior authority, LBDQ Initiating Structure, LBDQ Consideration, LBDQ (Ideal) Initiating Structure, LBDQ (Ideal) Consideration, LOQ Structure, and LOQ Consideration.

Existing computer programs were used in the analysis of the data. Modifications, where necessary, were made by Mr. Dan Precht of the Division of Educational Research.

II. STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES EMPLOYED

The statistical methods most frequently used to investigate the

relationships proposed in this study were t-tests of the significance of difference between means; Multiple Linear Regression Analysis; One-way Analysis of Variance; and the Newman-Keuls Test of Ordered Means. A brief description of each technique in turn is supplied below.

The t-Test

The parametric t-test (3: p. 168) was selected to test those hypotheses dealing with the relationship between hierarchical level occupied and perceptions of role behavior, because it was considered that the assumptions of the t-test were adequately met. Use of the t-test is based on two important assumptions. Firstly, the distributions of the variables in the populations from which the samples are drawn are assumed to be normal. Secondly, the population variances are assumed to be equal. With regard to the first assumption, examination of the distribution of the variables in the population from which the samples were drawn disclosed no gross departures from normality. In addition, the large sample sizes of 132 administrators and 1,069 teachers would operate to reduce any possible effects of non-normal population distributions if they did exist. As Ferguson points out:

Under certain conditions the sampling distribution of means of size N, where N is large, is closely approximated by the normal distribution. This result holds regardless of the shape of the distribution in the population from which the samples are drawn. The closeness of the approximation improves as N becomes increasingly large. The implication of this is that for large samples the non-normality of the population will not seriously affect the estimation of probabilities, except perhaps in cases of very extreme skewness (3: p. 173).

The second assumption, regarding homogeneity of variance, was met by the use of a program which computed variances, and applied the

Welch t-prime test (8: pp. 37-38), wherever variances were shown to be unequal. The Welch modification is a method of testing the significance of difference between means, when the variances are not homogeneous. This test makes an adjustment in the number of degrees of freedom, and so provides a correction in the t-test results.

Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

The Multiple Linear Regression technique was employed to determine whether significant differences existed between groups divided according to some predictor variable such as level of promotional aspiration, in terms of their scores in some criterion variable, such as LBDQ Initiating Structure.

Multiple Linear Regression is a powerful but conceptually simple approach involving vector operations, and therefore well suited to computer capabilities. Developed by Bottenberg and Ward (1), it is based on the use of linear combinations of sets of vectors to construct regression models, the general approach being to express a vector of the criterion variable as a linear combination of a set of predictor variable vectors. Assumptions underlying the Multiple Linear Regression approach are less restrictive than those of the more traditional models: for example, predictor variables are not assumed to come from multivariate normal distributions. Multiple Linear Regression analysis may be employed in hypothesis testing, by comparing the relative effectiveness of two statistical models in expressing the functional relationship existing between a criterion variable and one or more predictor variables. The basis of the Multiple Linear Regression technique is

the determination whether or not a critical variable reduces the criterion error sum of squares significantly, when added to a linear expression. For example, if school personnel are classified in groups according to their level of promotional aspirations, two statistical models may be constructed for predicting perceptions of leader behavior. In one model, the existence of groups categorized according to promotional aspiration is considered, while in the second model the existence of such groupings is ignored. If there is a significant increase in the error sums of squares from Model 1 to Model 2, it may be concluded that knowledge of group membership in terms of promotional aspiration is a significant factor in predicting perceptions of leader behavior.

Putting this another way; the groups, classified in terms of the predictor variable, level of promotional aspirations, display significant differences in their mean scores of the criterion variable, perceptions of leader behavior.

Several researchers in Educational Administration at the University of Alberta have employed Multiple Linear Regression Analysis in their investigations. The models used in this study were similar to those devised by O'Reilly (6), Eddy (2), and Wilson (7), in their use of additional vectors, included as simultaneous controls on a number of variables.

An example of Multiple Linear Regression, demonstrating the construction of the statistical vector models used for comparing error sums of squares is set out below.

INPUT VARIABLES

	Variable Type	<u>Card Location</u>	<u>Variable</u> <u>Symbol</u>
Criterion:	LOQ Initiating Structure	Col. 34-35	x12
Predictor:	Mobility Orientation	Col. 23-24	x11
Controls:	Sex Academic Training Teaching Level Age Marital Status Experience Desire for Promotion No. of Years in Position Type of School Size of School	Col. 7 Col. 9 Col. 10 Col. 11 Col. 12 Col. 13 Col. 14 Col. 15 Col. 16 Col. 16	x1 x2 x3 x4 x5 x6 x7 x8 x9 x10

GENERATED VARIABLES

Predictor x₁₁ Mobility) generates x₁₃, x₁₄, and x₁₅.

Vectors x_{13} , x_{14} and x_{15} are categorical vectors of ones and zeros, representing group membership, where those with high scores are in x_{13} , those with medium scores are in x_{14} , and those with low scores in x_{15} .

MODEL ONE (The Unrestricted Model)

 $x_{12} = k + w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + w_3x_3 + w_4x_4 + w_5x_5 + w_6x_6 + w_7x_7 + w_8x_8 + w_9x_9 + w_{10}x_{10} + w_{13}x_{13} + w_{14}x_{14} + w_{15}x_{15} + e_1$

where x_{12} is the vector of criterion variable data--LOQ scores of perceived leader behavior in Initiating Structure.

 x_1--x_{10} are vectors of control variable data.

x₁₃, x₁₄ and x₁₅ are categorical vectors of ones and zeros indicating membership in the classifications of the predictor variable--level of mobility orientation.

k is a constant.

 w_1--w_{10} are least squares weightings associated with the categorical vectors of the predictor variable.

e, is the error or residual vector.

MODEL TWO (The Restricted Model)

This model contains no information on group membership, with x_{16} a vector of ones, where all individuals have been placed in one group. It is assumed that mobility orientation has no effect—

Let
$$w_{13} = w_{14} = w_{15} = w$$

 $w_{13}x_{13} + w_{14}x_{14} + w_{15}x_{15} = w(x_{13} + x_{14} + x_{15})$
and let $(x_{13} + x_{14} + x_{15}) = x_{16}$

This results in the model:

$$x_{12} = k + w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + w_3x_3 + w_4x_4 + w_5x_5 + w_6x_6 + w_7x_7 + w_8x_8 + w_9x_9 + w_{10}x_{10} + w_{16} + e_2$$

In Model One (the general or unrestricted model) the predicted score for each individual will be the mean score for his membership group, while in Model Two (the restricted model), the predicted score will be the mean for the total group.

A significant increase in error sums of squares from Model One to Model Two indicates significant differences between group means. Thus, the significance of mobility orientation as a predictor, is determined by comparing the two models in terms of squared multiple correlation (\mathbb{R}^2), between predicted and observed criterion scores through the application of the F ratio formula:

$$F = \frac{(R_1^2 - R_2^2) / df_1}{1 - R_1^2 / df_2}$$

The significance of the other variables as predictors can be likewise determined by excluding each in turn from the restricted model.

Although the Multiple Linear Regression technique is a highly robust statistical measure, at this stage of its development it can do no more than determine whether or not significant differences exist between groups. As yet, there is no follow-up test to determine the origin of the difference from among the predictor variable groupings. For this reason, it was decided to test the same sets of variable groupings by means of a computer program incorporating One-way Analysis of Variance, and the Newman-Keuls Test of Ordered Means, in order to determine direction, wherever a statistically significant difference had been previously indicated by Multiple Linear Regression. In addition, the Analysis of Variance results were used as a check upon the reasonableness of the Multiple Linear Regression output from the computer.

One-way Analysis of Variance

Analysis of Variance, like Multiple Linear Regression Analysis, tests the significance of difference between means (3: p. 281). However, unlike Multiple Linear Regression, it is possible to extend the analysis, through a Newman-Keuls Comparison of Ordered Means, to determine the origin of the difference. For this reason, a program comprising One-way Analysis of Variance, a test for homogeneity of variance, and a Newman-Keuls Comparison of Ordered Means was selected.

There are usually four stated requirements underlying an

analysis of variance: there should be random sampling; observations within groups should be normally distributed; contributions to total variance must be additive; and the variances within groups should be approximately equal (4: p. 274). However, there is fairly widespread agreement among statisticians that the Analysis of Variance, or F test, is quite robust. Winer states, for example: ". . . F tests are robust with respect to departures from homogeneity of variance" (8: p. 93). Similarly, Guilford reports that the F test can accommodate large differences in variance, and that even when departures from homogeneity are gross, one can still proceed with analysis of variance, but should then discount levels of significance somewhat (4: p. 274).

Confidence that the use of Analysis of Variance would be appropriate for the purposes of the present investigation was supported by the following statement from Ferguson:

With most sets of real data the assumptions underlying the Analysis of Variance are, at best, only roughly satisfied. The raw data of experiments frequently do not exhibit the characteristics which the mathematical models require. One advantage of the analysis of variance is that reasonable departures from the assumptions of normality and homogeneity may occur without seriously affecting the validity of the inferences drawn from the data (3: p. 295).

For all analyses of variance, the Keeping test for homogeneity of variance was applied (5: p. 214). The results of these tests indicated that in most cases homogeneity requirements were met, and in those instances where the criterion was exceeded, deviations from homogeneity were generally not extreme, and the probability levels indicated were sufficiently high to ensure significance, even when discounted in accordance with the Guilford suggestion cited above.

Examination of the population distributions disclosed no serious departures from normality.

The Newman-Keuls Test

The procedure involved in the Newman-Keuls test (8: p. 80) is an ordering of means, followed by the separate comparison of each pair of these ordered means, to yield a q_r statistic based on the group mean values, the ordered position of the means, the total number of groups, and the numbers within each group. If the calculated value of the q_r statistic exceeds the critical value, then the two means being compared are significantly different.

III. LEVELS OF SIGNIFICANCE

Throughout the analysis, the 0.05 level of confidence was established for rejection of the null hypothesis. In those instances where the null hypotheses were rejected at this level, the actual level of probability has been reported. Although this was not absolutely necessary, it provided a more accurate picture of the significance test results, than mere rejection on the basis of the 0.05 criterion.

IV. TESTS OF VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

A randomly drawn ten per cent subsample of eight schools was selected; and teachers, vice-principals, and principals were asked to respond to the instruments a second time one month after their initial application, so that test-retest reliabilities might be computed.

In addition, principals in the subsample were asked to rate the

orientations towards promotional mobility, and the attitudes towards superior authority, exhibited by their subordinates. It was hoped that the extent of the agreement of principals' judgments with the perceptions indicated in questionnaire responses would provide further evidence of the validity of the instruments used to measure promotional aspirations and deference to superior authority.

The results of the initial approach were most disappointing, yielding in every instance, a negative reply to the request for further co-operation. On the assumption that granting approval for participation in a second response to the questionnaire, together with the provision of extra information, involving additional time and effort, would require a certain type of school principal, who demonstrated above-average interest in research and an understanding of its demands, an attempt was made to limit requests for a second response to principals reputed to be of this type.

Accordingly, advice was sought from a colleague in an administrative position with one of the school districts, regarding suitable individuals who might be expected to respond favorably to a second request for co-operation. In this way, a list of fifteen names was provided—all of whom were elementary principals in two of the nine districts of Greater Vancouver. A random sampling of eight names was drawn and these principals were initially contacted by letter. (See Appendix A for copy of this letter.) In this case, one hundred per cent response resulted, and personal interviews were carried out with each of the principals who agreed to co-operate. However, although detailed

instructions had been provided, in the case of four schools there was insufficient identification on the returned envelopes containing the answer sheets, thus making it impossible to match adequately pairs of responses from the one person, or to match the principal's rating with the answer sheet of the individual under consideration. As a result, the net sub-sample was four schools, or five per cent of the total sample. It could not be claimed as a random sub-sample in the strictest sense, nor could it be considered representative, but it did provide some limited evidence on the construct validity and stability of the instruments used.

The extent of test-retest stability was established through the calculation of a Pearson Product-Moment Correlation (3: p. 106) of first and second responses to each of the instruments comprising the composite questionnaire, while a Spearman Rank Correlation test (3: p. 216) was employed to investigate the construct validity of the Mobility Achievement Scale and the Role Orientations Scale. Results of these tests of validity and reliability have been presented in Chapter VII.

V. SUMMARY OF CHAPTER V

This chapter reported the methods of data organization; such as optical scoring of answer sheets, the preparation of generated computer cards, and the details of data recorded on the research deck. A brief description was provided of each of the statistical techniques that were most frequently used to test the hypotheses. These were the t-test, Welch's t-Prime Test, Multiple Linear Regression Analysis,

One-way Analysis of Variance, and Newman-Keuls Comparison of Ordered Means. Assumptions underlying the use of these tests and their consequent appropriateness for the present study were considered. An account was given of the follow-up techniques employed to test construct validity and stability, and the methods used in gaining the sub-sample for this purpose were outlined.

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CHAPTER VI

FINDINGS, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION: DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES;

TESTS OF INSTRUMENT RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY;

ROLE PERCEPTIONS AND HIERARCHICAL LEVEL

I. INTRODUCTION

This chapter first presents an analysis and discussion of the demographic variables relating to the respondents in the sample drawn for the study, after which the results of tests to determine instrument validity and reliability are reported. Then the findings are presented for the first six hypotheses set out for study, all of which involved the generally-held role perceptions at each hierarchical level, both for the position presently occupied by respondents, and for the position immediately higher. For ease of reference, the relevant research problems and their derived hypotheses are restated, following which the results of the tests for each hypothesis are provided, together with a brief discussion of the findings.

II. THE SAMPLE RESPONDENTS: DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Sixty-seven principals, sixty-five vice-principals, and 1,069 teachers from the representative sample of seventy-one schools drawn from the Greater Vancouver area provided usable responses to the questionnaires submitted by the investigator.

Information supplied by school principals in their co-operation response forms indicated that the seventy-one schools of the sample had

a total staff membership of seventy-one principals, seventy-five vice-principals, and 1,778 teachers. There was a 100 per cent response from administrators; while 1,163 teachers, or 65.4 per cent, submitted answer sheets. However, subsequent scrutiny of the answer sheets revealed that four from principals, ten from vice-principals, and ninety-four from teachers were unusable because of incompleteness of response. The resultant response proportions were as follows: principals 94.4 per cent, vice-principals 86.7 per cent, and teachers 61.1 per cent.

The demographic data, supplied in answers to the Personal and School Data Questionnaire, were analysed to present an overall view of the sample's characteristics, in the light of which findings might be interpreted and discussed. These data are summarized in Tables III and IV below.

Discussion of Sample Characteristics

Examination and analysis of the demographic data revealed a number of overall patterns which appeared to possess particular relevance for the hypotheses advanced in the study:

- 1. The large proportion of female teachers. (65.9 per cent of the teacher group, and 58.3 per cent of the total sample.)
- 2. The very small proportion of female administrators. (3.8 per cent of the administrator group, and 0.41 per cent of the total sample.)

This situation is consistent with the findings of McDonough, who surveyed all lower mainland school districts in British Columbia, and recorded that out of 250 principals, only five were women; and that only one vice-principalship in a total of 189 was occupied by a woman.

TABLE III

DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE BY POSITION, SEX, ACADEMIC TRAINING, TEACHING LEVEL, AGE AND MARITAL STATUS

	Tea N	Teachers N = 1069	Vice-Pr	Vice-Principals N = 65	Princ' N =	Principals N = 67
	Male (365)	Female (704)	Male (64)	Male (64) Female (1)	Male (63)	Female (4)
ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL TRAINING 1. No university degree 2. One bachelor's degree 3. One bachelor's degree and diploma 4. Two or more bachelor's degrees 5. Master's degree or higher	92 92 100 36 45	371 158 151 15	4 17 18 9 16	00-00	0 7 11 21 24	2 0 1 0 1
TEACHING LEVEL 1. Elementary 2. Junior Secondary 3. Senior Secondary	124 112 129	533 106 65	43 10 11	-00	44 13 6	400
AGE 1. 25 or less 2. 26 to 35 years 3. 36 to 45 years 4. 46 to 55 years 5. 56 years and over	46 161 94 54 10	248 171 142 86 57	21 28 13 2	0000-	0 2 27 23 11	00000
MARITAL STATUS 1. Single 2. Married 3. Other	70 283 12	216 404 84	5 2 2	00-	56 3	1 1

TABLE IV

DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE BY POSITION, SEX, TEACHING EXPERIENCE, DESIRE FOR PROMOTION, YEARS IN PRESENT POSITION, TYPE OF SCHOOL AND SIZE OF SCHOOL

Principals N = 67	(1) Male (63) Female (4)		0	19 2	40		17 9 6 1		11 2 6 0		12 0 4 0 4 0
Vice-Principals N = 65	Male (64) Female			iec 00-			000		10 4 7		3 0 0 7
Teachers N = 1069	5) Female (704)	303	163 145	67	154 550	379 150	96 31 48	531	81 39 45	325 224	54 41 60
	Male (365)	134	111	27.9	226		24 13	121	98 75 66	71	74 74 40 85
		TEACHING EXPERIENCE	2. 6 to 10 years	3. II to 20 years 4. 21 to 30 years	~	NUMBER OF YEARS IN PRESENT POSITION 1. 1 to 5 years 2. 6 to 10 years	 11 to 15 years 16 to 20 years 21 years or more 	TYPE OF SCHOOL 1. Elementary	2. Elementary-bunner secondary3. Junior Secondary4. Senior Secondary5. Secondary	SIZE OF SCHOOL 1. 1-20 teachers	3. 31-40 teachers 4. 41-50 teachers 5. 51 or more teachers

Although no written policy discriminating against women in administrative appointments was found to operate, the researcher nevertheless came to the conclusion that "it was the educational establishment that refused to grant women positions of authority and responsibility in public schools" (5: p. 356).

3. The unexpectedly large proportion of women who desire promotion. (21.9 per cent of the women teachers and four of the five women in the small group of female administrators.)

It is frequently argued that women do not desire promotion, being conscious of the still powerful traditional prejudices that impede their appointment to administrative positions, and restrict their promotional aspirations. The finding presented here would seem either to conflict with, or represent a new trend in women's thinking away from the situation reported in 1958 by Martin:

- ... one of the reasons for the dearth of women in these (administrative) positions is that they themselves do not desire such promotion (4: p. 82).
- 4. The large proportion of vice-principals who desired promotion. (89.2 per cent of the vice-principal group.)

This result is consistent with Longmore's findings that 91 per cent of a sample of British Columbia elementary school vice-principals, and 71 per cent of a sample of secondary vice-principals were seeking promotion (3: p. 88).

5. The large proportion of principals who were seeking promotion. (55 per cent of the principal group.)

With such a high proportion of administrators desirous of further promotion, (71.9 per cent of the administrator group in the

sample), it is obvious that considerable competition exists for appointment to the limited number of positions available. The same situation applies in the teacher group, where 35.6 per cent of the total sample seek promotion. Gaining the necessary visibility thus becomes a prime concern for the upwardly aspiring individual.

- 6. The large proportion of young persons in the sample. (24.5 per cent of the total sample were less than twenty-five years of age, and 54 per cent were less than thirty-five years of age.)
- 7. The large proportion of persons who had spent only a brief time in their present position. (52.5 per cent of the total sample had, spent less than five years.)

III. FINDINGS: TESTS OF RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

Test stability of the instruments employed in the study was determined by means of a test-retest situation. One month after the initial response to the questionnaires, personnel in eight schools answered the questions a second time. Usable data were obtained from four schools only; in the case of the other four, response envelopes were not identified in accordance with instructions, and matching of first and second responses from individual respondents was therefore not possible. Similarity in the personal data sections of several answer sheets rendered matching by comparison impracticable.

Validity of the Mobility Achievement Scale and the scale for Deference was tested by comparing the scale scores gained by teacher respondents, with principals' judgments of their levels of promotional aspiration and deference to superior authority. As in the stability

test, data from only four schools were usable, due to the lack of sufficient identification for matching of scores and ratings.

Test stability was measured by calculating the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation coefficient for first and second scores of each respondent; while a Spearman Rank Order Correlation Test, with adjustment for tied pairs, constituted the statistical test of agreement used in checking validity.

The results yielded by these tests are set out in Table V.

TABLE V
RESULTS OF RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY TESTS

retest results)
Pearson "r"*
0.766 0.859 0.791 0.739 0.736 0.830
omparison)
Spearman "rho"*
0.857 0.783

^{*}All results were found to be significant beyond the .001 level for a one-tailed test.

These figures indicate a moderately satisfactory degree of

association between ratings and scores, and between first and second test results, accounting for between fifty-three and seventy-two per cent of variance.

An explanation for the level of the relationships revealed is likely to be found in the fact that the co-operation of teachers was obviously lower in the second test situation than in the first. Some respondents pointed out that their second set of answers to the questions had been compiled in great haste, at a time of end-of-term examination pressures. In addition, the number of teachers in the four subsample schools responding a second time was forty-five, as compared with sixty-eight in the first response--a reduction of over 30 per cent. Scrutiny of the answer sheets also revealed a number of careless entries in the personal data sections, with some inconsistency evident between first and second responses. One of the four principals when interviewed, expressed some doubt about the value of his judgments, confessing that he did not really know his staff well.

In view of these factors and their probable effect upon the correlations involved, it appears reasonable to suggest that higher figures for reliability and validity might well have been obtained under improved retesting situations.

IV. ANALYSIS OF SUB-PROBLEM I

The first research problem concerned the relationship existing between the type of position held, and the relative emphasis on the leader behavior dimensions of Initiating Structure and Consideration, perceived as appropriate for the position presently occupied. By

reference to available theory and evidence, five research hypotheses were generated from this sub-problem. The findings for each hypothesis are presented in turn below.

Findings for Hypothesis 1.1

Research Hypothesis 1.1. Teachers will perceive significantly lower frequencies of Initiating Structure, as appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied, than will administrative personnel.

This hypothesis was designed to determine whether significant differences existed between teachers and administrative personnel, in their perceptions of the appropriate emphasis in leader behavior on the Initiating Structure dimension. To test for differences, the mean score of 1,069 teachers was compared with the mean score of 132 administrators. The significance of differences was obtained by a t-test for independent samples, through a computer program which made additional provision for the more rigorous Welch t-prime test, in which the degrees of freedom are considerably adjusted where necessary, to meet any possible criticism related to the population variance assumption.

Significant differences were found, and in the predicted direction. Teachers perceived as appropriate leader behavior a significantly lower frequency of Initiating Structure activities than did administrative personnel, and Research Hypothesis 1.1 was thus confirmed.

Table VI presents the results of the analysis; for both the unmodified t-test and the Welch t-prime adjustment. In all analyses which follow, t-prime data have been reported only in those cases where a lack of homogeneity of variance demanded a modification in the degrees of freedom.

TABLE VI

MEAN SCORES FOR LEADER BEHAVIOR PERCEIVED APPROPRIATE FOR PRESENT POSITION, AND SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS

(N = 1201; 1069 teachers and 132 administrators)

	Teachers' Mean Score	Administrators' Mean Score	S.D.1	S.D. ₁ S.D. ₂ d.f.	d.f.	4	P(one-tail)
Initiating Structure	45.34	48.58	5.58	12.49 1199	1199	-5.252	-5.252 beyond .001 level
Consideration	44.40	51.75	5.25	9.33	1199	-13.634	9.33 1199 -13.634 beyond .001 level
	-51	Welch t-prime approximation on variables	oximati	on on v	ariabl	SE	
		d.f.	+1	t-prime			P(one-tail)
Initiating Structure		137.52		2.95			.005 level
Consideration		141.39		8.87			beyond .001 level

Findings for Hypothesis 1.2

Research Hypothesis 1.2. Teachers will perceive significantly higher frequencies of Consideration, as appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied, than will administrative personnel.

This hypothesis was designed to determine whether significant differences existed between teachers and administrators, in their perceptions of the appropriate emphasis in their leader behavior on Consideration activities. It was hypothesized that teachers would perceive a significantly higher frequency of Consideration behaviors as appropriate leader behavior, than would administrators. Differences in mean scores were tested for significance using a t-test with Welch t-prime modification.

Highly significant differences between the two groups were disclosed by the analysis, but in the reverse direction from that which was predicted. The teacher group had a significantly lower mean score for perception of the appropriate frequency for Consideration activities than did the administrators (Table VI). Research Hypothesis 1.2 was therefore not confirmed.

Findings for Hypothesis 1.3

Research Hypothesis 1.3. Teachers will perceive significantly higher frequencies of Consideration, as compared with Initiating Structure, as appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied.

This hypothesis suggested that teachers would emphasize Consideration activities in their perceptions of appropriate leader behavior for the classroom. To test for significance of difference, the

scores for 1,069 teachers on each of the two leader behavior dimensions were analysed with a correlated t-test computer program. Highly significant differences were again revealed, but once more in the reverse direction from that which was predicted. The teacher group had a significantly lower mean score for perceptions of the appropriate frequencies for Consideration behaviors, than for Initiating Structure behaviors (Table VII). Research Hypothesis 1.3 was not confirmed.

Findings for Hypothesis 1.4

Research Hypothesis 1.4. Administrative personnel will perceive significantly higher frequencies of Initiating Structure, as compared with Consideration, as appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied.

This hypothesis proposed that administrators would place a relative emphasis on Initiating Structure, rather than Consideration, in their perceptions of appropriate role behavior for the position presently occupied. A correlated t-test demonstrated a significant difference between administrators' mean scores in their perceptions of appropriate emphasis on these two leader behavior dimensions, but once more the difference disclosed was in the reverse direction from that which was predicted. As appropriate leader behavior for their present positions, administrators perceived a higher frequency of Consideration behaviors than Initiating Structure activities. (See Table VIII). Research Hypothesis 1.4 was therefore not confirmed.

Findings for Hypothesis 1.5

Research Hypothesis 1.5. There will be no significant difference between principals and vice-principals in their perceptions of the

TABLE VII

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN TEACHERS' MEAN SCORES FOR INITIATING STRUCTURE AND CONSIDERATION, PERCEIVED APPROPRIATE FOR PRESENT POSITION

(N = 1069 teachers)

Mean Score Initiating Structure	Mean Score Considera- tion	s.D. ₁	S.D. ₂	d.f.	t	P (one-tail)
45.323	44.410	5.573	5.248	1067	4.436	beyond .001 level

TABLE VIII

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN ADMINISTRATORS' MEAN SCORES FOR INITIATING STRUCTURE AND CONSIDERATION, PERCEIVED APPROPRIATE FOR PRESENT POSITION

(N = 132 administrators)

Mean Score Initiating Structure	Mean Score Considera- tion	s.D. ₁	S.D. ₂	d.f.	t	P (one-tail)
48.652	51.750	12.486	9.335	130	-1.739	.05 level

frequencies of Initiating Structure and Consideration deemed as appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied.

This null hypothesis proposed that principals and vice-principals would possess similar role perceptions, in describing the appropriate frequencies of Initiating Structure and Consideration activities for the position presently occupied. For both leader behavior dimensions, no significant difference emerged in the mean scores for vice-principals as compared with principals. (See Table IX). The null hypothesis was accepted in both cases, and Research Hypothesis 1.5 was accepted. A follow-up analysis was then carried out, to determine whether any difference existed between male and female administrators in their perceptions of appropriate role behavior. No significant differences were revealed in either the Initiating Structure or Consideration dimension of leader behavior between male and female administrators. (See Appendix C for details of all supplementary analyses).

Sub-problem 1: Summary of Results

The findings related to the five hypotheses generated from the first sub-problem are summarized in Table X.

Discussion of Findings: Sub-problem 1

Although it had been proposed that teachers would perceive a significantly higher frequency of Consideration, compared with Initiating Structure, as appropriate leader behavior for their present position, (Hypothesis 1.3), the data did not support this hypothesis. Significant differences were found to exist between the mean frequencies of behaviors deemed appropriate in the two leader behavior dimensions,

TABLE IX

MEAN SCORES FOR LEADER BEHAVIOR PERCEIVED APPROPRIATE FOR PRESENT POSITION, AND SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN VICE-PRINCIPALS AND PRINCIPALS

(N = 132; 65 vice-principals, and 67 principals)

	Vice-principals' Mean Score	Principals' Mean Score	S.D. ₁ S.D. ₂ d.f.	S.D.2	d.f.	ų	P(two-tail)
Initiating Structure	48.37	48.93	12.85	12.85 12.12 130	130	-0.254	N.S.
Consideration	62.11	51.40	8.73	8.73 9.87 130	130	0.431	N.S.

TABLE X

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS: SUB-PROBLEM I HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis	Result	Significance Level	Direction	Confirmation of hypothesis
<u></u>	Teachers' Mean appropriate I.S. score significantly lower than administrators' mean I.S. score	.005 level	predicted	yes
3 :	Teachers' mean appropriate Consideration score significantly lower than adminis- trators' mean Consideration score	beyond .001 level	reversed	ou
1.3	Teachers' mean appropriate Consideration score significantly lower than teachers' mean I.S. score	beyond .001 level	reversed	ou Ou
1.4	Administrators' mean appropriate I.S. score significantly lower than adminis- trators' mean Consideration score	.05 level	reversed	ou U
1.5	No significant difference in mean I.S. scores and mean Consideration scores between vice-principals and principals	N.S.	predicted	yes

but the direction of the relationship was the reverse of that predicted. A likely explanation for this outcome was the high proportion of women in the teacher group (65.9 per cent). In a six-year study of teacher characteristics, Ryans reported, on the basis of Teacher Characteristics Inventory Scores, that men scored higher than women on attitudes toward democratic pupil practices and permissive child-centred educational philosophies, while women scored significantly higher on the scale which measured responsible, systematic, and business-like classroom behavior (7: pp. 296-298). Since the latter type of behavior is closely akin to the Initiating Structure activities, the large numbers of women in the sample teacher group would be likely to shift the overall emphasis in perception of appropriate leader behavior to the Initiating Structure dimension. To test the validity of this speculation, a follow-up analysis was then undertaken, to determine whether a difference existed between female and male teachers in their perceptions of the appropriate frequencies of Initiating Structure for classroom leader behavior. This analysis revealed that female teachers perceived a significantly higher frequency of Initiating Structure behaviors to be appropriate than did male teachers. (See Appendix C). In view of the fact that 75.4 per cent of the female teachers occupied positions in elementary schools, and 81.4 per cent of all elementary teaching positions were filled by women, these findings throw into question the commonly held view that "pupil-orientation" (with an emphasis on Consideration-type behaviors) is the predominant attitude of elementary school teachers, while "discipline-orientation" (involving more Structure) is the mark of those who teach in secondary schools.

Hypotheses 1.2 and 1.4 also revealed significant differences, but in the opposite direction from that which was proposed. It was argued that the overall administrator group would perceive a lower frequency of Consideration behaviors to be appropriate than would the teacher group, and that they would also score significantly higher in their perception of Initiating Structure behaviors as compared with Consideration, in assessing the appropriate leader behavior for their present positions. The reason for the disclosed administrative emphasis upon Consideration as appropriate leader behavior, probably lies in the fact that it was "ideal" behavior that was being assessed. The dayto-day realistic demands of the present administrative situation include so much organizing, managing, and other activities of the Initiating Structure type, that these behaviors are likely to become dominant in the administrator's self-perception of role, constituting a set of prevailing expectations from which he cannot escape. However, influenced by numerous and frequent presentations of the point of view that the principalship is moving towards a new concept involving greater educational leadership, collegial interaction with teachers, and extended concern for people rather than systems, the administrator is likely in this dimension of behavior, to give freer rein to his dreams of what might be.

The analyses of data undertaken in testing Research Hypotheses
1.1 and 1.2 disclosed that the administrative group, when compared with
teachers, perceived significantly higher frequencies of both Initiating
Structure and Consideration as appropriate leader behavior. These
findings suggest that the leadership demands of the administrative

position are significantly different from those of the teaching role. The likely explanation is that the administrative position, where leadership of both adult and child groups is called for, requires a higher frequency of leader acts than the teaching role, where leader behaviors are directed mainly at the pupils.

Throughout the findings reported, a consistent pattern emerged: administrators are a very different group from teachers. In their perceptions of appropriate leader behavior, their perspectives are significantly different from those of teachers, and they place emphasis on different aspects of leader behavior. Though administrators as a group are different from teachers in their perceptions of appropriate leader behavior, the sub-sets of the administrator group--principals and vice-principals, females and males, are very much alike in their general perceptions of role behavior.

V. ANALYSIS OF SUB-PROBLEM 2

The second research problem was concerned with subordinates' perceptions of the actual leader behavior displayed by their immediate superiors, who occupied the next higher position for which promotional aspirations might be held. In the light of theory relating to perceptual accuracy and trait visibility, the following research hypothesis was generated from the sub-problem:

Research Hypothesis 2. Subordinates will perceive significantly higher frequencies of Initiating Structure, as compared with Consideration, when describing the leader behavior of their immediate superiors.

For purposes of analysis, this broadly defined hypothesis was

further resolved into four more specific hypotheses, in terms of the positions under examination.

Findings for Hypothesis 2.1

Research Hypothesis 2.1. Teachers will perceive significantly higher frequencies of Initiating Structure, as compared with Consideration, when describing the leader behavior exhibited by vice-principals.

This hypothesis proposed that teachers' perceptions of the actual leader behavior of vice-principals would emphasize the Initiating Structure dimension. Differences in mean scores were tested for significance through a correlated t-test analysis. A highly significant result was obtained, but in the reverse direction from that which was predicted (Table XI). Research Hypothesis 2.1 was not confirmed.

Findings for Hypothesis 2.2

Research Hypothesis 2.2. Vice-principals will perceive significantly higher frequencies of Initiating Structure, as compared with Consideration, when describing the leader behavior exhibited by principals.

When the data were analysed, the predicted direction of difference was revealed, but the t value was insufficiently high to provide significance at the .05 level. (See Table XII). Research Hypothesis 2.2 was rejected, and the null hypothesis accepted.

Findings for Hypothesis 2.3

Research Hypothesis 2.3. Principals will perceive significantly higher frequencies of Initiating Structure, as compared with Consideration, when describing the leader behavior exhibited by their immediate superiors.

In this case, the predicted difference was confirmed, at a high

TABLE XI
SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN TEACHERS' MEAN SCORES FOR INITIATING

STRUCTURE AND CONSIDERATION DIMENSIONS OF VICE-PRINCIPALS' LEADER BEHAVIOR

(N = 1069 teachers)

Mean Score Initiating Structure	Mean Score Considera- tion	s.D. ₁	s.D. ₂	d.f.	t	P (one-tail)
35.972	44.086	8.469	8.703	1067	-26.943	beyond .001 level

TABLE XII

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN VICE-PRINCIPALS' MEAN SCORES FOR INITIATING STRUCTURE AND CONSIDERATION DIMENSIONS OF PRINCIPALS' LEADER BEHAVIOR

(N = 65 vice-principals)

Mean Score Initiating Structure	Mean Score Considera- tion	s.D. ₁	s.D. ₂	d.f.	t	P(one-tail)
44.06	41.95	12.848	8.734	64	1.515	N.S.

level of significance. In describing the leader behavior of their immediate superiors, principals emphasized the Initiating Structure activities, perceiving these more frequently than Consideration (Table XIII). Research Hypothesis 2.3 was therefore confirmed.

Findings for Hypothesis 2.4

Research Hypothesis 2.4. Administrative personnel will perceive significantly higher frequencies of Initiating Structure, as compared with Consideration, when describing the leader behavior exhibited by their immediate superiors.

Here, a highly significant difference was revealed, in the direction predicted. Administrators emphasized Initiating Structure in their descriptions of the leader behavior exhibited by their immediate superiors. (See Table XIV). Research Hypothesis 2.4 was accordingly confirmed.

Sub-problem 2: Summary of Results

The findings related to the four hypotheses generated from the second sub-problem are summarized in Table XV.

Discussion of Findings: Sub-problem 2

The general proposition set forth in the hypotheses derived from Sub-problem 2 was that the frequencies of Initiating Structure activity perceived by subordinates in the actual leader behavior of their immediate superiors would be higher than the frequencies of Consideration. The data provided highly significant support for this hypothesis, when the subordinate group were administrators describing the leader behavior of other administrators. In the case of teachers as subordinates,

TABLE XIII

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PRINCIPALS' MEAN SCORES FOR INITIATING STRUCTURE AND CONSIDERATION DIMENSIONS OF THE LEADER BEHAVIOR EXHIBITED BY IMMEDIATE SUPERIORS

(N = 67 principals)

Mean Score Initiating Structure	Mean Score Considera- tion	s.D. ₁	S.D. ₂	d.f.	t	P (one-tail)
42.06	36.104	8.078	8.342	65	3.782	beyond .001 level

TABLE XIV

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN ADMINISTRATORS' MEAN SCORES FOR INITIATING STRUCTURE AND CONSIDERATION DIMENSIONS OF THE LEADER BEHAVIOR EXHIBITED BY IMMEDIATE SUPERIORS

(N = 132 administrators; 67 principals, 65 vice-principals)

Mean Score Initiating Structure	Mean Score Considera- tion	s.D. ₁	s.D. ₂	d.f.	t	P (one-tail)
43.045	38.907	7.941	9.441	130	3.747	beyond .001 level

TABLE XV

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS: SUB-PROBLEM 2 HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis	Result	Significance Level	Direction	Confirmation of Hypothesis
2.1	Teachers' mean perceived I.S. score significantly lower than mean perceived Consideration score, in describing leader behavior of vice-principals.	beyond .001 level	reversed	no
2.2	No significant difference between vice- principals' mean perceived I.S. score, and mean perceived Consideration score, in descriptions of the leader behavior of principals.	N.S.	predicted	OU
2.3	Principals' mean perceived I.S. score significantly higher than mean perceived Consideration score, in describing leader behavior of immediate superiors.	beyond .001 level	predicted	yes
2.4	Administrators' mean perceived I.S. score significantly higher than mean per- ceived Consideration score, in describing leader behavior of immediate superiors.	beyond .001 level	predicted	yes

describing the leader behavior of vice-principals, highly significant differences were again revealed, but in a reverse direction from that which was predicted. In their descriptions of the leader behavior of vice-principals, teacher respondents assessed higher frequencies of Consideration than Initiating Structure.

Two explanations of these results appeared to be tenable. The first would suggest that descriptions of leader behavior by subordinates would depend on the "areas of interaction" between the two positions. Theories of perception suggest that what is perceived is related to the extent of perceptual readiness, and it is likely that an administrator, when perceiving the behavior of another administrator, would be highly attuned to the Initiating Structure dimension. On the other hand, the interaction of teachers and vice-principals is likely to be of a different order. Studies by Enns (1: pp. 175-183), McLeod (6: p. 149), and Longmore (3: p. 118), have all indicated that the duties performed by vice-principals are typically neither complex, nor of a highly professional nature. In most instances, the duties reported for vice-principals were concerned with relieving teachers from such irksome and time-consuming tasks as supervising noon-hour activities, ordering supplies, collecting money and planning extra-curricular events. This evidence, together with the findings yielded by the present study, appears to suggest that the vice-principalship is regarded as a "staff office" rather than a "line office" by teachers. The evolving nature of the position tends increasingly to be one of advice and service (Consideration), rather than command (Structure). Consequently, although official organization charts may show the

vice-principalship as a line office immediately superior to the position of teacher, it is probable that teachers do not regard the vice-principal as being on a hierarchy above them.

A second possible explanation, which is more intriguing, is that women (who constituted the majority of the teacher group), while placing a high degree of priority on Initiating Structure in their own ideal classroom behavior, expect their superiors to exhibit Consideration to them, and are attuned to perceptions of this dimension of leader behavior. In this view, women could be considered as playing out their traditional role of "the weaker sex" in their relationships with superiors, but adopting in the classroom a more impersonal, Initiating Structure type of leadership. In other words, women may accept the opportunities of the classroom authority relationships as a compensation for their frustrated hopes of power and position in the organizational hierarchy. This suggestion finds support in the fact that although 21 per cent of women teachers admitted a desire for promotion, only 3 per cent of administrators were women.

The findings reported here also lend support to the proposition that the principal and vice-principal combine in a school organization to effect a "dual leadership." Using teacher responses to a selected group of sub-tests from the LBDQ XII, Girard (2) attempted to show that the principal provided the "high Structure" element of this combination, while the vice-principal represented the "high Consideration" dimension of the partnership. Because the vice-principals did not emerge as the predominantly "expressive" dual leaders, as compared with

"instrumental" principals, Girard was not able to support his hypothesis, but the findings of the present study tend to offer some credibility to such a thesis.

VI. SUMMARY OF CHAPTER VI

This chapter provided a description and an analysis of the demographic variables pertaining to the sample respondents. Overall patterns that appeared to be particularly relevant to the hypotheses advanced for study, were singled out for comment. These included the large number of female teachers in the sample; the small proportion of female administrators; the unexpectedly large proportion of women desirous of promotion; the high percentages of both teachers and administrators seeking promotion and thus competing for a limited number of positions; the large proportion of young persons in the sample; and finally, the high percentage of respondents who had occupied their present positions for only a brief period of five years or less.

Following a discussion of the demographic variables, and a review of tests used to determine the validity and reliability of the instruments, the findings for the first five research hypotheses were presented and discussed. All these hypotheses were derived from a sub-problem concerned with generally-held perceptions of appropriate leader behavior in each of the three positions under investigation. Results yielded by this series of analyses indicated that in perceptions of appropriate leader behavior, the administrators' mean scores for both Initiating Structure and Consideration were significantly

higher than those of teachers. Teachers put greater emphasis on Initiating Structure than Consideration as appropriate behavior, while for the administrator group this emphasis was reversed. Vice-principals and principals did not differ significantly in their perceptions of the appropriate frequencies for either the Initiating Structure or Consideration dimension.

Sub-problem 2, from which four research hypotheses were generated, was then investigated. The initial proposition was that subordinates perceive higher frequencies of Initiating Structure than of Consideration, when describing the leader behavior of their immediate superiors. Analysis of the data revealed significant confirmation of this hypothesis in those instances where administrators were describing the behavior of other administrators. However, in teachers' descriptions of vice-principals' leader behavior, Consideration was reported more frequently.

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CHAPTER VII

RESULTS, ANALYSIS, AND DISCUSSION: ROLE PERCEPTIONS AND PROMOTIONAL ASPIRATIONS

I. INTRODUCTION

This chapter continues the report of findings yielded by the investigation, and deals with the remaining six research problems set out for study, all of which are concerned with relationships involving promotional aspirations. Three of these problems deal with promotional aspirations and perceptions of role. Here, an analysis is made of the relationships between levels of promotional aspiration, deference to superior authority, perceptions of leader behavior appropriate for the position presently occupied, and perceptions of the actual leader behavior displayed by immediate superiors. A fourth problem is concerned with the extent of similarity in superior and subordinate perceptions, with promotional aspiration level as the intervening variable. The remaining two problems explore the relationships between age, length of time in the present position, and level of promotional aspirations possessed.

II. PROMOTION: ATTITUDES TOWARD VERTICAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL MOBILITY

Promotion is accompanied by many changes; for example, changes in relationships with people, in job responsibilities, in the extent of authority and power possessed, and in social and work environments.

These changes may be broadly categorized in terms of two dimensions of mobility: vertical mobility and geographical mobility. Vertical mobility, concerned with positional change in the organization's hierarchical structure, involves considerations of authority, autonomy, responsibility, prestige, reputation, and aspirations of status betterment. Geographical mobility, on the other hand, relates to movement from one environment to another. It is this latter aspect of promotion that often involves sacrifice for the aspiring organizational member, since advancement may mean severing the established ties in one community to become a stranger in another, often with family considerations subjugated to organizational demands. Both types of mobility require adjustments in personal relationships, and to some extent, sacrifice also. Thus, an individual's attitude towards promotion will be a function of his attitudes towards both vertical mobility and geographical mobility, and his level of promotional aspirations may be considered as a composite of these two interdependent sets of attitudes. Examination of the Mobility Achievement Scale revealed that these two dimensions of mobility were reflected in the scale's fourteen items, which might conveniently be divided for purposes of analysis, into two seven-item sections, with Items No. 14, 15, 17, 18, 19, 20, and 24 investigating attitudes towards vertical mobility, and the remaining items investigating attitudes towards geographical mobility.

Analysis of an individual's role perceptions was therefore possible in relation to:

1. His total mobility attitude, or level of promotional aspiration (the total Mobility Achievement Score).

- 2. His attitudes towards vertical mobility (the total score for Items 14, 15, 17, 18, 19, 20, 24).
- 3. His attitudes towards geographical mobility (the total score for Items 12, 13, 16, 21, 22, 23, 25).

The reason for undertaking separate analyses of the vertical and geographical components of mobility attitudes, in addition to considering the total score, lies in the fact that the study locale was a single large metropolitan group of school districts. Since most appointees to administrative ranks in Western Canadian school systems have been promoted from within their own systems, it is quite conceivable that advancement may be attained in such a city system, with little necessity for geographical relocation. Thus it would be possible for respondents to possess a strong desire for advancement, but to display a low level of commitment to geographical mobility, because they perceive that promotion will not necessarily require them to make many personal or family sacrifices, nor to endure many disadvantages of geographical movement.

III. ANALYSIS OF SUB-PROBLEMS 3, 4, AND 5

These three sub-problems were all concerned with the relationship between promotional aspirations and role perceptions. In the
light of theoretical indications and research evidence, it was hypothesized that individuals who possessed high levels of promotional aspiration would emphasize deference to superior authority, and the Initiating Structure dimension in their perceptions of role behavior, both of

the ideal role behavior for their own positions, and of the actual role behavior displayed by their immediate superiors.

From these sub-problems, the following three research hypotheses were developed:

Research Hypothesis 3. School personnel who possess high levels of promotional aspiration will perceive significantly higher frequencies of Initiating Structure, and significantly lower frequencies of Consideration, as appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied, than those who possess low levels of promotional aspiration.

Research Hypothesis 4. School personnel who possess high levels of promotional aspiration will perceive significantly higher frequencies of Initiating Structure, and significantly lower frequencies of Consideration, than those with low levels of promotional aspiration, when describing the leader behavior of their immediate superiors.

Research Hypothesis 5. School personnel who possess high levels of promotional aspiration will assign a significantly higher importance to deferring to superior authority, than those with low levels of promotional aspiration.

Strategy of Analysis

In order to test these hypotheses, the following strategy of analysis was devised. Scores for perceptions of role behavior, both appropriate and actual, such as LOQ Consideration, LBDQ Initiating Structure, or the score for deference to superior authority, constituted the criterion variables. For each relationship under scrutiny, three categories of mobility attitude, (total, vertical, and geographical), were designated as predictor variables, and were examined at the three hierarchical levels of teacher, vice-principal, and principal. In the case of Hypotheses 3 and 4, where the criterion scores were the two dimensions of leader behavior, the relationships between role perception

and promotional aspiration were explored in eighteen separate analyses.

To determine whether school personnel with high levels of promotional aspiration had significantly different role perceptions from those with low levels, it was first necessary to categorize respondents in terms of mobility orientations. Because of the difficulties associated with a two-fold categorization, where an arbitrary point of division might result in an uncertain middle level with no clear-cut distinction really possible, it was decided to employ initially a threefold set of groupings--high, medium, and low, so that the hypothesized high-low relationships might not be obscured by overlap at the cut-off point. In order to determine the groupings of respondents, in terms of their level of promotional orientations -- high, medium, and low, a computer program was utilized to provide distribution scores and histograms for the sample. This was done for each of the three predictor variables, total, vertical, and geographical mobility orientation scores; and for each of the three positions of teacher, vice-principal, and principal. Examination of these distributions indicated that it was possible to designate the highest scoring third of each sample as having a high level of the particular mobility orientation, the middle third as possessing a medium level, and the lowest third as holding a low level of mobility orientation.

For each of the three positions, and for each of the three predictor variables, two analytic techniques were then employed.

Multiple Linear Regression Analysis was first applied, to determine whether significant differences existed between high, medium and low groupings of the predictor variable, in terms of scores in the

criterion variable. For each Multiple Linear Regression Analysis, controls were established on the following variables: sex, academic training, teaching level, age, marital status, teaching experience, years in position, type of school and size of school. Where significant differences were revealed, a follow-up analysis employing One-way Analysis of Variance and Newman-Keuls Comparison of Ordered Means was applied, in order to establish the direction of the relationship. Details of the Analysis of Variance tests are provided in Appendix C.

Findings for Hypothesis 3

Research Hypothesis 3. School personnel who possess high levels of promotional aspiration will perceive significantly higher frequencies of Initiating Structure, and significantly lower frequencies of Consideration, as appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied, than those who possess low levels of promotional aspiration.

This hypothesis predicted that high levels of promotional aspiration would be associated with role perceptions of appropriate leader behavior that emphasized Initiating Structure, and de-emphasized Consideration, in comparison with the role perceptions of less ambitious personnel. This hypothesis was confirmed in the case of principals and vice-principals at very high levels of significance, for both dimensions of leader behavior, and for all three predictor variables (total, vertical, and geographical mobility orientations), in every instance but one, that of principals' geographical mobility attitudes and perceptions of Initiating Structure. Compared with the scores for the administrator group, teacher scores did not demonstrate the same relationships, and the hypothesis was confirmed in only two instances: with Initiating Structure as the criterion variable, and vertical

mobility attitude score as the predictor; and secondly, with Consideration as the criterion, and vertical mobility once again as the predictor.

Tables XVI and XVII present the results of the Multiple Linear Regression analyses for the separate dimensions of leader behavior, together with the ordering of means for the high and low groupings of mobility orientation. In Table XVIII, there is a general presentation of the findings for Hypothesis 3, in terms of the effectiveness of mobility orientation as a predictor of perceptions of appropriate leader behavior.

Findings for Hypothesis 4

Research Hypothesis 4. School personnel who possess high levels of promotional aspiration will perceive significantly higher frequencies of Initiating Structure, and significantly lower frequencies of Consideration, than those with low levels of promotional aspiration, when describing the leader behavior of their immediate superiors.

This hypothesis predicted that when individuals with strong desires for promotion described the leader behavior of the person occupying the next higher position, they would do so with a much greater emphasis upon the Initiating Structure dimension, together with a deemphasis of Consideration, than their colleagues in similar positions who did not possess strong ambitions for advancement. For the administrator groups of principals and vice-principals, the hypothesis was confirmed at high levels of significance, except in two instances—the relationships between principals' geographical mobility attitudes and both leader behavior dimensions. In the case of teachers, all six analyses failed to yield significant findings.

TABLE XVI

MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION ANALYSIS: MOBILITY ORIENTATIONS AND PERCEPTIONS OF APPROPRIATE LEADER BEHAVIOR, INITIATING STRUCTURE DIMENSION

[] <u> </u>			ı	I		i	•	1	152	i
Ordered Means* High Low	2	2		2	2	2		2		
Ordered High	-	l		_	-	_		- -		
Ь	beyond .001 level	beyond .001 level	N.S.	beyond .001 level	beyond .001 level	beyond .001 level	N.S.	.05 level	N.S.	
Ľ	29.4295	13,3910	3.0629	24.9388	9.7177	14.1079	2.6862	3.9162	.5694	
d.f.	2/54	2/54	2/54	2/25	2/25	2/52	2/1056	2/1056	2/1056	
R ² (restricted)	.5109	.5109	.5107	.2160	.2160	.2159	.0416	.0416	.0415	
$^{\rm R}_{\rm R}^{\rm 2}$ (unrestricted) (restricted) d.f.	.7660	.6730	.5606	8665.	.4293	.4917	.0465	.0487	.0426	
Criterion	L.O.Q. Structure	L.O.Q. Structure	L.O.Q. Structure	L.O.Q. Structure	L.O.Q. Structure	L.O.Q. Structure	LBDQ "Ideal" Initiating Structure	LBDQ "Ideal" Initiating Structure	LBDQ "Ideal" Initiating Structure	
Predictor	Principals' Total Mobility Orientation	Principals' Vertical Mobility Orientation	Principals' Geographical Mobility Orientation	Vice-principals' Total Mobility Orientation	Vice-principals' Verti- cal Mobility Orientation	Vice-principals' Geographical Mobility Orientation	Teachers' Total Mobility Orientation	Teachers' Vertical Mobility Orientation	Teachers' Geographical Mobility Orientation	

*In every case, the ordered means of the criterion variable are significantly different at or beyond the .05 level. The terms "high" and "low" refer to groupings in the predictor variable--mobility orientations.

TABLE XVII

MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION ANALYSIS: MOBILITY ORIENTATIONS AND PERCEPTIONS OF APPROPRIATE LEADER BEHAVIOR, CONSIDERATION DIMENSION

	1		1	1		1	ı	1	155	1
Means* Low	-	-	-	-	-	-		-		
Ordered Means* High Low	2	2	2	2	2	2		2		
ď	beyond .001 level	.005 level	.01 level	beyond .001 level	.005 level	.01 level	N.S.	.01 level	N.S.	
Ľ	18.6049	6.2113	5.1852	10.2558	5.8263	5.4428	. 9230	4.7525	2.4382	
d.f.	2/54	2/54	2/54	2/2	2/52	2/52	2/1056	2/1056	2/1056	
R ² (restricted)	4894	.4896	4894	.2546	.2568	.2536	.0478	.0478	.0477	
${\rm R}^2$ ${\rm R}^2$ (unrestricted) d.f.	.6977	.5850	.5717	.4654	.3929	.3828	.0494	.0563	.0521	
Criterion	L.0.Q. Consideration	L.O.Q. Consideration	L.O.Q. Consideration	L.O.Q. Consideration	L.O.Q. Consideration	L.O.Q. Consideration	LBDQ "Ideal" Consideration	LBDQ "Ideal" Consideration	LBDQ "Ideal". Consideration	
Predictor	Principals' Total Mobility Orientation	Principals' Vertical Mobility Orientation	Principals' Geographical Mobility Orientation	Vice-principals' Total Mobility Orientation	Vice-principals' Verti- cal Mobility Orientation	Vice-principals' Geographical Mobility Orientation	Teachers' Total Mobility Orientation	Teachers' Vertical Mobility Orientation	Teachers' Geographical Mobility Orientation	

*In every case, the ordered means of the criterion variable are significantly different at or beyond the .05 level. The terms "high" and "low" refer to groupings in the predictor variable--mobility orientations.

TABLE XVIII

OVERALL FINDINGS FOR HYPOTHESIS 3: MOBILITY ORIENTATIONS AS A PREDICTOR OF PERCEPTIONS OF APPROPRIATE LEADER BEHAVIOR

Data Sources

Leadership Opinion Questionnaire: Principals and Vice-principals; LBDQ ("Ideal" Form): Teachers; Mobility Achievement Scale: All respondents.

Predictor: Categories of Mobility Orientation	Criterion: Initiating Structure Dimension of Leader Behavior	Criterion: Consideration Dimension of Leader Behavior	Respondent Group
Total	Highly significant predictor	Highly significant predictor	
Vertical	Highly significant predictor	Highly significant predictor	Principals
Geographical	N.S.	Significant predictor	
Total	Highly significant predictor	Highly significant predictor	
Vertical	Highly significant predictor	Highly significant predictor	vice- principals
Geographical	Highly significant predictor	Significant predictor	
Total	N.S.	N.S.	
Vertical	Significant predictor	Significant predictor	Teachers
Geographical	N.S.	N.S.	

Tables XIX and XX present the results of the Multiple Linear Regression analyses for the separate dimensions of leader behavior, together with the ordering of means for the high and low groupings of mobility orientation. In Table XXI there is a general presentation of the findings for Hypothesis 4, in terms of the effectiveness of mobility orientation as a predictor of perception of the actual leader behavior of superiors.

Findings for Hypothesis 5

Research Hypothesis 5. School personnel who possess high levels of promotional aspiration will assign a significantly higher importance to deferring to superior authority, than those with low levels of promotional aspiration.

The prediction advanced in this hypothesis was that highly ambitious personnel would perceive deference to superior authority, obedience of rules and directions, and conformity with organizational expectations as a more important facet of their role behavior, than their colleagues who were less desirous of advancement.

This hypothesis was confirmed at high levels of significance in every relationship analysed but one, that of geographical mobility orientation in the teacher group. Table XXII presents the results of the Multiple Linear Regression analyses, together with the ordering of means for the high and low groupings of mobility orientation. In Table XXIII there is a general presentation of the findings for Hypothesis 5, in terms of the effectiveness of mobility orientation as a predictor of deferential attitudes to superior authority.

TABLE XIX

MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION ANALYSIS: MOBILITY ORIENTATIONS AND PERCEPTIONS OF IMMEDIATE SUPERIORS' ACTUAL LEADER BEHAVIOR, INITIATING STRUCTURE DIMENSION

		_R 2	p.2				Develored	* und
Predictor	Criterion	(unrestricted) (restricted) d.f.	(restricted)	d.f.	i.	d.	High Low	Low
Principals' Total Mobility Orientation	LBDQ I.S.	. 5526	.3119	2/54	14.5244	beyond .001 level	-	2
Principals' Vertical Mobility Orientation	LBDQ I.S.	.4648	.3119	2/54	7.7106	.001 level	1	2
Principals' Geographical Mobility Orientation	LBDQ I.S.	0680°	.0338	2/54	2.8255	N.S.		
Vice-principals' Total Mobility Orientation	LBDQ I.S.	.4133	.2645	2/25	6.5944	.005 level	J	2
Vice-principals' Verti- cal Mobility Orientation	LBDQ I.S.	.3442	. 2645	2/52	3.1620	.05 level	J	2
Vice-principals' Geographical Mobility Orientation	LBDQ I.S.	.3717	.2673	2/52	4.3205	.05 level	 -	2
Teachers' Total Mobility Orientation	LBDQ 1.S.	9860.	.0339	2/1056	2.5438	N.S.		
Teachers' Vertical Mobility Orientation	LBDQ I.S.	1980.	.0339	2/1056	1.2093	N.S.		
Teachers' Geographical Mobility Orientation	LBDQ I.S.	.0391	.0339	2/1056	2.8769	N.S.		

*In every case, the ordered means of the criterion variable are significantly different at or beyond the .05 level. The terms "high" and "low" refer to groupings in the predictor variable--mobility orientations.

TABLE XX

MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION ANALYSIS: MOBILITY ORIENTATIONS AND PERCEPTIONS OF IMMEDIATE SUPERIORS' ACTUAL LEADER BEHAVIOR, CONSIDERATION DIMENSION

Predictor	Criterion	$\frac{R^2}{R}$ (unrestricted) (restricted) d.f.	d.f.	iL.	Ф	Ordered Means* High Low	Means* Low
Principals' Total Mobility Orientation	LBDQ Consideration	.4155 .2560	2/54	7.3663	.001 level	2	-
Principals' Vertical Mobility Orientation	LBDQ Consideration	.5485 .2560	2/54	17.4898	beyond .001 level	2	-
Principals' Geographical Mobility Orientation	LBDQ Consideration	.2621 .2560	2/54	0.2253	N.S.		
Vice-principals' Total Mobility Orientation	LBDQ Consideration	. 5394 2456	2/2	16.5852	beyond .001 level	2	-
Vice-principals' Verti- cal Mobility Orientation	LBDQ Consideration	.4220 .2487	2/52	7.7947	.001 level	2	-
Vice-principals' Geographical Mobility Orientation	LBDQ Consideration	.4348 .2456	2/52	8.7065	beyond .001 level	2	-
Teachers' Total Mobility Orientation	LBDQ Consideration	.0345 .0342	2/1056	0.1456	N.S.		
Teachers' Vertical Mobility Orientation	LBDQ Consideration	.0357 .0342	2/1056	0.8209	N.S.		
Teachers' Geographical Mobility Orientation	LBDQ Consideration	.0352 .0342	2/1056	0.5179	N.S.		
					-	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	

*In every case, the ordered means of the criterion variable are significantly different at or beyond the .05 level. The terms "high" and "low" refer to groupings in the predictor variable--mobility orientations.

TABLE XXI

OVERALL FINDINGS FOR HYPOTHESIS 4: MOBILITY ORIENTATIONS AS A PREDICTOR OF PERCEPTIONS OF ACTUAL LEADER BEHAVIOR

Data Sources

(1) LBDQ; Principals, Vice-principals, and Teachers; (2) Mobility Achievement Scale: All respondents.

Predictor: Categories of Mobility Orientation	Criterion: Initiating Structure Dimension of Leader Behavior	Criterion: Consideration Dimension of Leader Behavior	Respondent Groups
Total	Highly significant predictor	Highly significant predictor	
Vertical	Highly significant predictor	Highly significant predictor	Principals
Geographical	N.S.	N.S.	
Total	Highly significant predictor	Highly significant predictor	;
Vertical	Significant predictor	Highly significant predictor	Vice- principals
Geographical	Significant predictor	Highly significant predictor	
Total	N.S.	N.S.	
Vertical	N.S.	N.S.	Teachers
Geographical	N.S.	N.S.	

TABLE XXII

MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION ANALYSIS: MOBILITY ORIENTATIONS AND PERCEPTIONS OF THE IMPORTANCE OF DEFERRING TO SUPERIOR AUTHORITY

Predictor	Criterion	$^{\rm R}_{\rm R}$ (unrestricted) (restricted) d.f.	R ² (restricted)	d.f.	Ŀ	ď	Ordered High	Means* Low
Principals' Total Mobility Orientation	Deference Score	.8145	.4940	2/54	46.6346	beyond .001 level	-	2
Principals' Vertical Mobility Orientation	Deference Score	.6595	.4940	2/54	13.1176	beyond .001 level	-	2
Principals' Geographical Mobility Orientation	Deference Score	.6432	.4940	2/54	11.2855	beyond .001 level	-	2
Vice-principals' Total Mobility Orientation	Deference Score	. 5527	.1956	2/52	20.7633	beyond .001 level	-	2
Vice-principals' Verti- cal Mobility Orientation	Deference Score	.4185	.1956	2/52	9.9661	beyond .001 level		2
Vice-principals' Geographical Mobility Orientation	Deference Score	.4021	1901.	2/25	9.2205	beyond .001 level	-	5
Teachers' Total Mobility Orientation	Deference Score	9010.	.0027	2/1056	4.2377	.05 level	-	2
Teachers' Vertical Mobility Orientation	Deference Score	.0265	.0027	2/1056	12.9243	beyond .001 level	-	2
Teachers' Geographical Mobility Orientation	Deference Score	.0049	.0027	2/1056	1.1618	N.S.		
							:	100

*In every case the ordered means of the criterion variable are significantly different at or beyond the .05 level. The terms "high" and "low" refer to groupings in the predictor variable--mobility orientations.

TABLE XXIII

OVERALL FINDINGS FOR HYPOTHESIS 5: MOBILITY ORIENTATION AS A PREDICTOR OF PERCEPTIONS OF THE IMPORTANCE OF DEFERRING TO SUPERIOR AUTHORITY

Data Sources

- (1) MacKay-Miklos adaptation of Corwin's Professional Role Orientation Scale: all respondents;
- (2) Mobility Achievement Scale: all respondents.

Categories of Mobility Orientation	Criterion: Deference Score	Respondent Group
Total	Highly significant predictor	
Vertical	Highly significant predictor	Principals
Geographical	Highly significant predictor	-
Total	Highly significant predictor	
Vertical	Highly significant predictor	Vice- principals
Geographical	Highly significant predictor	
Total	Significant predictor	
Vertical	Highly significant predictor	Teachers
Geographical	N.S.	

Discussion of Findings: Sub-problems 3, 4 and 5

Analysis by Multiple Linear Regression of the forty-five relationships among mobility orientations, positions, leader behavior dimensions and deference gave rise to a number of important general observations:

- 1. Level of mobility orientation emerged as a very powerful predictor of role perceptions. From the analyses appeared a pattern of relationships that was evident in all three categories of mobility orientation, and for all five criterion variables—deference, Initiating Structure and Consideration, (both "actual" and "appropriate").
- 2. As was evident in the previously reported analyses of the generally-held role perceptions for each position, the administrator group displayed a high degree of internal consistency, and a considerable difference from the teacher group. Although promotional mobility aspirations may be regarded as a powerful predictor, which was involved in highly significant relationships at all hierarchical levels, it was within the administrator group that these relationships were most consistent. For administrators, it appears correct to predict that a high level of promotional aspiration will be associated with high Initiating Structure scores, both "actual" and "appropriate;" low Consideration scores, "actual" and "appropriate;" and a high emphasis on deference to superior authority.

The same statement may be made only with caution, in reference to the perceptions held by teachers. While some indications of a similar trend for the teacher group were revealed, in general the data did not support the hypotheses with respect to teachers. These findings are

consistent with the results of the New York study of teacher mobility carried out by Griffiths (1), where approximately two-thirds of the teachers studied were designated as "pupil-oriented," because they displayed a professional dedication to teaching the students in their care, rather than a desire to achieve mobility. Only about one-eighth of the New York sample could be regarded as "Gasers," with a powerful interest in achieving advancement.

In the light of the findings by Griffiths, it is probable that in the present study the top third of the teacher distribution, who were designated as possessing high levels of promotional aspiration, may in fact have included some teachers who were "pupil-oriented." It is also conceivable that the large numbers of young people in the teacher sample (24.5 per cent) may have exerted an influence on the relationships revealed, because the process of anticipatory socialization may not have had sufficient time to affect their role perceptions, in spite of the fact that many of them professed a desire for promotion.

- 3. The criterion variable for which mobility orientations displayed the greatest predictive ability was deference to superior authority. It seems clear that personnel at all levels, who strongly desire advancement, place considerable emphasis in their behavior on deferential attitudes towards superior authority.
- 4. Of the three categories of mobility attitudes--total level of promotional aspirations, vertical mobility orientation, and geographical mobility orientation, it was the latter which proved least reliable as a predictor of role perceptions. This finding was consistent with expectations that a commitment to geographical mobility might not

be important in a metropolitan set of school districts, where promotion is possible with little need for geographical relocation. This result also agrees with Longmore's findings that geographical factors such as desirability of location, and community attractiveness, were relatively insignificant in decisions to apply for and accept promotions, since the vast majority of administrative appointments were from within the same district or system (1: p. 57).

IV. ANALYSIS OF SUB-PROBLEM 6

What relationship exists between the leader behavior perceived by administrative personnel to be appropriate for the position presently occupied, and perceptions of their actual leader behavior, embodied in descriptions supplied by their subordinates? From this sub-problem, three research hypotheses were developed. The first predicted that there would be no significant difference between superior and subordinate perceptions in the Initiating Structure dimension, because it was argued that the commonly held set of expectations for administrative behavior emphasized task-oriented activities. A significant difference was predicted by the second hypothesis for the mean scores in the Consideration dimension, while the third hypothesis proposed that such discrepancies between superior and subordinate perceptions of Consideration would be lacking, when respondents were grouped in terms of similarity in promotional aspiration level.

Findings for Hypothesis 6.1

Research Hypothesis 6.1. There will be no significant difference

between frequencies of Initiating Structure perceived by subordinates when describing the actual leader behavior of their immediate superiors, and the frequencies of Initiating Structure perceived by those superiors to be appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied.

The predicted similarity in the perceptions of appropriate and actual leader behavior in the Initiating Structure dimension did not eventuate, and the null hypothesis was rejected. Highly significant differences in the mean scores were revealed by t-test analysis of viceprincipal-principal, and teacher-vice-principal combinations. (See Tables XXIV and XXV). In addition, follow-up investigations of the correlation between "superior-appropriate" and "subordinate-actual" perceptions resulted in very low coefficients, of the order of less than 0.1, which did not achieve significance. For these computations, viceprincipals' scores were matched with their own principals' scores, and those of teachers with their own vice-principals'. In addition, a random sample of twenty-five schools was drawn, and the vice-principals' appropriate Initiating Structure scores were correlated with the average scores of their teachers' perceptions of actual behavior. In no case was a significant correlation revealed. Hypothesis 6.1 was therefore rejected.

Findings for Hypothesis 6.2

Research Hypothesis 6.2. Significant differences will exist between the frequencies of Consideration perceived by subordinates when describing the actual leader behavior of their immediate superiors, and the frequencies of Consideration perceived by those superiors to be appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied.

The prediction that significant differences would be revealed between "superior-appropriate" and "subordinate-actual" perceptions in

TABLE XXIV

MEAN SCORES FOR INITIATING STRUCTURE, AND SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PRINCIPALS' PERCEPTIONS OF APPROPRIATE LEADER BEHAVIOR AND VICE-PRINCIPALS' PERCEPTIONS OF ACTUAL LEADER BEHAVIOR

(N = 132; 67 principals, 65 vice-principals)

Principals' Mean Score (LOQ)	Vice-principals' Mean Score (LBDQ)	s.D. ₁	s.D. ₂	d.f.	t	P (two-tail)
48.93	44.06	12.12	7.67	130	2.725	.01 level

TABLE XXV

MEAN SCORES FOR INITIATING STRUCTURE, AND SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN VICE-PRINCIPALS' PERCEPTIONS OF APPROPRIATE LEADER BEHAVIOR AND TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF ACTUAL LEADER BEHAVIOR

(N = 1134; 65 vice-principals, 1069 teachers)

Vice-principals' Mean Score (LOQ)	Teachers' Mean Score (LBDQ)	s.D. ₁	s.D. ₂	d.f.	t	P (two-tail)
48.37	35.97	12.85	8.47	1132	11.036	beyond .001 level
<u>We</u>	lch t-prime a	approxim	nation o	on vari	ables_	
<u>d.</u> -	<u>f.</u>	t-pri	ime_		P(two-	<u>-tail)</u>
67	.43	7.68	3		bey0 .001 1	

TABLE XXVI

MEAN SCORES FOR CONSIDERATION, AND SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PRINCIPALS' PERCEPTIONS OF APPROPRIATE LEADER BEHAVIOR AND VICE-PRINCIPALS' PERCEPTIONS OF ACTUAL LEADER BEHAVIOR

(N = 132; 67 principals, 65 vice-principals)

Principals' Mean Score (LOQ)	Vice-principals' Mean Score (LBDQ)	s.D. ₁	s.D. ₂	d.f.	t	P (two-tail)
51.40	41.95	9.87	9.79	130	5.897	beyond .001 level

TABLE XXVII

MEAN SCORES FOR CONSIDERATION, AND SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN VICE-PRINCIPALS' PERCEPTIONS OF APPROPRIATE LEADER BEHAVIOR AND TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF ACTUAL LEADER BEHAVIOR

(N = 1134; 65 vice-principals, 1069 teachers)

Vice-principals' Mean Score (LOQ)	Teachers' Mean Score (LBDQ)	s.D. ₁	s.D. ₂	d.f.	t	P (two-tail)
52.11	44.09	8.73	8.71	1132	7.204	beyond .001 level
<u>We</u>	lch t-prime a	approxim	nation c	n vari	<u>ables</u>	
<u>d.</u> ·	<u>f.</u>	t-pri	me		P(two	<u>-tail)</u>
71	.96	7.19	9			ond level

the Consideration dimension of leader behavior was supported by the data. Highly significant differences in mean scores were evident in both the principal-vice-principal, and the vice-principal-teacher comparisons. (See Tables XXVI and XXVII). In addition to the t-tests for significance of difference in mean scores, follow-up investigations were again performed, as in the Initiating Structure dimension reported previously, to determine correlations. Once more, correlations were of a very low order and failed to achieve significance. Hypothesis 6.2 was therefore confirmed.

Findings for Hypothesis 6.3

Research Hypothesis 6.3. When subordinates and their immediate superiors possess similar levels of promotional aspiration, there will be no significant difference between the frequencies of Consideration perceived by subordinates when describing the actual leader behavior of their immediate superiors, and the frequencies of Consideration perceived by those superiors to be appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied.

In this hypothesis, the prediction was made that discrepancies between "superior-appropriate" and "subordinate-actual" perceptions of Consideration would not be evident, if superiors and subordinates were matched in terms of level of promotional aspiration. The data did not generally support the hypothesis. In only one combination, that of vice-principals and teacher groups who manifested high levels of promotional aspiration, did mean scores fail to differ. (See Table XXVIII).

The hypothesis that superiors and subordinates with matched levels of mobility orientation would not achieve significantly different mean scores in perceptions of leader behavior was then tested in the Initiating Structure dimension. It was here that unexpected differences

TABLE XXVIII

MEAN SCORES FOR PERCEPTIONS OF CONSIDERATION, AND SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN SUPERIOR-APPROPRIATE AND SUBORDINATE-ACTUAL PERCEPTIONS, AT SIMILAR LEVELS OF PROMOTIONAL ASPIRATION

GroupsLevels of Promotional Aspiration	Superiors' Mean Score (LOQ)	Subordinates' Mean Score (LBDQ)	d.f. or Welch d.f.	t or t-prime	P(two-tail)
High Principals and high Vice-principals (N = 24; 21)	41.33	33.00	43.00	4.46	beyond .001 level
Medium Principals and medium Vice-principals (N = 23; 21)	55.22	42.33	42.00	4.78	beyond .001 level
Low Principals and low Vice-principals (N = 20; 23)	59.10	47.74	41.00	6.85	beyond .001 level
High Vice-principals and high Teachers (N = 21; 346)	45.05	43.52	23.86	0.94	N.S.
Medium Vice-principals and medium Teachers (N = 21; 377)	57.33	44.01	24.37	9.30	beyond .001 level
Low Vice-principals and low Teachers (N = 23; 346)	57.61	44.60	27.84	9.14	beyond .001 level

had been disclosed between "superior-appropriate" and "subordinate-actual" scores, when analysing the data for Hypothesis 6.1. Significant differences were revealed in the "high" categories of promotional aspiration for both principal-vice-principal, and vice-principal-teacher combinations, but no significant difference was revealed in either the "medium" or "low" matched categories. (See Table XXIX).

Sub-problem 6: Summary of Results

The findings related to the three hypotheses generated from the sixth sub-problem are summarized in Table XXX and in the overall review of findings which follows.

Overall Review of Findings: Sub-problem 6

Reference to the data in Tables XXIV to XXX indicates that a number of generalizations may be made concerning the relationships between "superior-appropriate" and "subordinate-actual" perceptions of leader behavior:

- 1. For both the Initiating Structure and Consideration dimensions of leader behavior, superiors perceived a greater frequency of such activities as appropriate for their roles, than their subordinates perceived them as actually displaying.
- 2. Level of promotional aspiration was inversely related to perceptions of Consideration. For all three positions of principal, vice-principal, and teacher, increasing mobility orientation was associated with decreasing scores for perceptions of both appropriate and actual Consideration behavior.
 - 3. Level of promotional aspiration was directly related to

TABLE XXIX

MEAN SCORES FOR PERCEPTIONS OF INITIATING STRUCTURE, AND SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN SUPERIOR-APPROPRIATE AND SUBORDINATE-ACTUAL PERCEPTIONS, AT SIMILAR LEVELS OF PROMOTIONAL ASPIRATION

GroupsLevels of Promotional Aspiration	Superiors' Mean Score (LOQ)	Subordinates' Mean Score (LBDQ)	d.f. or Welch d.f.	t or t-prime	P(two-tail)
High Principals and high Vice-principals (N = 24; 21)	62.13	49.57	43.00	11.03	beyond .001 level
Medium Principals and medium Vice-principals (N = 23; 21)	42.91	42.24	42.00	0.27	N.S.
Low Principals and low Vice-principals (N = 20; 23)	40.00	40.70	41.00	0.31	N.S.
High Vice-principals and high Teachers (N = 21; 346)	60.67	36.76	23.09	13.05	beyond .001 level
Medium Vice-principals and medium Teachers (N = 21; 377)	37.24	35.79	22.00	0.74	N.S.
Low Vice-principals and low Teachers (N = 23; 346)	37.39	35.52	24.99	1.04	N.S.

TABLE XXX

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS: SUB-PROBLEM 6 HYPOTHESES

Hypo-	Result	Signifi- cance Level		Confirmation of Hypothesis
6.1	(a) Vice-principals' mean score for perceptions of principals'	(a) .01 level		ou
	actual including the contions of appropriate Initiating Structure. (b) Teachers' mean score for perceptions of vice-principals' actual Initiating Structure significantly lower than vice-principals' mean score for perceptions of appropriate Initiating	(b) beyond .001 level	puo La	0u
	Structure.	(a) beyond	puo	yes
6.2	(a) Vice-principals mean score for perceptions of principals actual Consideration behavior significantly lower than principals mean score for perceptions of appropriate level of Consideration.		.001 level beyond	yes
	actual Consideration behavior significantly lower than vice- principals' mean score for perceptions of appropriate level of Consideration.	.uu. level	- [-	
6.3	(a) Significant differences exist between "superior-appropriate,"	(a) beyor .001	beyond .001	no
	= 4	level	- Le	
	and high teacher groups. (b) Significant differences exist between "superior-appropriate"	(b) beyor .001	beyond .001	! ;
	"subordinate-actual" avior when superiors	level	[e]	
-	⊆ o	(c) N.S.	<u> </u>	¦
	appropriate and subordinates both possess either Structure when superiors and subordinates both possess either medium or low levels of promotional aspiration.			

perceptions of Initiating Structure. For all three positions of principal, vice-principal, and teacher, increasing mobility orientation was associated with increasing scores for perceptions of both appropriate and actual Initiating Structure.

4. Some limited support was found for the proposition that superiors and subordinates who possess the same level of promotional aspiration will demonstrate no significant difference in their ideal and actual perceptions of leader behavior. This association applied most markedly in the Initiating Structure dimension. Hypothesis 6.1, which predicted that there would be no significant difference between "superior-appropriate" and "subordinate-actual" perceptions of Initiating Structure, while not generally holding true, does have considerable validity if the modification of matched mobility levels were to be applied. In the dimension of Consideration, significant differences between the "superior-appropriate" and "subordinate-actual" perceptions existed in all but one instance, whether or not superiors and subordinates were combined in terms of matched mobility levels.

Discussion of Findings: Sub-problem 6

The findings that there are significant differences between mean scores for superiors' perceptions of appropriate leader behavior, and subordinates' perceptions of actual leader behavior, accompanied by very low correlations that do not achieve significance, are consistent with the results of Halpin's investigations. Halpin found that there was only a slight positive relationship between the way leaders believed they should behave, and the way in which their group members described

them as behaving (3: p. 23). Not only was this discrepancy noted within an educational setting, in a study of school superintendents; it was also revealed in an investigation of bomber aircraft commanders. Halpin states that "the evidence suggests that on the whole the aircraft commander's knowledge of how he should behave as a leader has little bearing upon how he is perceived as behaving by his crew" (2: p. 84). The difference between ideal perceptions of behavior and descriptions of actual behavior is not surprising. It is likely that all individuals who occupy organizational positions are aware of the ideal type of behavior for their role, but being human, few (if any) are able to live up to it. Moreover, it is quite probable that many superordinates are unaware that they are perceived by their subordinates as operating well below the ideal expectations.

The hypothesis that discrepancies between "superior-appropriate" and "subordinate-actual" perceptions of Consideration behaviors would not be in evidence, if superiors and subordinates were combined in terms of matched aspiration level, found only partial confirmation in the data. The predicted similarity of mean scores in Consideration was revealed in only one case, the combination of vice-principals and teachers with high levels of promotional aspiration. The underlying factor would appear to be two-fold. Examination of the data reveals that superior administrators generally describe a much higher level of Consideration as appropriate behavior, than their subordinate teachers credit them with actually demonstrating. In addition, the highly aspiring group of administrative personnel assess a much lower degree of Consideration behavior as appropriate, than do the rest of their colleagues occupying similar positions.

As a result, the lowered LOQ score for self-perceptions of appropriate behavior by highly aspiring vice-principals approaches the LBDQ score for subordinate teacher descriptions of their actual behavior. However, in the combination of highly aspiring principals and vice-principals, a similar tendency for scores to be congruent is prevented by the fact that the highly aspiring vice-principal group assigned extremely low Consideration frequencies, as they assessed the leader behavior of their immediate superiors. With both scores dropping, a significant difference remained, in this instance.

When the analysis was applied to the mean scores for the Initiating Structure dimension, four of the six combinations of superiors and subordinates, matched in terms of promotional aspiration, yielded null findings. The level at which the divergent results occurred was once again the "high" category of promotional aspirations. In this case, the two highly aspiring administrative groups had markedly elevated mean scores for perceptions of appropriate Initiating Structure behavior, so that significant differences were revealed in comparisons with scores for subordinate perceptions of their actual behavior. Although the highly aspiring vice-principals had assigned a much higher LBDQ score than the other mobility level groups, indicating that their perceptions of their immediate superiors' behavior had strongly emphasized the Initiating Structure dimension, the highly aspiring principals' mean LOQ score was even more greatly expanded, so that the significant difference persisted.

V. ANALYSIS OF SUB-PROBLEMS 7 AND 8

In both these sub-problems, level of promotional aspiration became the criterion variable, instead of the predictor variable, as in sub-problems 3, 4, and 5. In this case, the problem was concerned with the relationship between mobility attitudes and age, and it was argued that age would be inversely related to the desire for advancement. Further consideration of the relationships likely to be involved, suggested that a fruitful area of additional investigation would be the association between mobility attitudes and the length of time spent in the present position; with controls placed upon age, position, and desire for promotion. Arising from these sub-problems were the following research hypotheses:

Research Hypothesis 7. Young school personnel will manifest significantly higher levels of promotional aspiration than older personnel who are incumbents of similar positions.

Research Hypothesis 8. There will be significant differences in the levels of promotional aspiration possessed by school personnel of the same age, who occupy similar positions and who desire further advancement, when they are classified according to length of time in their position.

Method of Analysis. Multiple Linear Regression Analysis was used to test for significance of difference in the mean criterion scores of personnel grouped according to categories of age, and length of time in the present position. For the age relationships, respondents were designated as "young," if their age was under thirty-six years; "medium" if their age was thirty-six to forty-five years; and "old" if over forty-five years. For the relationships concerned with

time in the present position, the "low" category included those respondents who had spent one to five years in their present position; "medium" referred to a period of six to ten years; while "high" denoted eleven years or more.

The hypothesized relationships were tested for the three types of mobility attitude, and at the three positions of teacher, vice-principal, and principal. Wherever significance was revealed by the Multiple Linear Regression analysis, follow-up investigations were performed using Analysis of Variance and Newman-Keuls Ordered Means techniques.

Findings for Hypotheses 7 and 8

Both hypotheses were supported in part for the teacher group of respondents, but the data did not support the hypotheses for the administrator group, where no significant relationships whatsoever were revealed by the analysis. Tables XXXI and XXXII present the results of the Multiple Linear Regression Analyses, together with the ordering of means for the high and low groupings of age and time in the present position. In Table XXXIII there is a general presentation of the findings for Hypotheses 7 and 8, in terms of the effectiveness of age, and time in position, as predictors of mobility orientations.

Discussion of Findings: Sub-problems 7 and 8

In testing the series of hypotheses concerned with relationships between mobility orientations and role perceptions, a fairly obvious trend became evident: while mobility orientations proved to be a generally powerful predictor for all three hierarchical positions

TABLE XXXI

MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION ANALYSIS: AGE AND MOBILITY ORIENTATIONS

:	•	R ²	R ²	4	נו	d	Ordered Means*
Predictor	Criterion	(unrestricted) (restricted)	(restricted)	d.I.	_	L	High Low
age	Principals' Total Mobility Orientation	.4073	.4065	2/22	.0373	N.S.	
age	Principals' Vertical Mobility Orientation	.2773	.2678	2/55	.3605	N.S.	
age	Principals' Geographical Mobility Orientation	.3801	.3735	2/55	.2924	N.S.	
age	Vice-principals' Total Mobility Orientation	.4408	.4316	2/53	.4367	N.S.	
age	Vice-principals' Vertical Mobility Orientation	.4216	.4172	2/23	.2053	N.S.	
age	Vice-principals' Geographical Mobility Orientation	.2826	.2650	2/53	.6501	N.S.	
age	Teachers' Total Mobility Orientation	.1407	.1352	2/1057	3.3951	.05 level	2 1
age	Teachers' Vertical Mobility Orientation	.1075	.1045	2/1057	1.7468	N.S.	
age	Teachers' Geographical Mobility Orientation	.0993	.0940	2/1057	3.1142	.05 level	د 2
		OH+ + C + HONOY PROPERTY OF THE PROPERTY OF THE	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	1 4 4 F	+0000	1	Of lovel The

*In every case, the ordered means of the criterion variable are significantly different at the .05 level. The terms "high" and "low" refer to groupings in the predictor variable--age.

TABLE XXXII

MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION ANALYSIS: YEARS IN POSITION AND MOBILITY ORIENTATIONS

	4				1	1	1	1	178	
Ordered Means* High Low							2 1	٦ ا		
Ь	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	.05 level	.05 level	N.S.	
Ŀ	2.2103	0.6567	3.0338	0.3257	1.0755	0.0288	3.5085	3.3393	2.1599	
d.f.	2/56	2/56	2/56	2/54	2/54	2/54	2/1058	2/1058	2/1058	
R ² (restricted)	.0911	.0800	.1030	.2852	.2830	. 1838	.0165	.0187	.0243	
$^{\mathrm{R}^2}_{\mathrm{Nnrestricted}}$ (unrestricted)	.1576	1101.	1901.	.2938	.3105	.1846	.0230	.0249	.0283	
Criterion	Principals' Total Mobility Orientation	Principals' Vertical Mobility Orientation	Principals' Geographical Mobility Orientation	Vice-principals' Total Mobility Orientation	Vice-principals' Vertical Mobility Orientation	Vice-principals' Geographical Mobility Orientation	Teachers' Total Mobility Orientation	Teachers' Vertical Mobility Orientation	Teachers' Geographical Mobility Orientation	
Predictor	Years in Position	Years in Position	Years in Position	Years in Position	Years in Position	Years in Position	Years in Position	Years in Position	Years in Position	

The *In every case, the ordered means of the criterion variable are significantly different at the .05 level. terms "high" and "low" refer to groupings in the predictor variable--years in position.

TABLE XXXIII

OVERALL FINDINGS FOR HYPOTHESES 7 AND 8: AGE AND YEARS IN PRESENT POSITION AS PREDICTORS OF MOBILITY ORIENTATIONS

Data Sources

(S)

Mobility Achievement Scale: all respondents; Personal and School Data Questionnaire: all respondents.

Criterion: Categories of Mobility Orientation	Predictor: Age	Predictor: Years in the Present Position	Respondent Group
Total	N.S.	N.S.	
Vertical	N.S.	N.S.	Principals
Geographical	N.S.	N.S.	
Total	N.S.	N.S.	:
Vertical	N.S.	N.S.	Vice- principals
Geographical	N.S.	N.S.	·
Total	Significant predictor	Significant predictor	
Vertical	N.S.	Significant predictor	Teachers
Geographical	Significant predictor	N.S.	

studied, nevertheless there were differences between the teacher and administrator groups. It was the administrators' role perceptions for which promotional aspirations proved to be most highly significant as a predictor. In the two hypotheses under discussion, level of promotional aspirations was the criterion variable instead of the predictor, and a number of interesting outcomes deserve mention. The distinction between the administrative and teaching personnel that had become apparent in earlier analyses was accentuated in the relationships involving promotional orientations, age, and years in the present position. Where formerly the pattern consisted of a high proportion of significant findings for the relationships involving the administrator group, accompanied by a smaller number of significant results for the teacher group; here the pattern was reversed somewhat. Several findings were associated with the teacher group, while no significant results whatsoever were revealed by analyses of data from administrative personnel. Another aspect of this difference between teachers and administrators as groups, appeared in the fact that F ratio levels for analyses of teacher data concerned with differences in mobility orientations generally tended to be considerably lower than for the administrator group. It would appear, then, that two inferences might be drawn concerning the teacher and administrator groups:

1. Firstly, as was pointed out previously in Chapter VI, administrators as a group had different overall role perceptions from teachers, with significantly different placement of emphasis upon the leader behavior dimensions. In analyses of general role perceptions, administrators proved to be fairly consistent, showing no significant

difference between such sub-groups as principals and vice-principals, or males and females.

2. When the variable of mobility orientation was added, and "within-group" differences became the focus, it was obvious that in terms of role perceptions, highly aspiring administrative personnel were significantly further removed from colleagues occupying similar positions, than were their teacher counterparts who possessed strong ambitions for advancement. Differences in promotional aspiration levels were much more pronounced at the administrative level, than among the teacher respondents.

The finding of such differences between administrators and teachers is consistent with the conclusions drawn by Griffiths, in his New York study of teacher mobility. In writing of a similar distinction between the teaching and administrative personnel, while assessing the value of applying social science concepts to educational analysis, Griffiths made the following comment:

The administrative personnel appear to be typical of those in other large organizations, many of whom possess characteristics dysfunctional to the goals of the school system; however, the majority of teaching personnel constitutes a type not found by researchers studying large non-educational organizations (4: p. 31).

The hypotheses that level of mobility orientations would be inversely related to age and length of time in the present position, found some support in the data of the teacher group, but none in the data of the administrator group. A feasible speculation as to the reasons underlying these relationships might be that the administrator group, with power and authority already in their grasp, do not lose hope and ambition for further advancement, as their age, and years in

the position increase. For them, promotion is an ever-present possibility, and optimism remains firm on the memory of advances already made. In the case of teachers, on the other hand, aspirations would tend to decline with increasing age and length of time in the position, because of two factors. Firstly, recognition is likely to dawn on the non-mobile teacher that he is facing strong competition from many sources for the few available administrative positions. The longer he remains unpromoted, the more likely he is to realize that he has been passed over in favour of some younger and more vigorous aspirant. Secondly, the large number of women in the teacher group are likely to commence with high hopes for advancement, holding confident expectations born of emancipated university years. Here also, however, increasing experience in the teaching position brings with it increasing recognition that the system discriminates against women in appointments to administrative posts. As a result, increasing age and increasing length of time in the position are accompanied by decreasing promotional aspirations.

VI. SUMMARY OF CHAPTER VII

In this chapter, the sub-problems concerned with levels of promotional aspiration were investigated. It was found that educational personnel with high levels of promotional aspiration had significantly higher scores for deference to superior authority, and for perceptions of appropriate and actual Initiating Structure; and significantly lower scores for perceptions of appropriate and actual Consideration, than did educational personnel with low levels of promotional aspiration. These

relationships were very strongly marked in the administrator group, but not so consistent nor so highly significant among the teacher respondents. Overall, level of mobility orientations proved to be a powerful predictor of role perceptions, particularly of deference to superior authority. Of the three types of mobility orientations tested as predictors, geographical mobility attitudes were the least reliable, probably because promotion in the system under study did not require a strong commitment to geographical mobility. In the two sub-problems concerned with age and length of time in the position, significant predictions from these variables, with regard to the criterion of promotional aspiration level, were revealed only in the teacher group.

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CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

I. SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

The Nature of the Study

This study was designed to investigate relationships between role perceptions and the level of promotional aspirations possessed by school personnel. Three aspects of role perceptions were examined: perceptions of the importance of deferring to superior authority; perceptions of appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied; and perceptions of the actual leader behavior exhibited by immediate superiors. In testing the relationships between the criterion variables of role perception, and the predictor variable, level of promotional aspiration, the latter was subdivided for purposes of analysis into two further categories of mobility orientation--vertical and geographical--on the assumption that the geographical mobility component of attitudes towards promotion might prove to be relatively unimportant in a large metropolitan educational system. Relationships between role perception and mobility orientations were explored within and between the three hierarchical levels of teacher, vice-principal, and principal.

The Conceptual Framework

The underlying theory on which this study was based was drawn from five major sources: theories of perception; the two-dimensional theory of leader behavior; theories of cognitive role orientation, with

the organizational reward system as an intervening variable; and theories of individual accommodation to organizational demands, which dealt with deference to superior authority, and role behavior emphasis in upward mobility aspirations.

Analysis of the Problem

The central problem of the study concerned the relationships between role perceptions and promotional orientation, and was investigated to further the limited existing knowledge of some of the variables which underlie the processes of administrative selection and advancement. In the light of the available theoretical insights and existing research evidence, the study's central problem was stated in the form of a major research hypothesis which suggested that within the setting of the educational organization, high levels of promotional aspiration are associated with role perceptions that emphasize the Initiating Structure dimension of leader behavior and deference to superior authority, and de-emphasize Consideration. In order to test the major hypothesis, the central problem was resolved into a number of more specific questions, from which eight sub-problems were developed, generating eighteen research hypotheses for empirical testing.

Instrumentation and Methodology

<u>Instrumentation</u>. The data used to test the relationships posited in the research hypotheses were gathered by means of a mailed question-naire which contained five sections. Demographic data were compiled from responses to a Personal and School Data Questionnaire. Seeman's

Mobility Achievement Scale was employed to measure the total level of promotional aspirations, and its items were also divided into two sections, indicating levels of vertical and geographical mobility attitudes. Selected items from a Canadian adaptation of the Professional Role Orientations Scale by Corwin measured perceptions of the importance of deferring to superior authority, while Halpin's Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire was used to measure perceptions of the actual leader behavior displayed by superiors. Two parallel forms of the LBDQ, the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire by Fleishman, and the "Ideal" form of the LBDQ, were employed to determine perceptions of the leader behavior regarded as appropriate for the position presently occupied.

The Experimental Sample. Data for hypothesis testing were gathered from 1,069 teachers, sixty-seven principals, and sixty-five vice-principals in seventy-one schools from a proportionally stratified random sample of 100 schools, drawn from the nine school districts comprising the Greater Vancouver area. The experimental sample proved to be representative of the total population in the area under study, and the response rates within the participating schools were 61.1 per cent for teachers, 86.7 per cent for vice-principals, and 94.4 per cent for principals.

<u>Data Collection</u>. The administration of the questionnaire was conducted by mail, with the assistance of a coordinator on the staff of each school, who was responsible for the distribution of materials and the collection and return of answer sheets.

Statistical Treatment. All data were provided by respondents directly on I.B.M. answer sheets, which were machine scored, and then converted through a Fortran program to yield data decks of computer cards. All analyses were carried out through the use of card sorter and computer. Statistical techniques employed to test for significant differences were t tests, with Welch t-prime modification; correlated t tests; and Multiple Linear Regression Analysis. The latter technique was used as the basic test for all hypotheses involving differences in level of promotional aspiration. Using this technique, controls were established on ten variables, and when the analysis disclosed significant differences between categories of the predictor variable, a program applying One-way Analysis of Variance and a Newman-Keuls test for differences of ordered means was utilized to determine the direction of the relationship. Analysis of Variance was applied to all relationships tested with the Multiple Linear Regression technique as a follow-up check on the reasonableness of the computer output. In all tests, a significance level of .05 was maintained for the acceptance of a research hypothesis.

II. FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary of Research Findings

The first research problem was concerned with differences in role perception existing within and between the three hierarchical levels of teacher, vice-principal, and principal, as the incumbents assessed the leader behavior appropriate for their present positions. Teachers were found to have significantly lower mean scores for both

Initiating Structure, and Consideration, than administrators. Teachers placed significantly greater emphasis on Initiating Structure than Consideration behaviors, while the reverse situation applied in the case of administrative personnel. No significant differences were found between the mean scores of vice-principals and principals for the two leader behavior dimensions. Additional analyses indicated that female teachers had a significantly higher mean score for Initiating Structure than male teachers, but no significant difference emerged between the mean scores of either dimension in the case of female and male administrators.

The second research problem was concerned with perceptions held by subordinates, of the actual leader behavior exhibited by their immediate superiors. The prediction of a higher mean score for Initiating Structure as compared with Consideration, as teachers described the leader behavior of vice-principals, was not confirmed; a significant difference emerged, but in the reverse direction. There was no significant difference between the mean scores of Initiating Structure and Consideration perceived by vice-principals as they described the leader behavior of principals. The hypotheses that principals and administrators generally would assign significantly higher mean scores for Initiating Structure than for Consideration, in describing the leader behavior of their immediate superiors, were confirmed.

The third research problem dealt with differences in level of promotional aspiration, and the relationships which these bore to perceptions of appropriate leader behavior for the position presently occupied. It was hypothesized that individuals with high levels of

promotional aspiration would have significantly higher scores for Initiating Structure and significantly lower scores for Consideration, than those with low levels of promotional aspiration. This hypothesis was confirmed for the administrator groups at very high levels of significance, for both dimensions of leader behavior, and for all three predictor variables except in one instance, that of principals' geographical mobility attitudes. Only limited support for the hypothesis was gained from analysis of teacher scores.

The fourth research problem was similar to the third, but was concerned not with perceptions of appropriate leader behavior, but with perceptions of the actual leader behavior exhibited by immediate superiors. It was hypothesized that very ambitious personnel would assign significantly higher scores for Initiating Structure and significantly lower scores for Consideration, than would personnel with low levels of mobility orientation. No significant differences whatsoever emerged for the teacher group, in either leader behavior dimension, or in any of the three categories of mobility orientation. Very significant differences emerged for the administrator groups in every instance except principals' geographical mobility attitudes.

The fifth research problem advanced the prediction that school personnel with high levels of promotional aspiration would assign a significantly higher importance to deferring to superior authority, than those with low levels of promotional aspiration. This hypothesis was confirmed at very high levels of significance in every relationship analysed but one—that of teachers' geographical mobility orientations.

The sixth sub-problem examined the relationship existing between perceptions of leader behavior regarded by administrators as appropriate,

and subordinates' perceptions of the actual leader behavior displayed by those administrators. The prediction that no significant difference would exist between the mean scores of "superior-appropriate" and "subordinate-actual" perceptions in the dimension of Initiating Structure was not supported by the data, although the predicted differences in the Consideration dimension did emerge. Contrary to hypothesis, when superiors and subordinates were matched in terms of levels of promotional aspiration, the discrepancies between mean Consideration scores for "superior-appropriate" and "subordinate-actual" perceptions did not disappear, except for the vice-principal-teacher combination with high levels of promotional aspiration. When similar analyses were applied in the Initiating Structure dimension of perceived leader behavior, the anticipated lack of significant difference was revealed in all "medium" and "low" matchings of promotional aspiration level, but not for "high aspiration" combinations.

The seventh and eighth sub-problems investigated level of promotional aspirations as a criterion variable, and proposed that it would be inversely related to age, and to length of time spent in the present authority position. These hypotheses found significant support in the data supplied by teacher respondents, but no significant findings were revealed by analysis of the administrator groups.

Conclusions from the Research Findings

The conclusions presented here were arrived at on the basis of the evidence from the present study. Although the experimental sample of schools was representative of the Greater Vancouver area, the limiting of the investigation to one large set of urban school districts means that the conclusions which follow are, strictly speaking, valid only for the population under study. With caution, however, their applicability might be extended to populations with similar parameters.

In Chapters VI and VII, following the reported analyses of data and testing of hypotheses, reference has already been made in a discussion of findings, to various important overall results which became evident in the relationships investigated. It is from these sources that the following observations have been drawn. They are considered to be the major conclusions yielded by the study, and they are presented once again at this stage, to highlight their importance.

- 1. Level of promotional aspirations is a powerful indicator of administrators' role perceptions. Analysis revealed highly significant sets of relationships in all three categories of mobility orientations, in both dimensions of leader behavior, and for both types of perception --of actual role behavior, and of appropriate role behavior.
- 2. Of the three predictor variables, total, vertical, and geographical mobility orientations, the latter appears to be the weakest indicant of role perceptions, probably because highly aspiring personnel do not need a strong commitment to geographical mobility in order to achieve promotion in a large city system.
- 3. Administrative personnel who possess high levels of promotional aspiration perceive their own ideal role behavior, as well as the actual role behavior of their immediate superiors, with an emphasis on Initiating Structure activities, and deference to superior authority, and with a de-emphasis of the Consideration dimension of leader behavior.

- 4. Level of promotional aspirations is inversely related to perceptions of Consideration, and directly related to perceptions of Initiating Structure.
- 5. The criterion variable for which promotional orientation is most highly predictive is deference to superior authority.
- 6. Teachers and administrators form two quite distinct groups within the educational organization, with significantly different perceptions of appropriate leader behavior for their own positions, and significantly different perceptions of the actual leader behavior exhibited by their immediate superiors.
- 7. Within the teacher group, individuals with high levels of promotional aspiration do not possess role perceptions as markedly different from those of their peers, as those with strong aspirations in the administrator group.
- 8. Mobility orientations do not demonstrate the same consistent pattern of significantly high relationships with teacher role perceptions, as they do with role perceptions possessed by administrators.
- 9. Age and length of time in the present position are inversely related to the strength of promotional aspirations. This relationship holds true for the teacher group, but not for administrators.

III. IMPLICATIONS

The findings and conclusions of this study have several implications for the practice of educational administration. They also suggest a need for further research.

Implications for the Practice of Educational Administration

Perhaps the most obvious implication arising from this study is the need for both administrators and teachers to be alert to the complexities of perception, and to be aware of the possibilities of misperception in organizational relationships. The study disclosed a number of areas where quite marked differences in perception exist: administrators perceive their own appropriate leader behavior and the actual leader behavior of superiors quite differently from teachers; and the perceptions of those individuals who possess strong aspirations for advancement are quite different from those who do not desire promotion highly. More widespread recognition that variations in perception will exist among members of a school staff would do much to reduce conflict, and limit the dysfunctional effects of misunderstood purposes. Concrete steps to reduce the possibility of misperception could be instituted through the positive encouragement of two-way communication, and more explicit articulation of role expectations.

Enns has pointed out:

People act on what they perceive, and what they perceive depends more on variables within themselves than on external "real" variables (7: p. 20).

There are important implications here for those who are charged with the responsibility of making administrative selections and promotions. The investigation has shown that individuals who possess strong promotional aspirations tend to perceive leader behavior with a predominant emphasis on the Initiating Structure dimension, together with deference to superior authority and a de-emphasis of Consideration. It is likely that the ambitious person, realizing that his advancement

depends upon persons at a higher level of authority, and lacking clear indications of the criteria deemed necessary for promotional success (10: p. 61), unconsciously slants his role perceptions towards a "system orientation" rather than a "person orientation." In any organization, those with high levels of promotional aspiration are likely to indulge in vigorous self-promotion aimed at achieving visibility and advancement. In the absence of clearly defined policy statements of the criteria to be used for selection, the system unwittingly perpetuates a succession of "organization men" as administrators, for whom goal achievement, task orientation, formal structure, conformity and deference are likely to be more important than individual satisfaction and group maintenance.

Although some recent research has indicated that it is the perceived frequency of leader behavior which is of greatest importance in job satisfaction and overall school performance, rather than type of leader behavior (1: p. 11), nevertheless group acceptance remains as the crucial variable. If a teaching staff accepts the organizational "head" as their leader, then they will accept his leadership initiatives even to the point of directiveness (12: p. 7). However, it is very likely that the conditions under which school personnel accept an appointed administrator as leader are changing quite rapidly. The currently developing concepts of team teaching and collegial organization for schools do not appear to favour administrative behavior which relies on direction and control. Present trends towards greater teacher participation in decision-making, policy formation by consensus, and emphasis in the supervisory process upon motivation and stimulation,

would indicate the need for Consideration to play a greater part in the future leader behavior of school administrators. Further possibilities of future conflict between teachers and administrators are evident in the fact that the highly aspiring individuals who are likely, in Griffiths' words "to get to run the system," display considerable deference to superior authority and make decisions in favour of the organization, rather than on the basis of professional commitment to client interests and needs. Clark (5) and Byrne (4) have both recently discussed the increasing professionalism evident in Canadian education, while McBeath reports that the average age of teachers is decreasing, and the evidence indicates that these young people are dissatisfied with some of the professional aspects of teaching (11: p. 5). In view of these trends, the concept of leadership as stated by Friesen would appear to be most appropriate for the changing situation:

Leadership refers to the act of influencing organizational goals and policies and designing the strategies by which these goals can be attained. This goes beyond supervision, management, control or government. It involves gaining the support of the members of a school to effect a change or introduce an innovation (8: p. 42).

Summing up, it would seem that in the absence of clearly expressed expectations for administrative aspirants, and a lack of selection policy criteria, the conscious or unconscious assumption that better chances of profiting from the organization's reward system lie in adopting organizationally-oriented values, will prove increasingly dysfunctional in the presently evolving type of school organization. Some efforts have been made to formulate rational guidelines for administrative selection, based on clear and explicit criteria (3; and

13). Until efforts in this area become more widely and effectively applied, appointment to administrative positions is likely to depend less upon ability than upon proficiency in providing those in authority with a show of what they appear to want to see.

Implications for Social Science Research

The Presthus "upward-mobile" model has been shown to offer some valuable insights for research in the educational organization. Suggestions that promotionally-oriented individuals would accentuate system orientation and procedural elements in their perceptions of role behavior, together with a deference towards superior authority, found considerable empirical support in the data of this study. Ellis had already noted in his survey of the career mobility of recently appointed principals in western Canadian school systems, that there was "substantial agreement between the type of behavior and values the principals agreed with, and typical upward-mobile behavior (6: p. 91). However, it must be pointed out once again that the upward-mobile conceptualization is a modal type, as Presthus admits, and accordingly is not entirely valid for the educational organization. This study revealed considerable differences between the teacher and administrator groups, and level of promotional aspiration was a much more reliable predictor for administrative personnel. This finding closely parallels the results of Griffiths' New York study of teacher mobility, where he made the observation:

Some two-thirds of all teachers were found to be either pupiloriented or intellectuals. Presthus has no categories even remotely resembling these (9: p. 31). Similarly, Powers has raised doubts about the advisability of treating the upward-mobile construct as a discrete organizational type (14: p. 3). As Griffiths has suggested, much may be common to all organizations, but the personnel may well be different (9: p. 31). Wholesale uncritical borrowing of Social Science concepts and their application to the educational organization may therefore be quite misleading. The present study, however, has demonstrated partial applicability and considerable utility for the Presthus model, by testing its theoretical insights in the context of the school organization.

Implications for Further Research

The present study yielded a series of highly significant results. The question immediately arises--would similar results have been found, with equally high levels of significance, if the study had been carried out in other populations, or were the results a function of the particular population investigated? In other words, were these findings merely the outcome of a local phenomenon? Although no bias-inducing factors were evident to the investigator, and the research design and statistical techniques used were sufficiently rigorous to avoid administration errors, computational errors, and sampling errors, the possibility of population errors cannot be disregarded. While it can be asserted with reasonable confidence that Presthus' model has been shown to have some applicability for the educational organization, and that individuals with a high level of promotional aspiration defer to superior authority, and that the findings can be applied with caution to populations with similar parameters, nevertheless the fact remains that under strictest

conditions of statistical inference, the most that can be said is that these findings are applicable generally to the population under study. As Bauernfeind points out:

Even if an entire population is studied (e.g. all tenth graders in a given school, or all elementary teachers in a given county), we cannot know the applicability of the findings to other populations. If such inferences are desired, replication studies in other populations are essential (2: p. 127).

The principle of replication has long been the cornerstone of research in the natural sciences, but has unfortunately been largely ignored as a major criterion of quality research in the human sciences, (including educational research), until quite recently. For this reason, it is urged that the study be replicated within other populations, to ascertain whether the strikingly significant results are repeated in other settings.

Presthus asserts that organizational size is a key factor in generating the upward-mobile's style of individual accommodation to the system's pressures and demands. Although controls were applied in the present study to size of school, and proportional sampling acknowledged varying numbers of school types, no attempt was made to study the relationships existing between level of promotional aspirations, and the size of the school district sub-systems. Further studies that examine the posited relationships in school systems of varying size may be valuable in throwing further light on the validity of the Presthus upward-mobile conceptualization.

The present study was delimited in focus to the current role perceptions of teachers and administrators. It is suggested that valuable insights might be gained from longitudinal studies that examine

the mobility attitudes and role perceptions over time for aspiring and mobile organization members; aspiring but non-mobile members; and non-aspiring, non-mobile members.

While some speculation has been offered regarding the factors that induce the particular emphases in role perception displayed by upwardly aspiring personnel, little is known about the forces that bear upon prospective and neophyte administrators to mould their perceptions. Such a study would be valuable in diagnosing the conditions that stimulate the development of a strong system orientation in a period when growing professionalism demands a different type of administrator, who is more concerned with people.

Examination of the data supplied by teachers indicates that the elementary teacher group contains large numbers of married women with lower levels of academic training and qualifications, and lengthy teaching experience. Relatively little is known at the present time about the role perceptions held by this group, and their subsequent influence upon the teaching and learning processes of the elementary school. Such an investigation would contribute considerably to the present fund of available knowledge on teacher characteristics.

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APPENDICES

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APPENDIX A

CORRESPONDENCE



THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA EDMONTON 7, CANADA

June 30th, 1968.

Dear Sir,

I am writing to request your approval that I may contact schools in your superintendency, seeking the co-operation of the principal and his staff in a research study which I am presently undertaking.

I am a doctoral student in educational administration at the University of Alberta, with Dr. F. Enns as my adviser. As part of my program of studies, I am investigating the relationships between promotional aspirations and the role perceptions of teachers and school administrators.

The number of schools in your superintendency which I would approach, with your permission, would be quite small. The proposed population for the study is the whole Greater Vancouver area, and the investigation would be based on a proportional stratified random sample from this large area. I am anxious that the sample be as representative as possible of all the schools comprising this area, and for this reason respectfully and earnestly request your approval that your school district participate also, so that statistical bias in the analysis may be avoided, and worthwhile generalizable findings produced.

Data for the study will be gathered from a questionnaire, which can be completed in less than half an hour by principals, vice-principals, and teachers who agree to take part. The questionnaire comprises four well-known and widely-used research instruments: Halpin's L.B.D.Q.; Fleishman's Leadership Opinion Questionnaire; Seeman's Mobility Achievement Scale; and Corwin's Professional Role Orientations Scale.

Individual respondents can be assured of complete anonymity, and all analyses will be concerned with overall findings. No individual, school, or school district will be identified or singled out for discussion in the research report.

Very often, valid objections arise because there is no feedback from these studies. Accordingly, if you approve my request, I pledge to send an abstract of the study to every participating school, and of course, one to you as well.

I would greatly appreciate your permission to carry out the proposed research. May I respectfully request your formal authorization to conduct this study in your district, and a directory sheet listing names and addresses of schools, together with the principal's name?

Thank you for your consideration,

Yours sincerely,

Keith Tronc

FACULTY OF EDUCATION DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION



THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

September 6th, 1968.

Dear Principal,

With the approval and encouragement of your Superintendent, I am writing to request your co-operation, and that of your staff also, in an important research study presently being carried out.

Perhaps at this stage, I should tell you a little about myself and my background. I am an Australian educational administrator, currently engaged in doctoral research at the University of Alberta. In Brisbane, Queensland, I was formerly Lecturer in Education at the Kelvin Grove Teachers' College, and University of Queensland. At the present time I hold an inter-Commonwealth award from the Canadian government, and am undertaking an investigation into the relationships between promotional aspirations and the role perceptions of teachers and school administrators. I think you will agree that this is a concern of considerable significance, because as school systems grow in size, and the competition for promotion becomes more intense, it is increasingly difficult for the highly competent administrator (or prospective administrator) to gain the necessary visibility which will ensure selection for advancement.

Your school has been selected for inclusion in this investigation, on the basis of a proportional stratified random sample of all schools in the Greater Vancouver area. For this reason, it would be greatly and sincerely appreciated if you, your vice-principal, and as many of your staff as possible, (hopefully, all your teachers, if this could be arranged) would agree to be involved in the investigation. I am anxious that the sample be as representative as possible of all the schools comprising the area under study, and for this reason respectfully and earnestly request your co-operation.

If you and your staff agree to take part in the study, it would merely involve the completion of a printed questionnaire comprising three short-form instruments—the well known Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, a role orientation scale, and an instrument designed to measure promotional mobility attitudes, all of which are reliable and well-validated social science research instruments. In addition, I would be grateful if you and your vice-principal would respond to one additional form—the Leader Opinion Questionnaire.

This request will not place unreasonable demands upon you and your staff, I assure you. Experience has shown that the time taken to complete the composite questionnaire is usually about twenty-five minutes.

I plan to have responses directly recorded on I.B.M. answer sheets, and machine scored. Complete anonymity is assured. Only the school will be identified in the answer sheet, and that only by number. I would like to emphasize that no individual or school will be singled out for special analysis. My aim is merely to determine differences in promotional aspiration and investigate how this factor is related to selection processes, visibility techniques and differences in role perception.

Very often, valid objections to participating in research studies such as these, arise from the fact that there is little "feedback" from such investigations. Accordingly, if you are interested enough to take part in the study, I pledge to send you an abstract of the research and the results.

If you are agreeable, I would ask you to complete the attached form, and return it to me in the stamped addressed envelope provided, as soon as possible. This form asks you to supply the name of a member of your staff, (it may be yourself, your vice-principal, or a teacher) who would be willing to act as coordinator, and to whom I will mail the questionnaire materials directly.

I thank you most sincerely for your consideration.

Yours fraternally,

Keith Trans

FACULTY OF EDUCATION DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION



THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA EDMONTON 7, CANADA

Name of School:
Address of School:
Dear Mr. Tronc,
Our school agrees to take part in your research.
The name of the Staff Co-ordinator is
(please print).
The mailing address for dispatch of questionnaire materials to the co-ordinator is
The number of teachers on the staff of this school is
Yours faithfully,
(Principal).
Note 1. If your school does <u>not</u> agree to take part in this research, please check here, and return this form in the stamped addressed envelope.
Note 2. If your school has more than one vice-principal, please check here



THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA EDMONTON 7. CANADA

September 20th, 1968.

Dear Co-ordinator,

I am most grateful for your kindness in agreeing to co-ordinate the distribution of questionnaires, and the collection of response sheets in your school, in connection with the research project I am at present undertaking.

MATERIALS FOR DISTRIBUTION

Three kinds of material are enclosed in this package for distribution by you. They are as follows:

- (1) questionnaires to be completed by staff teachers and department heads; each questionnaire is provided with an I.B.M. answer sheet for machine scoring, and an envelope for confidential return of the answer sheet.
- (2) an envelope marked "Principal".
- (3) an envelope marked "Vice-principal".

In addition you will find,

(4) a large master envelope for return of materials to me.

REMINDERS TO RESPONDENTS

When you distribute the envelopes to the respondents, would you please remind them of the following points:

- (1) Use H.B. pencil only, in completing the I.B.M. answer sheets.
- (2) No identification whatsoever is to be placed on answer sheet, questionnaire, or envelope. (The I.D. number already entered on the answer sheets refers only to the school, for purposes of statistical analysis of the whole sample, and will disappear when I start to condense the data. Similarly, the words "Principal"

and "Vice-Principal" have been added to confidential envelopes, only for identification of sectional returns, and once again in this case complete anonymity will be ensured as the data is condensed.)

- (3) All questions must be answered.
- (4) Upon completing the questionnaires, the respondents are to place their <u>answer sheets only</u>, in the envelopes provided, (it is not necessary to return the questionnaire form), seal them, and return them to you.

MAXIMUM POSSIBLE PARTICIPATION

I am anxious that statistical bias be avoided, by gaining responses from as many of the staff members as possible. I would be most grateful therefore, if you would persuade the maximum number of teachers possible, to answer the questionnaire. I have conducted pilot studies, and respondents report that the completion of the questionnaire did not place unreasonable demands upon them. Experience has shown that the average time taken to answer the questions is about twenty-five minutes. Participants were also well satisfied that anonymity was preserved, and found none of the questions objectionable.

SPEEDY RETURN TO ENSURE INDEPENDENT RESPONSES

I would like the answers to be independent, and for this reason might I suggest that you ask the respondents to return the question-naires to you as soon as possible?

RETURN OF ANSWER SHEETS

When you have collected the questionnaires, sealed in their individual envelopes, would you kindly place all these envelopes in the large self-addressed master envelope, and mail it to me? (The number on this envelope is for identification of returns only, and will disappear when I start condensing the data.)

Once again, I would like you to know how grateful I am for your assistance with this investigation.

Yours sincerely,

Keith Tronc

FACULTY OF EDUCATION DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION



THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA EDMONTON 7, CANADA

September 30th, 1968.

Dear Sir,

I would like to express my sincere thanks to you and your staff for agreeing to assist me in my research.

May I now ask a second favour of you? Would you be willing to assist me further, by agreeing to your school's inclusion in a small ten per cent sub-sample of the total study group, for the purpose of additional data collection? This would involve two further requests for your co-operation. Firstly, I would be grateful if you, and as many of your staff as possible, would participate in a test-retest reliability investigation, involving a second response to the original questionnaire, approximately one month after the first. In addition, I hope to check the validity of two of the instruments in the composite questionnaire, by comparing your ratings of staff members, with the results obtained from the scales.

I would be most grateful for your co-operation in these additional phases of the study, and I hope that you will give favorable consideration to this request for your assistance.

Would you be kind enough please, to let me know of your decision?

Yours sincerely,

Keith Tronc

Keith Tronc.

(To Principals of schools in randomly selected sub-sample)



THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA EDMONTON 7, CANADA

October 13th, 1968.

Dear Sir,

Stewart Martin, a former colleague of mine, has suggested that I should write to you. He has expressed a very high opinion indeed of your approachability, your interest in research, and your understanding of its demands.

I previously obtained the approval and encouragement of your superintendent to contact a number of schools in your district, as part of a proportionally stratified random sampling of the whole Greater Vancouver area, in connection with a research project I am presently undertaking, to investigate the relationships between promotional aspirations and role perceptions. I have already been assured of the cooperation of you and your staff, and for this I thank you most sincerely. Now, I have an additional favour to ask of you.

Knowing of your interest in research, I am writing to ask if you would be agreeable to having your school included in a small ten per cent sub-sample of the total study sample. This would involve two additional requests for your co-operation. Firstly, I would be most grateful if you and as many of your staff as possible, would co-operate in a test-retest reliability investigation, involving a second response to the original questionnaire, approximately one month after the first. In addition, I hope to check the validity of two of the instruments in the composite questionnaire, by making use of your confidential ratings of staff members, and comparing these with the results obtained from the scales.

If you would be willing to assist me in this way, may I ask that you yourself act as co-ordinator of the study in your school?

I would be extremely grateful for your co-operation, and I hope that you will give favourable consideration to this additional request for your assistance.

Would you be kind enough please, to let me know of your decision?

Yours sincerely,

Keith Tronc

FACULTY OF EDUCATION DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION



THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA EDMONTON 7. CANADA

October 15th, 1968.

Dear Principal,

Some weeks ago, I wrote asking your co-operation in a research study I am presently conducting. I have enclosed a copy of the original letter.

I am writing to you again at this time, either because I have not received a reply from you as yet, or because you have indicated that your school is unwilling to participate in the research.

If the latter case applies, may I now make a very special plea that you might reconsider your decision. I should like to emphasize that your school was selected for possible participation, upon a random basis, and although the responses have generally been quite good so far, running at well over seventy per cent, I am anxious to obtain as close to complete participation as possible. Only in this way, can I be certain that my statistical analysis is free from bias.

May I stress again that no unreasonable demands will be made upon you and your staff. Would you please reconsider your decision and complete the enclosed form for me? Should you still decide not to participate, I will understand that it is probably for a good reason, but I am anxious to obtain as complete a degree of participation as possible.

Yours sincerely,

Keith Tronc

FACULTY OF EDUCATION DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION



THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA EDMONTON 7, CANADA

October 22nd, 1968.

Dear Sir,

Thank you very much indeed for your kindness in agreeing to my second request for your co-operation. I am most grateful for your readiness to be involved in the "follow-up" reliability and validity tests.

If you recall, I asked in my previous letter if you would be good enough to act as co-ordinator of the investigation in your school. Would you now please draw up a list of numbers, corresponding to the names of your staff members? I will need this list of numbers later, but the corresponding names will remain known only to you.

When you receive both the first set of questionnaires, and again a month later upon receipt of the second set, would you please mark these numbers on the confidential return envelopes, which can thus be paired off according to matched numbers for the necessary calculation of correlations.

With regard to the second half of my request, concerning your confidential ratings of staff members, would you please provide me with the <u>same</u> list of staff code numbers referred to above, accompanied by your ratings of each staff member to the best of your knowledge, in terms of two dimensions--

- (1) <u>Level of promotional aspirations</u>, (or desire for promotion to positions of higher authority; involving commitment to ambition, and readiness to make personal sacrifices in the interests of career advancement).
- and (2) Level of Deference to Superior Authority, (or obedience of orders; conformity with instructions, regulations and rules; concern with pleasing superiors).

Would you please rate each staff member in terms of each of these two dimensions separately, according to the classifications of "high", "medium" and "low".

Once again, may I thank you most sincerely for your co-operation. May I in return, offer my services to you? I expect to be in Vancouver for about a week in November, and if you have had any difficulty obtaining a "resource person" to talk to your pupils in the relevant grades about Australia, perhaps I might be able to help out with a talk on the more interesting aspects of our country, illustrated with posters and slides. Let me know if you are interested.

Yours sincerely,

Keith Trone

FACULTY OF EDUCATION DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION



THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA EDMONTON 7, CANADA

October 27th, 1968.

Dear Co-ordinator,

Some weeks ago, I was kindly permitted to seek the co-operation of teachers and administrators of your school, in a research study I am presently undertaking. Your name was given to me as the co-ordinator of the study at your school, who would organize the distribution of questionnaires and the later collection of I.B.M. answer sheets, for dispatch to me in the large stamped addressed envelope provided. May I thank you once again for your kindness in being willing to assist me in this way.

However, I am writing to you at this time because I have not yet received the completed answer sheets, and I am wondering if the materials have gone astray, either when I originally sent them to you, or when you returned the answer sheets to me. If on the other hand, you have not yet found it convenient to distribute the questionnaires, I would be most grateful if you could manage this as soon as possible, so that I might begin analysis of the data.

Yours sincerely,

Keith Tronc

Keith Tronc.

(Follow-up letter to co-ordinators who were slow in returning materials)

APPENDIX B

THE INSTRUMENTS USED IN THE STUDY

TO ALL TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS

Thank you very much for agreeing to take part in this investigation.

Perhaps at this stage, I should tell you a little more about myself and my background. I am an Australian educational administrator, currently engaged in doctoral research at the University of Alberta. My adviser is Dr. F. Enns. In Brisbane, Queensland, I was formerly Lecturer in Education at the Kelvin Grove Teachers' College, and University of Queensland. At the present time I hold an inter-Commonwealth award from the Canadian government, and am undertaking an investigation into certain aspects of the role perceptions held by teachers and school administrators.

For the purposes of this study, a random selection was made from all schools in the greater Vancouver area. Your school was one of those chosen. I would be most grateful if you would now assist me by completing the following questionnaire. All information provided will be treated in the strictest confidence.

I assure you that my request will not place unreasonable demands upon your time. I have conducted a pilot study, and respondents reported that the time taken to complete the questionnaire is usually about 20 minutes. Participants were also well satisfied that anonymity is preserved, and found none of the questions objectionable.

I would be very grateful if you could find the time to complete the questionnaire within the next few days. May I extend my thanks, in anticipation of your cooperation?

Yours sincerely,

PERCEPTIONS QUESTIONNAIRE ROLE

INSTRUCTIONS

Please Read Carefully!

YOU ARE ASKED TO RECORD YOUR RESPONSES DIRECTLY ON TO THE ENCLOSED I.B.M. ANSWER SHEET. THIS WILL BE MACHINE SCORED AND THE DATA ANALYSED BY COMPUTER. IN ORDER THAT COMPLETE ANONYMITY MAY BE PRESERVED, YOU ARE ASKED NOT TO IDENTIFY YOURSELF IN ANY WAY ON THIS SHEET, EVEN THOUGH IT MAY HAVE PROVISION FOR YOUR NAME AND SCHOOL. (THE I.D. NUMBER ALREADY ENTERED UPON THE SHEET REFERS TO THE SCHOOL, AND IS NECESSARY FOR PURPOSES OF PRELIMINARY CLASSIFICATION OF DATA. SCHOOLS WILL NOT BE IDENTIFIED IN ANY WAY IN THE FINAL REPORT.)

IT IS IMPORTANT THAT YOUR ANSWERS BE INDEPENDENT. PLEASE DO NOT DISCUSS YOUR ANSWERS WITH OTHER TEACHERS. PLEASE BE FRANK IN YOUR RESPONSE, WITH THE ASSURANCE THAT INDIVIDUAL ANSWERS ARE STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL. ALTHOUGH THERE IS NO TIME LIMIT, IT WILL PROBABLY TAKE ABOUT 20 MINUTES TO COMPLETE THE QUESTIONNAIRE.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE HAS 4 PARTS, TO BE ANSWERED BY ALL TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS, AND A FIFTH SECTION TO BE ANSWERED BY TEACHERS ONLY. USE PART ONE OF THE ANSWER SHEET TO RECORD YOUR RESPONSES TO PART ONE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE; PART TWO OF THE ANSWER SHEET FOR PART TWO OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE, AND SO ON.

IMPORTANT

- *Please use H.B. pencil only, for recording your answers, and do not make answer strokes longer than the guidelines.
- *Please do not fold an answer sheet, nor bend any of the corners.

*Please respond to every question.
*Teachers, please answer Parts One to Five.

*Administrators, please answer Parts One to Four.

PART ONE -- PERSONAL AND SCHOOL DATA QUESTIONNAIRE

To be answered by all teachers and administrators.

Answer on Part One of the I.B.M. answer sheet.

- (1) SEX
 - 1. Male 2. Female
- (2) PRESENT POSITION
 - Classroom teacher 4. Principal
 - Department head
- Other
- 3. Vice-principal
- (3) ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL TRAINING
 - 1. I do not hold a university degree
 - 2. One bachelor's degree
 - 3. One bachelor's degree and diploma
 - 4. Two or more bachelor's degrees
 - 5. Master's degree or higher
- (4) TEACHING LEVEL (primary responsibility)
 - Elementary grades
 - 2. Junior Secondary grades
 - 3. Senior Secondary grades
- (5) AGE
 - 1. 25 or less
- 4. 46 to 55 years
- 26 to 35 years 2.
- 5. 56 years and over
- 36 to 45 years
- (6) MARITAL STATUS
 - 1. Single 2. Married 3. Other

- (7) TEACHING EXPERIENCE (Include administrative experience, and count present year as one full year)
 - 1. 1 to 5 years
- 4. 21 to 30 years
- 2. 6 to 10 years
- 5. 31 years or more
- 11 to 20 years
- DESIRE FOR PROMOTION. Do you aspire to a higher position of authority than that which you presently occupy?
 - Yes , 2. No
- (9) NUMBER OF YEARS IN PRESENT AUTHORITY POSITION (that is, as a teacher, or as vice-principal, or principal). Count the present year as a full year.
 - 1. 1 to 5 years
- 16 to 20 years
 21 years or more
- 2. 6 to 10 years
- 3. 11 to 15 years
- (10) TYPE OF SCHOOL
 - 1. Elementary
 - Elementary-Junior Secondary
 - Junior Secondary
 Senior Secondary

 - 5. Secondary
- (11) NUMBER OF FULL TIME STAFF (include both teachers and administrators)
 - 4. 41-50 5. 51 or more 1. 1-20
 - 21-30
 - 31-40

PART TWO -- MOBILITY ATTITUDES

To be answered by all teachers and administrators.

Answer on Part Two of the I.B.M. answer sheet.

THIS SECTION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE CONSISTS OF A NUMBER OF STATEMENTS OF OPINION CONCERNING JOBS, PROMOTION, AND RESPONSIBILITIES. PLEASE INDICATE YOUR AGREEMENT OR DISAGREEMENT WITH EACH OF THE STATE-MENTS, BY CHOOSING THE APPROPRIATE SYMBOL. THE SYMBOLS HAVE THESE MEANINGS:

1(SA) - strongly agree
2(A) - agree
3(U) - undecided

(12) I'D PROBABLY TURN DOWN A SUBSTANTIAL ADVANCE-MENT IF IT INVOLVED BEING AWAY FROM THE FAMILY A GOOD DEAL.

1(SA) 2(A) 3(U) 4(D) 5(SD)

(13) I WOULDN'T LET MY FRIENDSHIP TIES IN A COMMUNITY STAND IN THE WAY OF MOVING ON TO A BETTER JOB.

1(SA) 2(A) 3(U) 4(D) 5(SD)

(14) ONE THING THAT WOULD KEEP ME FROM MOVING UP IS THE THOUGHT OF THE INCREASED RESPONSIBILITY BREATHING DOWN YOUR NECK IN THE BETTER JOBS.

1(SA) 2(A) 3(U) 4(D) 5(SD)

(15) I WOULD PROBABLY TURN DOWN A POSITION THAT WOULD ALLOW ME LESS FREEDOM TO EXPRESS MY VIEWS ON POLITICAL MATTERS.

1(SA) 2(A) 3(U) 4(D) 5(SD)

(16) I'D TURN DOWN A JOB THAT MIGHT BE A REAL STEP-PING STONE, IF THE JOB WAS ONE WHERE YOU COULDN'T TRY OUT YOUR OWN IDEAS.

1(SA) 2(A) 3(U) 4(D) 5(SD)

(17) THE MAN WHO SAYS HE ISN'T OUT TO "GET AHEAD"
IN HIS FIELD IS EITHER KIDDING HIMSELF OR TRYING TO KID OTHERS.

1(SA) 2(A) 3(U) 4(D) 5(SD)

(18) GENERALLY SPEAKING, IF A PERSON STAYS ON IN ONE OF THE SMALLER JOBS FOR MANY YEARS, IT'S LIKELY HE WOULDN'T BE MUCH, EVEN IF HE GOT PROMOTED.

1(SA) 2(A) 3(U) 4(D) 5(SD)

4(D) - disagree 5(SD) - strongly disagree

(19) I'D BE ALL IN FAVOR OF STAYING WITH A JOB THAT MIGHT NEVER GET ME MUCH PRESTIGE AS A "BIG-SHOT" BUT WAS A GOOD BET AS FAR AS PEACE OF MIND WAS CONCERNED.

1(SA) 2(A) 3(U) 4(D) 5(SD)

(20) I WOULDN'T TAKE A PROMOTION, NO MATTER HOW BIG AN IMPROVEMENT IT WAS FOR ME, IF IT MEANT ENDANGERING MY HEALTH.

1(SA) 2(A) 3(U) 4(D) 5(SD)

(21) A PERSON MUST BE WILLING TO PUT OFF HAVING CHILDREN FOR A WHILE, IF HE WANTS TO BE READY TO TAKE ADVANTAGE OF THE OPPORTUNITIES FOR ADVANCEMENT.

1(SA) 2(A) 3(U) 4(D) 5(SD)

(22) I WOULDN'T LET BEING A "STRANGER" FOR A WHILE KEEP ME FROM MOVING EVERY SO OFTEN TO A HIGHER POSITION IN A NEW COMMUNITY.

1(SA) 2(A) 3(U) 4(D) 5(SD)

(23) I'VE MORE OR LESS HAD A LONG-RANGE PLAN FOR MYSELF, AND MOVING EVERY NOW AND THEN TO GET NEW EXPERIENCE IS PART OF IT.

1(SA) 2(A) 3(U) 4(D) 5(SD)

(24) IT'S WORTH CONSIDERABLE EFFORT TO ASSURE ONE'S SELF OF A GOOD NAME WITH THE RIGHT KIND OF PEOPLE.

1(SA) 2(A) 3(U) 4(D) 5(SD)

(25) I REALLY PREFER TO PUT MY ROOTS IN SOLID IN A COMMUNITY, RATHER THAN MOVE AS THE CHANCES FOR ADVANCEMENT COME ALONG.

1(SA) 2(A) 3(U) 4(D) 5(SD)

PART THREE -- ROLE ORIENTATIONS

To be answered by all teachers and administrators.

Answer on Part Three of the I.B.M. answer sheet.

AS IN PART TWO PREVIOUSLY, SELECT THE SYMBOL WHICH BEST INDICATES THE EXTENT OF YOUR AGREEMENT WITH THE STATEMENT.

(26) IT SHOULD BE PERMISSIBLE FOR A TEACHER TO VIOLATE A RULE, IF IT IS FELT THAT THE BEST INTERESTS OF THE STUDENT WILL BE SERVED IN DOING SO.

1(SA) 2(A) 3(U) 4(D) 5(SD)

(27) UNLESS A TEACHER IS SATISFIED THAT IT IS BEST FOR THE STUDENT, HE SHOULD NOT CARRY OUT THE ORDER WHICH HE HAS BEEN GIVEN.

1(SA) 2(A) 3(U) 4(D) 5(SD)

(28) A GOOD TEACHER SHOULD NOT DO ANYTHING THAT MAY JEDPARDIZE THE INTERESTS OF THE STUDENTS, REGARDLESS OF WHO GIVES THE DIRECTIVE OR WHAT THE RULE STATES.

1(SA) 2(A) 3(U) 4(D) 5(SD)

(29) TEACHERS SHOULD TRY TO LIVE UP TO WHAT THEY THINK ARE THE STANDARDS OF THE PROFESSION, EVEN IF THE ADMINISTRATION OR THE COMMUNITY DOES NOT SEEM TO RESPECT THEM.

1(SA) 2(A) 3(U) 4(D) 5(SD)

(30) IN VIEW OF THE TEACHER SHORTAGE, IT SHOULD BE PERMISSIBLE TO HIRE TEACHERS WITH LETTERS OF PERMISSION.

1(SA) 2(A) 3(U) 4(D) 5(SD)

(31) A TEACHER SHOULD TRY TO PUT THE STANDARDS AND IDEALS OF GOOD TEACHING INTO PRACTICE, EVEN IF THE RULES OR PROCEDURES OF THE SCHOOL DISCOURAGE IT.

1(SA) 2(A) 3(U) 4(D) 5(SD)

- TEACHERS SHOULD SUBSCRIBE TO, AND READ DILI-GENTLY, THE STANDARD PROFESSIONAL JOURNALS. 3(U) 4(D) 1(SA) 2(A)
- A TEACHER SHOULD BE AN ACTIVE MEMBER OF AT LEAST ONE SPECIALIST ASSOCIATION.

5(SD) 3(U) 4(D) 2(A) 1(SA)

A TEACHER SHOULD CONSISTENTLY MAKE USE OF IDEAS FROM THE BEST EDUCATIONAL PRACTICES EVEN THOUGH THE ADMINISTRATION PREFERS OTHER VIEWS.

> 4(D) 5(SD) 2(A) 3(U) 1(SA)

THE MAJOR SKILL WHICH A TEACHER SHOULD DEVELOP (35) IS AN ACQUAINTANCE WITH THE SUBJECT MATTER.

3(U) 4(D) 1(SA) 2(A)

TEACHERS SHOULD BE EVALUATED PRIMARILY ON (36) THE BASIS OF THEIR KNOWLEDGE OF THE SUBJECT THAT THEY TEACH, AND ON THE BASIS OF THEIR ABILITY TO COMMUNICATE IT.

> 5(SD) 1(SA) 2(A) 3(U) 4(D)

(37) SCHOOLS SHOULD HIRE NO ONE TO TEACH UNLESS THE PERSON HOLDS AT LEAST A BACHELOR'S DEGREE IN EDUCATION.

> 4(D) 5(SD) 3(U) 2(A) 1(SA)

ONE PRIMARY CRITERION OF A GOOD SCHOOL SHOULD BE THE DEGREE OF RESPECT THAT IT COMMANDS FROM OTHER TEACHERS AROUND THE PROVINCE.

> 2(A) 3(U) 4(D) 5(SD) 1(SA)

TEACHERS SHOULD BE ABLE TO MAKE THEIR OWN (39) DECISIONS ABOUT PROBLEMS THAT COME UP IN THE CLASSROOM.

> 5(SD) 4(D) 2(A) 3(U) 1(SA)

THE ULTIMATE AUTHORITY OVER THE MAJOR EDUCA-(40) TIONAL DECISIONS SHOULD BE EXERCISED BY QUALIFIED TEACHERS.

> 5(SD) 3(U) 4(D) 1(SA) 2(A)

SMALL MATTERS SHOULD NOT HAVE TO BE REFERRED (41)TO SOMEONE HIGHER UP FOR A FINAL ANSWER.

> 5(SD) 3(U) 4(D) 1(SA) 2(A)

PART FOUR -- LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

To be answered by all teachers and administrators.

Answer on Part Four of the I.B.M. answer sheet.

SET OUT BELOW IS A LIST OF ITEMS THAT MAY BE USED TO DESCRIBE YOUR LEADER'S BEHAVIOR. EACH ITEM DESCRIBES A SPECIFIC KIND OF BEHAVIOR, BUT DOES NOT ASK YOU TO JUDGE WHETHER THE BEHAVIOR IS DESIRABLE OR UNDESTRABLE. PLEASE DO NOT EVALUATE THE ITEMS IN TERMS OF GOOD OR BAD, BUT READ EACH ITEM CAREFULLY, AND DESCRIBE AS ACCURATELY AS YOU CAN, THE ACTUAL BEHAVIOR OF YOUR LEADER IN TERMS OF THE ACTIONS REFERRED TO.

IMPORTANT!

- *Teachers respond by describing your vice-principal's behavior.
- *Vice-principals respond by describing your principal's behavior. *Principals - respond by describing the behavior of your immediate superior.

DIRECTIONS:

- READ each item carefully.
- THINK about how frequently the leader engages in the behavior described by the item, and DECIDE Ь. whether he always, often, occasionally, seldom or never acts in this way.

CHOOSE the appropriate symbol.

1(Alw) - Always 2(Oft) - Often 3(Occ) - Occasionally

HE DOES PERSONAL FAVORS FOR GROUP MEMBERS. (42) 3(0cc) 4(Sel) 5(Nev) 2(0ft) 1(Alw)

- (43) HE MAKES HIS ATTITUDES CLEAR TO THE GROUP. 3(0cc) 4(Sel) 5(Nev) 2(0ft) 1(Alw)
- HE DOES LITTLE THINGS TO MAKE IT PLEASANT TO BE A MEMBER OF THE GROUP. 4(Se1) 5(Nev) 3(0cc) 2(0ft) 1(Alw)
- (45) HE TRIES OUT HIS NEW IDEAS WITH THE GROUP. 5(Nev) 3(0cc) 4(Se1) 2(0ft) 1(A1w)
- (46) HE ACTS AS THE REAL LEADER OF THE GROUP. 3(0cc) 4(Sel) 5(Nev) 2(0ft) 1(Alw)
- (47) HE IS EASY TO UNDERSTAND. 5(Nev) 2(0ft) 3(0cc) 4(Sel) 1(Alw)
- (48) HE RULES WITH AN IRON HAND. 5(Nev) 4(Se1) 2(0ft) 3(0cc) 1(Alw)

4(Sel) - Seldom 5(Nev) - Never

- (49) HE FINDS TIME TO LISTEN TO GROUP MEMBERS. 5(Nev) 2(0ft) 3(0cc) 4(Se1) 1(Alw)
- (50) HE CRITICIZES POOR WORK. 2(0ft) 5(Nev) 4(Sel) 3(0cc) 1(Alw)
- HE GIVES ADVANCE NOTICE OF CHANGES. (51) 4(Se1) 5(Nev) 2(0ft) 3(0cc) 1(Alw)
- HE SPEAKS IN A MANNER NOT TO BE QUESTIONED. (52) 2(0ft) 4(Se1) 5(Nev) 3(0cc) 1(Alw)
- HE KEEPS TO HIMSELF. (53)5(Nev) 4(Se1) 2(0ft) 3(0cc) 1(Alw)
- HE LOOKS OUT FOR THE PERSONAL WELFARE OF (54)INDIVIDUAL GROUP MEMBERS. 5(Nev) 4(Sel) 2(0ft) 3(0cc) 1(Alw)
- (55) HE ASSIGNS GROUP MEMBERS TO PARTICULAR TASKS. 3(0cc) 4(Sel) 5(Nev) 1(Alw) 2(0ft)

- (56) HE IS THE SPOKESMAN OF THE GROUP.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (57) HE SCHEDULES THE WORK TO BE DONE.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (58) HE MAINTAINS DEFINITE STANDARDS OF PERFOR-MANCE.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (59) HE REFUSES TO EXPLAIN HIS ACTIONS.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (60) HE KEEPS THE GROUP INFORMED. 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (61) HE ACTS WITHOUT CONSULTING THE GROUP.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (62) HE BACKS UP THE MEMBERS IN THEIR ACTIONS.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (63) HE EMPHASIZES THE MEETING OF DEADLINES.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (64) HE TREATS ALL GROUP MEMBERS AS HIS EQUALS.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (65) HE ENCOURAGES THE USE OF UNIFORM PROCEDURES.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (66) HE GETS WHAT HE ASKS FOR FROM HIS SUPERIORS. 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (67) HE IS WILLING TO MAKE CHANGES.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (68) HE MAKES SURE THAT HIS PART IN THE ORGANIZATION IS UNDERSTOOD BY GROUP MEMBERS.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (69) HE IS FRIENDLY AND APPROACHABLE.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)

- (70) HE ASKS THAT GROUP MEMBERS FOLLOW STANDARD RULES AND REGULATIONS.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (71) HE FAILS TO TAKE NECESSARY ACTION.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (72) HE MAKES GROUP MEMBERS FEEL AT EASE WHEN TALKING WITH THEM.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(New
- (73) HE LETS GROUP MEMBERS KNOW WHAT IS EXPECTED OF THEM.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (74) HE SPEAKS AS THE REPRESENTATIVE OF THE GROUP. 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (75) HE PUTS SUGGESTIONS MADE BY THE GROUP INTO OPERATION.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (76) HE SEES TO IT THAT GROUP MEMBERS ARE WORKING UP TO CAPACITY.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (77) HE LETS OTHER PEOPLE TAKE AWAY HIS LEADER-SHIP IN THE GROUP. 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (78) HE GETS HIS SUPERIORS TO ACT FOR THE WELFARE OF THE GROUP MEMBERS.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (79) HE GETS GROUP APPROVAL IN IMPORTANT MATTERS BEFORE GOING AHEAD.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (80) HE SEES TO IT THAT THE WORK OF GROUP MEMBERS IS COORDINATED.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (81) HE KEEPS THE GROUP WORKING TOGETHER AS A TEAM.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Mey)

PART FIVE -- TEACHERS' LEADERSHIP OPINION QUESTIONNAIRE To be answered only by teachers.

Answer on Part Five of the I.B.M. answer sheet.

INSTRUCTIONS: SET OUT BELOW IS A LIST OF ITEMS WHICH MAY BE USED TO DESCRIBE YOUR BEHAVIOR AS A TEACHER, WHILE ACTING AS LEADER IN THE CLASSROOM SETTING. THE ITEMS MAY APPEAR TO BE VERY SIMILAR TO THOSE IN PART FOUR PREVIOUSLY, BUT A DIFFERENT PERSPECTIVE IS NOW REQUIRED. PREVIOUSLY, ITEMS LIKE THESE SERVED AS DESCRIPTIONS OF YOUR VICE-PRINCIPAL'S LEADER BEHAVIOR, BUT NOW THEY WILL APPLY TO THE "IDEAL" BEHAVIOR OF A TEACHER AS CLASSROOM LEADER.

DIRECTIONS:

- a. READ each item carefully.
- b. THINK about how frequently <u>you</u> the teacher, acting as classroom leader, <u>should</u> engage in the behavior described by the item.
- c. DECIDE whether you should always, often, occasionally, seldom, or never act as described by the item.
- d. CHOOSE the appropriate symbol, as in PART TWO previously.

What the IDEAL teacher SHOULD do, as leader of his class of pupils.

- (82) DO PERSONAL FAVOURS FOR CLASS MEMBERS.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Se1) 5(Nev)
- (83) MAKE HIS ATTITUDES CLEAR TO THE CLASS.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)

- (84) DO LITTLE THINGS TO MAKE IT PLEASANT TO BE A MEMBER OF HIS CLASS.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (85) TRY OUT HIS NEW IDEAS WITH THE CLASS.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (86) ACT AS THE REAL LEADER OF THE CLASS.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (87) BE EASY TO UNDERSTAND. 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (88) RULE WITH AN IRON HAND. 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (89) FIND TIME TO LISTEN TO CLASS MEMBERS.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (90) CRITICIZE POOR WORK.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (91) GIVE ADVANCE NOTICE OF CHANGES.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (92) SPEAK IN A MANNER NOT TO BE QUESTIONED.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (93) KEEP TO HIMSELF. 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (94) LOOK OUT FOR THE PERSONAL WELFARE OF INDIVID-UAL MEMBERS OF THE CLASS. 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (95) ASSIGN CLASS MEMBERS TO PARTICULAR TASKS. 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (96) BE THE SPOKESMAN OF THE CLASS.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (97) SCHEDULE THE WORK TO BE DONE.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (98) MAINTAIN DEFINITE STANDARDS OF PERFORMANCE.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (99) REFUSE TO EXPLAIN HIS ACTIONS.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (100) KEEP THE CLASS INFORMED.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (101) ACT WITHOUT CONSULTING THE CLASS.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (102) BACK UP THE CLASS MEMBERS IN THEIR ACTIONS.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Ney)
- (103) EMPHASIZE THE MEETING OF DEADLINES.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)

- (104) TREAT ALL MEMBERS OF HIS CLASS AS HIS EQUALS.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (105) ENCOURAGE THE USE OF UNIFORM PROCEDURES.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (106) GET WHAT HE ASKS FOR FROM HIS SUPERIORS. 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (107) BE WILLING TO MAKE CHANGES.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (108) MAKE SURE THAT HIS PART IN THE ORGANIZATION IS UNDERSTOOD BY CLASS MEMBERS.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (109) BE FRIENDLY AND APPROACHABLE.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (110) ASK THAT MEMBERS OF HIS CLASS FOLLOW STANDARD RULES AND REGULATIONS.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Ney)
- (111) FAIL TO TAKE NECESSARY ACTION.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (112) MAKE MEMBERS OF HIS CLASS FEEL AT EASE WHEN TALKING WITH THEM.

 1(A)w) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (113) LET HIS PUPILS KNOW WHAT IS EXPECTED OF THEM.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (114) SPEAK AS THE REPRESENTATIVE OF THE CLASS.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (115) PUT SUGGESTIONS MADE BY THE CLASS INTO OPERATION.
 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (116) SEE TO IT THAT MEMBERS OF THE CLASS ARE WORKING UP TO CAPACITY.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (117) LET OTHER PEOPLE TAKE AWAY HIS LEADERSHIP IN THE CLASS.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (118) GET HIS SUPERIORS TO ACT FOR THE WELFARE OF THE CLASS MEMBERS.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (119) GET CLASS APPROVAL IN IMPORTANT MATTERS BEFORE GOING AHEAD.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (120) SEE TO IT THAT THE WORK OF CLASS MEMBERS IS COORDINATED.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)
- (121) KEEP THE CLASS WORKING TOGETHER AS A TEAM.

 1(Alw) 2(Oft) 3(Occ) 4(Sel) 5(Nev)

WHEN YOU HAVE COMPLETED THE QUESTIONNAIRE, PLACE THE I.B.M. ANSWER SHEET IN THE CONFIDENTIAL RETURN ENVELOPE, SEAL IT, AND HAND IT TO THE STAFF CO-ORDINATOR.

THANK YOU AGAIN FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE. I AM MOST GRATEFUL FOR IT. I SHALL SEND AN ABSTRACT OF THE RESULTS OF THE STUDY AS SOON AS THE DATA HAS BEEN ANALYSED.

IMPORTANT!

PRINCIPALS AND VICE-PRINCIPALS PLEASE NOTE.

Dear Administrator,

Instead of Part Five of the Role Perceptions Questionnaire which was designed for <u>teacher</u> responses, you are asked to answer this Leadership Opinion Questionnaire.

Would you please answer on Part Five of your I.B.M. answer sheet.

Where a statement reads "unit", substitute the word "school".

INSTRUCTIONS:

For each item, choose the alternative which most nearly expresses your opinion on how frequently you should do what is described by that item. Always indicate what you, as an administrator, sincerely believe to be the desirable way to act. Please remember—there are no right or wrong answers to these questions. Different administrators have different experiences, and we are interested only in your opinions.

As before, select a response category of 1 to 5, corresponding with the frequency you believe most desirable. Assume the response alternatives provided, to be always numbered vertically, beginning with 1 at the top and progressing downwards to 5, as shown:

- 1. Always
- 2. Often
- 3. Occasionally
- 4. Seldom
- 5. Never



(Middle)

(First)

(Last)

Score Group
%-tile
Scale

For

For each item, choose the alternative which most nearly expresses your opinion on how frequently you should do what is described by that item. Always indicate what you, as a supervisor, or manager, sincerely believe to be the desirable way to act. Please remember—there are no right or wrong answers to these questions. Different supervisors have different experiences and we are interested only in your opinions.

INSTRUCTIONS:

Answer the items by marking an "X" in the box before the alternative that best expresses your feeling about the item. Mark only one alternative for each item. If you wish to change your answer, draw a circle around your first "X" and mark a new "X" in the appropriate box.

SªR A

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l. Put the welfare of your unit above the welfare of any person in it.	☐ Always ☐ Often ☐ Occasionally ☐ Seldom ☐ Never	11. Be slow to adopt new ideas.	Always Often Occasionally Seldom Never
2. Give in to your subordinates in discussions with them.	Often Fairly often Occasionally Once in a while Very Seldom	12. Get the approval of persons under you on important matters before going ahead.	☐ Always ☐ Often ☐ Occasionally ☐ Seldom ☐ Never
3. Encourage after-duty work by persons of your unit.	A great deal Fairly often To some degree Once in a while Very seldom	13. Resist changes in ways of doing things.	A great deal Fairly much To some degree Comparatively little Not at all
4. Try out your own new ideas in the unit.	Often Fairly often Occasionally Once in a while Very seldom	14. Assign persons under you to par- ticular tasks.	☐ Always ☐ Often ☐ Occasionally ☐ Seldom ☐ Never
5. Back up what persons under you do.	Always Often Occasionally Seldom Never	15. Speak in a manner not to be questioned.	Always Often Occasionally Seldom Never
6. Criticize poor work.	☐ Always ☐ Often ☐ Occasionally ☐ Seldom ☐ Never	16. Stress importance of being ahead of other units.	A great deal Fairly much To some degree Comparatively little Not at all
7. Ask for more than the persons under you can accomplish.	☐ Often ☐ Fairly often ☐ Occasionally ☐ Once in a while ☐ Very seldom	17. Criticize a specific act rather than a particular member of your unit.	Always Often Occasionally Seldom Never
8. Refuse to compromise a point.	☐ Always ☐ Often ☐ Occasionally ☐ Seldom ☐ Never	18. Let the persons under you do their work the way they think is best.	☐ Always ☐ Often ☐ Occasionally ☐ Seldom ☐ Never
9. Insist that persons under you follow to the letter those standard routines handed down to you.	Always Often Occasionally Seldom Never	19. Do personal favors for persons under you.	☐ Often ☐ Fairly often ☐ Occasionally ☐ Once in a while ☐ Very seldom
10. Help persons under you with their personal problems.	☐ Often ☐ Fairly often ☐ Occasionally ☐ Once in a while ☐ Very seldom	20. Emphasize meeting of deadlines.	☐ A great deal ☐ Fairly much ☐ To some degree ☐ Comparatively little ☐ Not at all

					+
21. Insist that you be informed on decisions made by persons under you.	Alway Often Occasi Seldor Never	sionally om	31. See to it that persons under you are working up to capacity.		Always Often Occasionally Seldom Never
22. Offer new approaches to problems.	Once i	/ often sionally in a while	32. Stand up for persons under you, even though it makes you unpopular with others.		Always Often Occasionally Seldom Never
23. Treat all persons under you as your equals.	Alway Often Occasi Seldot Never	sionally om	33. Put suggestions made by persons in the unit into operation.		Often Fairly often Occasionally Once in a while Very seldom
24. Be willing to make changes.	Alway Often Occasi Seldo Never	i sionally om	34. Refuse to explain your actions.		Often Fairly often Occasionally Once in a while Very seldom
25. Talk about how much should be done.	Fairly To so	y much ome degree paratively little	35. Ask for sacrifices from persons under you for the good of your entire unit.		Often Fairly often Occasionally Once in a while Very seldom
26. Wait for persons in your unit to push new ideas.	Alway Often Occas Seldo Never	n sionally om	36. Act without consulting persons under you.		Often Fairly often Occasionally Once in a while Very seldom
27. Rule with an iron hand.	Alway Often Occas Seldo Never	n sionally om	37. "Needle" persons under you for greater effort.	00000	A great deal Fairly much To some degree Comparatively little Not at all
28. Reject suggestions for changes.	Alway Often Occas Seldo Neve	n n sionally om	38. Insist that everything be done your way.		Always Often Occasionally Seldom Never
29. Change the duties of persons under you without first talking it over with them.	☐ 0ccas	n ly often sionally e in a while y seldom	39. Encourage slow-working persons in your unit to work harder.		Often Fairly often Occasionally Once in a while Very seldom
30. Decide in detail what shall be done and how it shall be done by the persons under you.	Alway Often Occas Seldo Neve	n nsionally om	40. Meet with the persons in your unit at certain regularly scheduled times.		Always Often Occasionally Seldom Never

APPENDIX C

STATISTICAL DATA OF SUPPLEMENTARY ANALYSES

TABLE XXXIV

MEAN SCORES FOR LEADER BEHAVIOR PERCEIVED APPROPRIATE FOR PRESENT POSITION, AND SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN FEMALE TEACHERS AND MALE TEACHERS

(N = 1069; 704 female teachers, 365 male teachers)

	Mean Score	Male Teachers Mean Score	S.D.1	S.D. ₁ S.D. ₂ d.f.	d.f.	4	P (on	P(one-tail)	<u></u>
Initiating Structure	45.95	44.14	5.14	5.14 6.16	1067	5.077	1067 5.077 beyond .001 level	100.	level
Consideration	45.10	43.06	4.87	2.67	1067	6.109	1067 6.109 beyond .001 level	.001	level
	d.f.	ان	•	t-prime			P (on	P(one-tail)	
Initiating Structure	631.47	.47		4.80			beyond .001 level	100	level
Consideration	646.05	.05		5.83			beyond .001 level	.001	level

TABLE XXXV

MEAN SCORES FOR LEADER BEHAVIOR PERCEIVED APPROPRIATE FOR PRESENT POSITION, AND SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN FEMALE ADMINISTRATORS AND MALE ADMINISTRATORS

(N = 132; 5 female administrators, 127 male administrators)

	Female Administrators' Mean Score	Male Administrators' Mean Score	S.D.1	S.D. ₁ S.D. ₂ d.f.	d.f.	t,	P(one-tail)
Initiating Structure	20.60	48.57	16.52	16.52 12.29 130	130	0.353	N.S.
Consideration	49.40	51.84	8.45		9.36 130	-0.570	N.S.
	Welch to	Welch t-prime approximation on variables	variab	les			
	d.f.	<u>;</u>		t-prime			P(one-tail)
Initiating Structure	4.18	18		0.27			N.S.
Consideration	4.39	39	•	-0.63			N.S.

TABLE XXXVI

IONS OF NSION	Ь	beyond .001 level*	beyond .001 level	beyond .001 level	beyond .001 level	beyond .001 level	.05 level
PERCEPT RE DIME	ட	65.36	23.66	38.58	14.29	25.69	3.00
IS AND I	d.f.	64	64	62	62	2 62	1066
MOBILITY ORIENTATIONS AND PERCEPTIONS OF HAVIOR, INITIATING STRUCTURE DIMENSION	M.S.	3303.09 50.54	2091.53 88.40	2974.59 77.10	1671.25 116.93	2431.19 94.63	93.00
SILITY OR	5.5.	0.6606	0.4183 0.5658	0.5949	0.3343	0.4862	0.1860
88	Criterion	L.O.Q. Structure	L.O.Q. Structure	L.O.Q. Structure	L.O.Q. Structure	L.O.Q. Structure	LBDQ "Ideal" Initiating Structure
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: APPROPRIATE LEADER	Predictor Groups	Principals high, medium and low total mobility orientation	Principals high, medium and low vertical mobility orientation	Vice-principals high, medium and low total mobility orientation	Vice-principals high, medium and low vertical mobility orientation	Vice-principals high, medium and low geographical mobili- ty orientation	Teachers high, medium and low vertical mobility orientation

*Keeping Test indicated departure from homogeneity of variance and significance level should be discounted somewhat.

TABLE XXXVII

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: MOBILITY ORIENTATIONS AND PERCEPTIONS OF APPROPRIATE LEADER BEHAVIOR, CONSIDERATION DIMENSION

Predictor Groups	Criterion	5.5.	M.S.	d.f.	Ŀ	d.
Principalshigh, medium and low total mobility orientation	L.O.Q. Consideration	0.3953 0.2575	1976.50 40.24	2 64	49.12	beyond .001 level
Principals high, medium and low vertical mobility orientation	L.O.Q. Consideration	0.1923 0.4605	961.44 71.96	2 64	13.36	beyond .001 level
Principals high, medium and low geographical mobility orientation	L.O.Q. Consideration	0.2181	1090.59 67.92	2 64	16.06	beyond .001 level
Vice-principalshigh, medium and low total mobility orientation	L.O.Q. Consideration	0.1765 0.3193	882.59	62	17.14	beyond .001 level
Vice-principalshigh, medium and low vertical mobility orientation	L.O.Q. Consideration	0.1051 0.3908	525.31 63.03	2 62	8.33	beyond .001 level
Vice-principalshigh, medium and low geographical mobility orientation	L.O.Q. Consideration	0.1273	636.47 59.44	62	10.71	beyond .001 level
Teachershigh, medium and low vertical mobility orientation	LBDQ "Ideal" Consideration	0.2740	137.00 27.36	2 1066	5.01	beyond .001 level

TABLE XXXVIII

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: MOBILITY ORIENTATIONS AND PERCEPTIONS OF IMMEDIATE SUPERIORS' ACTUAL LEADER BEHAVIOR, INITIATING STRUCTURE DIMENSION

Predictor Groups	Criterion	5.5.	M.S.	d.f.	Ŀ	ط
Principalshigh, medium and low total mobility orientation	LBDQ Initiating Structure	0.1851	925.38 39.39	64	23.49	beyond .001 level*
Principalshigh, medium, and low vertical mobility orientation	LBDQ Initiating Structure	0.1167	583.41 50.08	2 64	11.65	beyond .001 level
Vice-principals high, medium, and low total mobility orientation	LBDQ Initiating Structure	0.9679	483.97 46.00	62	10.52	beyond .001 level*
Vice-principals high, medium, and low vertical mobility orientation	LBDQ Initiating Structure	0.7299	364.97 49.84	62	7.32	.001 level
Vice-principals high, medium, and low <u>geographical</u> mobility orientation	LBDQ Initiating Structure	0.6413	320.62 51.27	29	6.25	.005 level
L					7	

*Keeping Test indicated departure from homogeneity of variance, and significance level should be discounted somewhat.

TABLE XXXIX

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: MOBILITY ORIENTATIONS AND PERCEPTIONS OF IMMEDIATE SUPERIORS' ACTUAL LEADER BEHAVIOR, CONSIDERATION DIMENSION

Predictor Groups	Criterion	5.8.	M.S.	d.f.	LL.	Ь
Principalshigh, medium, and low total mobility orientation	LBDQ Consideration	0.1367	688.22 51.34	2 64	13.40	beyond .001 level*
Principalshigh, medium, and low vertical mobility orientation	LBDQ Consideration	0.1860	930.09 43.78	2 64	21.24	beyond .001 level
Vice-principals high, medium, and low total mobility orientation	LBDQ Consideration	0.2422 1211.22 0.3813 61.50	61.50	62	19.69	beyond .001 level
Vice-principals high, medium, and low vertical mobility orientation	LBDQ Consideration	0.1312 656.19 0.4923 79.41	656.19	62	8.26	beyond .001 level
Vice-principals high, medium, and low geographical mobility orientation	LBDQ Consideration	0.1999	999.81 68.32	2 62	14.63	beyond .001 level

*Keeping Test indicated departure from homogeneity of variance, and significance level should be discounted somewhat.

TABLE XL

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: MOBILITY ORIENTATIONS AND PERCEPTIONS OF THE IMPORTANCE OF DEFERRING TO SUPERIOR AUTHORITY

Predictor Groups	Criterion	5.8.	M.S.	d.f.	!	d
Principalshigh, medium, and low total mobility	Deference Score	0.4616	2308.12 20.58	2 64	112.17	beyond .001 level
Principalshigh, medium, and low vertical mobility	Deference Score	0.2611	1305.31 51.91	2 64	25.14	beyond .001 level
Principalshigh, medium, and low geographical mobility	Deference Score	0.2753	1376.62	2 64	27.71	beyond .001 level*
Vice-principalshigh, medi- um, and low total mobility	Jeference Score	0.2452	1226.00 41.41	2 62	29.61	beyond .001 level*
Vice-principalshigh, medi- um, and low vertical mobility	Deference Score	0.1521 0.3498	760.71	2 62	13.48	beyond .001 level
Vice-principalshigh, medi- um, and low geographical mobility	Deference Score	0.1698	849.04 53.57	29	15.85	beyond .001 level
Teachershigh, medium, and low total mobility	Deference Score	0.1500	75.00 18.08	2 1066	4.15	.05 level
Teachershigh, medium, and low vertical mobility	Deference Score	0.4490 0.1896	224.50 17.80	2 1066	12.61	beyond .001 level

*Keeping Test indicated departure from homogeneity of variance, and significance level should be discounted somewhat.

TABLE XLI

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: (a) AGE AND MOBILITY ORIENTATIONS (b) YEARS IN POSITION, AND MOBILITY ORIENTATIONS

Predictor Groups	Criterion	5.5.	M.S.	d.f.	F	Р
(a) <u>Teachers</u> old, medium, and young categories of <u>age</u>	Total Mobility Orientation	0.4370	218.50	1066	6.42	.005 level
Teachersold, medi- um, and young cate- gories of <u>age</u>	Geographi- cal Mobili- ty Orienta- tion	0.19325 0.1519	96.63 14.25	1066	6.78	.001 level
(b) Teachershigh, medium, and low categories of years in position	Total Mobility Orientation	0.1506	75.73	1066	4.18	.05 level*
Teachershigh, me- dium, and low cate- gories of years in position	Vertical Mobility Orientation	0.9144	45.72	1066	3.83	.05 level

*Keeping Test indicated departure from homogeneity of variance, and significance level should be discounted somewhat.