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INTERRELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SECONDARY SCHOOL
PRINCIPALS' LEVEL OF SELF-ACTUALIZATION, LEADERSHIP ATTITUDE,
AND TEACHER PERCEPTION OF PRINCIPAL
LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR

by



JOSEPH JOHN DANYLUK

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SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
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OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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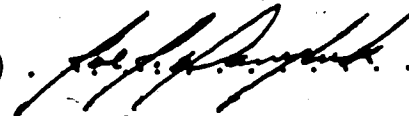
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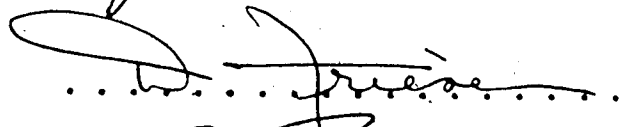
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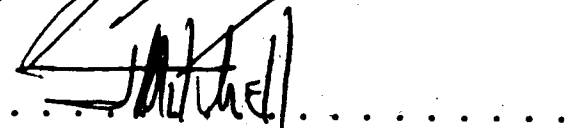
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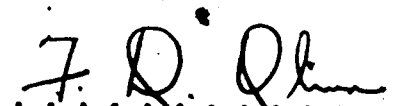
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LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR submitted by JOSEPH JOHN DANYLUK
in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
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ABSTRACT

The object of the study was to analyse interrelationships that existed between secondary school principals' level of self-actualization, teacher perception of principal leadership behavior, and principal leadership attitude. Leadership had been studied from a variety of standpoints with generally few conclusive results. Self-actualization had been tested and studied numerous times from clinical, management, and educational perspectives. This study focused on the two dimensions of leadership and the psychological dimension of self-actualization in an effort to determine if relationships existed.

Twenty-four secondary school principals and two hundred and sixty teachers from the Edmonton Public School Board in Alberta, Canada participated in the study. This sample included principals from seventeen junior high schools (Grades 7, 8, and 9) and seven senior high schools (Grades 10, 11 and 12).

Three instruments used in the study were: (1) Personal Orientation Inventory (POI), (2) Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), and (3) Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ). The LBDQ and the LOQ were designed to include the dimensions of leadership behavior and leadership attitude respectively. The POI measured an individual's values and behaviors seen to be important in the development of self-actualizing. Each of the principals in the sample was placed into one of three selected classifications of

self-actualization based on his combined Time Competence (Tc) and Inner Directed (I) scale scores on the POI. The classifications were "more," "medial," and "less" self-actualizing.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was employed to test for statistical differences among groups. When the F rates proved to be statistically significant, the implied differences were investigated further by the application of the Scheffe' method of posteriori comparisons. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was also applied to test for statistically significant relationships between groups. A .05 level of significance was used to reject the Null-hypotheses.

Teachers perceived the medially self-actualizing principals to be significantly higher in the leadership behavior dimension of Initiating Structure than did teachers of less-self-actualizing principals. Another finding revealed that the more value principals placed on the leadership attitude dimension of Consideration, the more teachers perceived Consideration in their leadership behavior.

In analysing the three main variables with demographic information obtained from the principals, it was also found at a significantly related level that: (1) Teachers perceived the leadership behavior dimension of Initiating Structure to be lower for older principals; (2) The larger the number of teachers on staff, the lower principals were perceived on the leadership behavior dimension of Consideration; (3) The principals who remained longer at a particular school were seen by teachers to exhibit Initiating Structure in their leadership behavior; (4) The principals who had

- been in the area of education longer were perceived by teachers as exhibiting less "Consideration" in terms of leadership behavior; and
- (5) The principals who attained more years of formal university training scored lower on self-actualization.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Research on the relationship between leader behavior in organizations and attitudes is especially needed. This need was noted in 1960 when Lippman (1960:1) commented that there had been a "plethora of speculation and paucity of investigation" concerning personality prerequisites for effective performance in the field of educational administration. To this date research determining relationships between self-actualization, leadership behavior, and attitudes of leaders appears not to have been conducted.

Literature has suggested that a positive relationship exists between the ability of the administrator to help bring about constructive change and growth in people and his level of "wholeness" or "self-actualization" (Maslow, 1970:199) and/or "fully functioning" (Rogers, 1961). Although a positive relationship is believed to exist, more research is needed to confirm or challenge this belief.

Carl Rogers' definition (1961:191-2) of the "fully functioning" person provides some insight into the qualities thought to be desirable for an individual to possess:

He is more able to experience all of his feelings, and is less afraid of any of his feelings; he is his own sifter of evidence, and is more open to evidence from all sources; he is completely engaged in the process of being and becoming himself, and thus discovering that he is soundly and realistically social; he lives more completely in this moment, but learns this is the soundest living for all time. He is

becoming a more fully functioning organism, and because of the awareness of himself which flows freely in and through his experience, he is becoming a more fully functioning person.

Abraham Maslow's definition of the "self-actualizing person" has much in common with Rogers' "fully functioning person." Maslow (1970:199) describes self-actualization as:

The more full use of talents, potentials, gratification of basic needs for safety, belongingness, love, status, and self respect and of the cognitive need for knowledge and understanding.

The literature indicates a more "fully functioning person" or the "self-actualized person" might be seen not only as the ideal of the individual development but as a desirable end-product of our educational system.

The critics of leadership-personality trait studies suggest that the wide range of situational variables makes conclusions less than definitive. In areas such as education for example, most of the employees are individuals who may or may not share the rare values, characteristics, and motivations of the self-actualizing principal. In an effort to, in part, meet this criticism, this research used two established questionnaires to measure the leadership dimensions of Initiating Structure and Consideration in regards to principal behavior (Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire) and attitude (Leadership Opinion Questionnaire). Another well established questionnaire (Personal Orientation Inventory) focused on one aspect of the personality dimension of the principals by measuring their level of self-actualization.

Objective of Research

While leadership behavior, attitudes, and personality had been explored with varied results, the relationship between leadership and the concept of self-actualization has not been well studied, particularly in relation to leadership behavior and leadership attitudes as this study proposed to do. A search of the Dissertation Abstracts International volumes had not produced any studies where self-actualization and principals' leadership were measured in relation to each other. A thorough search of texts in Administration, Business Management, and Psychology also showed a lack of research in this area.

The objective of this research was the examination of the relationship between a principal's psychological dimension and his leadership. The establishment of such a relationship if it existed, would make possible a more objective description of the qualities and capacities necessary for a better understanding of leadership.

It was therefore the objective of this research to:

(1) develop an understanding of the relationships among the dimensions of self-actualization, leadership attitude, and leadership behavior, and (2) identify areas where further scholarly research was required that may have an impact on administrators, teachers, and ultimately the students.

Furthermore, it was hoped that the findings of this study may be of value to those institutions and individuals engaged in recruitment, selection, and training of educational leaders.

Statement of the Problem

The objective of this study was to analyse the inter-relationships that exist between principals' self-actualization, teacher perception of principal leadership behavior, and principal leadership attitude. More specifically, the purpose of the study was to provide data relative to the following three questions:

- I. Is there a significant difference in leadership behavior among principals classified by their self-actualization level?
- II. Is there a significant difference in leadership attitude among principals classified by their self-actualization level?
- III. Is there a significant relationship between principals' leadership behavior and their leadership attitude?

Ten null hypotheses were formulated to test the inter-relationship among the dimensions of self-actualization, leadership behavior, and leadership attitude. Underlying these null hypotheses was an intention to test the assumption that a relationship of some kind does, indeed, exist between self-actualization and leader behavior, between self-actualization and leader attitudes, and between leader behavior and leader attitudes. The first three (1, 2, and 3) null hypotheses were designed to examine question number I, the next three (4, 5, and 6) null hypotheses were designed to examine question number II, and the last four (7, 8, 9, and 10) null hypotheses were designed to examine question number III.

Null-Hypothesis 1

There is no significant difference in the mean scores of the leadership behavior dimension of initiating structure among principals classified as more, medial, or less self-actualizing.

Null-Hypothesis 2

There is no significant difference in the mean scores of the leadership behavior dimension of consideration among principals classified as more, medial, or less self-actualizing.

Null-Hypothesis 3

There is no significant difference in the principals' mean leadership behavior scores of both initiating structure and consideration within the leadership quadrant, and their self-actualization scores.

Null-Hypothesis 4

There is no significant difference in the mean scores of the leadership attitude dimension of initiating structure among principals classified as more, medial, or less self-actualizing.

Null-Hypothesis 5

There is no significant difference in the mean scores of the leadership attitude dimension of consideration among principals classified as more, medial, or less self-actualizing.

Null-Hypothesis 6

There is no significant difference in the principals' mean leadership attitude scores of both initiating structure and consideration within the leadership quadrant, and their self-actualization scores.

Null-Hypothesis 7

There is no significant correlation between principals' leadership behavior dimension of initiating structure and their leadership attitude dimension of initiating structure.

Null-Hypothesis 8

There is no significant correlation between principals' leadership behavior dimension of initiating structure and their leadership attitude dimension of consideration.

Null-Hypothesis 9

There is no significant correlation between principals' leadership behavior dimension of consideration and their leadership attitude dimension of initiating structure.

Null-Hypothesis 10

There is no significant correlation between principals' leadership behavior dimension of consideration and their leadership attitude dimension of consideration.

There were an additional nine ancillary questions posed to determine the relationship of the demographic data to the dimensions of self-actualization, leadership behavior, and leadership attitudes.

Ancillary Questions

1. Is there a relationship between age of the principals and a) the degree of self-actualizing, b) the leadership behavior or c) the leadership attitude?
2. Is there a relationship between the sex of the principals and a) the degree of self-actualizing, b) the leadership behavior, or c) the leadership attitude?
3. Is there a difference between the principals' level of secondary school (i.e. junior high or senior high) and a) the degree of self-actualizing, b) the leadership behavior, or c) the leadership attitude?
4. Is there a relationship between the number of teachers on staff and a) the degree of self-actualizing, b) the leadership behavior, or c) the leadership attitude of the principal?
5. Is there a relationship between the number of years the principals had been in their present positions and a) the degree of self-actualization, b) the leadership behavior, or c) the leadership attitude?
6. Is there a relationship between the total number of years the principals had in a position of principal and a) the degree of self-actualization, b) the leadership behavior, or c) the leadership attitude?

7. Is there a relationship between the total number of years the principals had been in education and a) the degree of self-actualization, b) the leadership behavior, or c) the leadership attitude?
8. Is there a relationship between the number of years the principals had completed University or Teachers' College training and a) the degree of self-actualization, b) the leadership behavior, or c) the leadership attitude?
9. Is there a difference between the area the principals perceived their University or Teachers' College emphasis to have been (i.e. humanities, sciences, business, vocational or other) and a) the degree of self-actualization, b) the leadership behavior, or c) the leadership attitude?

Significance of Problem

Abraham Maslow (1970, 1971) suggested that the values, characteristics, and motivations of the "fully functioning members of the human species could have an important influence on the future of our institutions, society, and culture.

The appeal of the self-actualizing individual over others is disclosed in several studies. Wombacher (1973) found that both respect for and being liked and sought after by others increased in all situations as the level of self-actualization increased. Similar findings were disclosed by Paulk (1972) who concluded that as a teacher's behavior became more self-actualizing, student attitude toward that teacher became more positive. In a study designed to

investigate interpersonal attraction between students and teachers, McCann (1973) found that regardless of their own level of psychological development, students were more attracted to teachers who were significantly more self-actualizing than to other classifications of teachers. As stated earlier, a literature search has not revealed comparative studies of principal self-actualization level and its relationship to leadership.

While personality trait research has not been overly conclusive, studies dealing with leadership behavior and leadership attitudes have been more encouraging. According to literature in a variety of situations, leaders are rated as more effective when they score high in both consideration and initiating structure. High scores assigned to principals and teachers on both dimensions tend to relate to higher pupil scores on tests of school achievement, and a positive relationship to various measures of group cohesiveness and harmony. Initiating Structure was related to group unity while consideration was related to low absenteeism, grievances, turnover, and bureaucracy. The importance of these two dimensions of behavior becomes evident in the resulting differential effects on the behavior and expectations of followers. (Stogdill, 1974:140-41)

Organizational literature concerned with such areas as business, schools, and hospitals indicate that at some point self-actualizers may become dysfunctional within the organization (Getzels et al., 1968:122). This should, then, create less effectiveness for the organization. However, the psychological literature (Maslow, 1968) reveals a positive attribute to the self-actualization of

individuals, supporting that self-actualized individuals would make "better" choices than other members of the population. It is with this contradiction in mind that this research became formulated and the questions developed.

Definition of Terms

The following are the terms and their definitions that apply to this study so that the reader may better understand their usage:

Consideration. According to Fleishman (1969:1), consideration reflects the extent to which an individual is likely to have job relationships with subordinates characterized by mutual trust, respect for their ideas, consideration of their feelings, and a certain warmth between the individual and his colleagues. A high score indicates a climate of good rapport and two-way communication. A low score indicates the individual is likely to be more impersonal in relationships with group members. This definition will apply to both LBDQ and LOQ dimensions of Consideration.

Dimension. Dimension is a synonym used for the term scale with regard to the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ), and Personal Orientation Inventory (POI).

Leadership Behavior. Halpin (1956:3) defined leadership behavior as the characteristic behavior of the formally designated leader of a specified work group. This research will designate all principals as leaders.

Less-self-actualizing Principal. Less-self-actualizing principals are defined for the purposes of this study as respondents who scored in the lower one-third of the combined Time Competence (TC) plus Inner Directed (I) scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory test.

Medially-self-actualizing Principal. Medially-self-actualizing principals are defined for the purposes of this study as respondents who scored in the middle one-third of the combined Time Competence (TC) plus Inner Directed (I) scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory test.

More-self-actualizing Principal. More-self-actualizing principals are defined for the purposes of this study as respondents who scored in the upper one-third of the combined Time Competence (TC) plus the Inner Directed (I) scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory test.

Initiating Structure. According to Fleishman (1969:2), Initiating Structure reflects the extent to which an individual is likely to define and structure his or her own role and those of subordinates toward goal attainment. A high score on this dimension characterizes individuals who play a very active

role in directing group activities through planning, communicating information, scheduling, criticizing, trying out new ideas, and so forth. A low score characterizes individuals who are likely to be relatively inactive in giving direction in these ways. This definition will apply to both LBDQ and LOQ dimensions of Initiating Structure.

Principal. The individual with a valid Alberta teaching certificate assigned by a school board to perform the role of administrator of a school.

Self-actualization. As defined by Fox and Michael (1968:565-69) a self-actualized person is characterized by the full utilization of his talents and capacities, possesses greater self-reliance, is more efficient in his use of time, is able to live in the present rather than in the past or future, and has a positive outlook on life and human nature. These characteristics in addition to nine other traits of the self-actualized person are measured by the Personal Orientation Inventory.

Research Instruments

Three instruments were selected for use of data collection.

These were:

1. Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) - is a 150-item comparative value judgment test designed by Everett L. Shostrom to measure an individual's values and behavior related to Maslow's

concept of self-actualization.

2. Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) - is a 40 item questionnaire designed by Andrew W. Halpin to measure two dimensions of leader behavior of Initiating Structure and Consideration.
3. Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) - is a 40 item questionnaire designed by Edwin A. Fleishman to measure the two dimensions of leadership attitude of Initiating Structure and Consideration. Note that whereas the LOQ measures leader attitude, the LBDQ reflects a measure of leader behavior.

The Study Population

The selection of the sample of secondary schools used in this study was purposive rather than random. These schools were selected from those in the Edmonton Public School System and included only junior high schools (grades 7, 8, and 9) or senior high schools (grades 10, 11 and 12). The researcher believed there was a sufficiently wide enough variation among each of the twenty-seven secondary schools in regards to size and socio-economic environment. This wide variation in schools was likely to provide for a representative cross-section of principals' self-actualization level, their leadership behavior, and their leadership attitudes. All thirty-four secondary schools within the system were initially identified as potential for research.

Four criteria were established for purposes of this study. These were (1) that the principal had been at the school for at least

one year, (2) that no program emphasis change had occurred within the past two years, (3) that no internal crisis had occurred which led to central office and/or community reaction within the past two years, and (4) that no excessive (abnormal) increase or decrease of enrolment had occurred at the school within the past two years.

A meeting with the Assistant Superintendent of Personnel of the Edmonton Public School Board was held to discuss the research and the criteria for selection of the schools. Seven schools were deleted from the original list, thus leaving twenty-seven schools for the researcher to conduct his study with. Prior to this meeting approval had been obtained from the Edmonton Public School Board's Director of Research to conduct the proposed study. Of the twenty-seven schools contacted, three principals chose not to participate, all indicating that at the particular time of the school term undue stress may be placed on themselves and their staff.

Delimitations

1. Focal points of this investigative study concentrated upon only two dimensions of leadership behavior and leadership attitude, namely: Consideration and Initiating Structure.
2. To determine more, medially, or less self-actualizing principals' tendencies, these were delimited to those factors measured by the combined Tc and I scales of the Personal Orientation Inventory. Nine other personality scales of this instrument were not utilized in this research.

3. The school study populations were limited to those schools which satisfied the criteria listed in the Study Population and agreed to participate in this study.
4. This research was descriptive in nature and could address only "what is."

Assumptions

1. All respondents answered honestly and objectively.
2. All responses were given without pressure or intimidation by any individual within the school system.

Organization of the Study

The study was organized into five chapters and appendices.

Chapter I. The major elements of the first chapter consist of research objectives, statement of problem, and significance of problem. Three major questions, ten null hypotheses and a further nine ancillary questions were also presented.

Chapter II. The second chapter, entitled "Review of the Related Literature," treats the research found to be most relevant and pertinent to the project. The concept of self-actualization is discussed in detail as is the topic of leadership with a focus on behavior and attitudes.

Chapter III. The section entitled, "Methods, Procedures, Instruments, and Data Analysis" will constitute the third chapter of this research report. It consists of a description of the selection of participants for the study, the population and

sample size, and the instruments used. It also contains a review of the procedure used for collecting and treating of data.

Chapter IV. The fourth chapter entitled "Analysis and Interpretation of Data," concentrates on the findings of the study and an analysis of the data. More specifically, the data concerning the ten null hypotheses and the nine ancillary questions are presented and the results discussed.

Chapter V. The fifth chapter, "Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations," contains a summary of the study, conclusions based on the literature reviewed, and recommendations by the researcher.

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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter deals with two bodies of research that are directly applicable to the problem of this study. The first section is concerned with leadership while the second section focuses on the concept of self-actualization. Literature relating specifically to education is reviewed in both sections.

LEADERSHIP

So formidable is the task of reviewing the literature on leadership that Ralph Stogdill (1974:VII) found that the three years given to him by a foundation to review thoroughly the literature of leadership proved inadequate. When Stogdill finally completed his undertaking, he had compiled a bibliography on leadership of no fewer than 4,400 entries.

Leadership has interested researchers as have few other facets of human behavior. The fields of psychology, sociology, business, and education have shown an insatiable desire to learn more about leadership and to convert theory on it into practice. Leadership is an area of knowledge in which theory lends itself to experimentation and application.

Despite the years of research in leadership, however, there exist varying opinions of what it is; what it is not; how it may be discovered, developed, and deployed; what kinds there are; and which kinds are most effective. There is no lack of debate on semantics.

That one kind of leadership behavior, style, or attitude is best and most effective under any and all circumstances is a matter which can probably never be satisfactorily resolved. Thus it is to be expected that differences in attitude, philosophy, perception, and practice of leadership do, indeed, exist.

Researchers have done little in coming to a consensus in defining what is leadership. Definitions generated have spread all over the spectrum, ranging from the frivolous to the profound. As Laidlaw (1972:171) said, "it is impossible to define leadership exactly, difficult to understand it and analyze it." Therefore, he wrote, "the best way to describe it is to say that, like health, it is best understood when you don't have it and feel the lack of it." But, according to Wayson (1975:12) leadership is essentially in a conceptual fog and misconceptions about it are extant:

1. Misconception -- leadership comes with position, rank, and title. This concept has a lot of tradition behind it and comes out of the era of scientific management and Weberian bureaucracy.
2. Misconception -- leadership should be exercised exclusively by persons in titled positions.
3. Misconception -- no one can perform a leadership act unless it is expressly permitted by higher authority.
4. Misconception -- leaders never get opposition and never have to answer any questions about what they are doing.

5. Misconception -- leadership always has to be democratic.

6. Misconception -- a democratic leader never leads.

Misconceptions notwithstanding, leadership is, said Bass (1960:5) "a universal human phenomenon. It occurs universally among all men regardless of culture."

Theoretical Background Pertinent to the Study

Thirty-five years ago the Bureau of Business Research at Ohio State University attempted to identify various dimensions of leadership (Stogdill and Coons, 1957). Stogdill reports that prior to these Ohio State Leadership studies there was no satisfactory leadership theory. At that time the personality trait emphasis was being recognized as unproductive and new avenues needed to be pursued. The Ohio State Leadership studies looked at the individual's behavior while he performed as the leader of a group or organization. (Stogdill, 1974:128) As a result of these studies, the concept of leadership was narrowed to two dimensions -- Consideration and Initiating Structure. These dimensions are described as follows: (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977:94-95)

Consideration

The leader finds time to listen to group members.

The leader is willing to make changes.

The leader is friendly and approachable.

Initiating Structure

The leader assigns group members to particular tasks.

The leader asks the group members to follow standard rules and regulations.

The leader lets group members know what is expected of them.

These two dimensions were found to be distinct and independent dimensions; however, leader style was thought to be a mix of both. A high score on one dimension did not necessitate a low score on the other. There are four combinations of leadership as depicted in Figure 1 (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977:95).

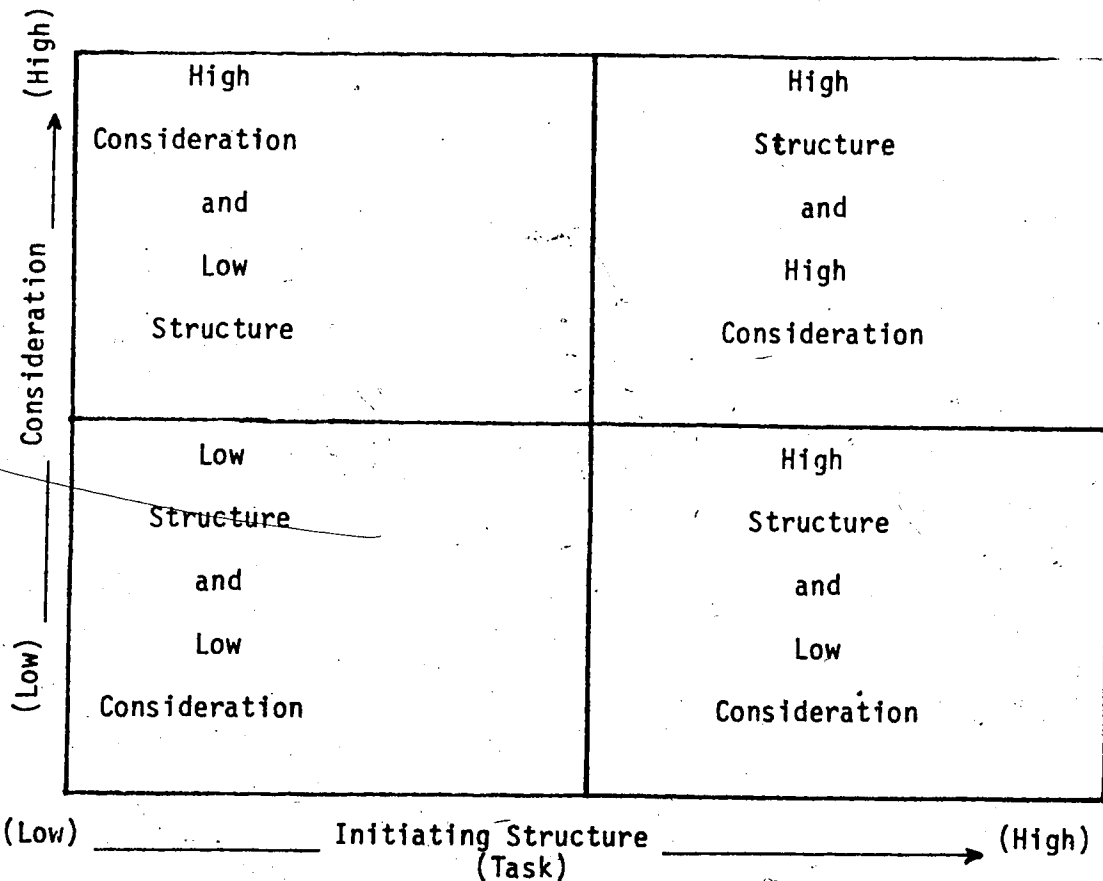


Figure 1: The Ohio State Leadership Quadrants

According to research, leaders in a variety of situations are more effective when they score high in both Consideration and Initiating Structure. As an example, high scores assigned to teachers on both dimensions (Lipham, 1964:134-135) tend to produce higher pupil scores in relation to achievement tests. Initiating

Structure is related to students' group unity, while Consideration is related to turnover, absenteeism, and grievance. The importance of Consideration and Initiating Structure becomes more evident when explained in terms of followership and the differential effect on the behavior and expectation of followers. (Stogdill, 1974:140-141)

Leadership Theories

A great deal of empirical work has been done in the examination of leadership. These works have in varying degrees employed theories of leadership either tacitly or explicitly. Additional insight into the nature of leadership can be gained by a review of the theories of leadership. Stogdill (1974:17-23) listed Great Man Theories, Environmental Theories, Personal-Situational Theories, Interaction Theories, Humanistic Theories, and Exchange Theories. He put Trait Theories as a sub-set under Great Man Theories. Ross and Hendry (1961:100-5), on the other hand, observed three broad classifications as follows:

- (1) Leadership as traits within the individual leader;
- (2) Leadership as a function of the group; and
- (3) Leadership as a function of the situation.

Ross and Hendry's broad classifications have been followed in this review of leadership theories. A fourth and fifth category entitled "Great Man Theory" and "Other Views of Leadership" respectively have been added.

Leadership as Traits Within the Individual

To one reviewing the literature of leadership theory, it becomes increasingly apparent that nothing has so occupied the minds of researchers as the discovery of some universal leadership trait or traits. From this on-going, although often inconclusive, search has arisen the trait theory. Urwick (1957:52) said, "the study of leadership has followed three fundamental approaches. Originally it was felt that every leader had some common trait or traits."

Modern day researchers might, as Fiedler (1961:179) noted, feel that the leadership trait theory has value in its examination. Value if for no other reason than it opened the way for other avenues of inquiry which were sorely needed. Shartle (1957:1) wrote that "the trait approach had reached an impasse before the beginning of World War II." Indeed, it was around the mid 1930's that the trait theory lost its appeal chiefly because the conclusions of extensive research were confusing and contradictory. (Shartle, 1957:3)

The trait theory is deeply imbedded in popular opinion. As Weber and Weber (1961:35) noted, the general public is of the opinion that the "conditions which enable individuals to become leaders reside in their inherent characteristics." These authors added that as people read about men like Caesar, Martin Luther, Roger Williams, Washington, and Lincoln they observe "certain attributes or traits which ought to be observed and imitated." (p. 35)

In dealing with the "Qualities of the Leader," Lindop (1964: 175) stated that one of the first and most obvious things to note about leaders is "that they are cut to no single pattern, but vary to

the widest possible degree in personal qualities and characteristics." Lindop then proceeded to say that for every quality or characteristic one might cite as a prerequisite for leadership, and for every leader selected as an illustration of these qualities, someone else might list a quality or characteristic almost directly opposite. (p. 175)

In spite of those assertions, however, Lindop (1964:176) went on to list ten qualities, or characteristics, which he said all students of leadership would agree are possessed to a greater or lesser degree by all leaders. His list included:

- (1) Energy and enthusiasm
- (2) Confidence
- (3) Sense of purpose and direction
- (4) Technical skill
- (5) Imagination and the ability to face reality
- (6) Personality (modest, friendly, social ease and grace, tact, frankness, honesty, fearlessness, to name a few)
- (7) Character (adaptability, integrity, fairness, courage, thoroughness)
- (8) Intelligence
- (9) Judgement
- (10) Faith

"Although the evidence does not support the romantic conception of the leader endowed with magic attributes," noted Knickerbocker (1961:69), "one wonders why it persists with such vitality." Knickerbocker's explanation is no less interesting than the continued fascination with leadership traits. We all started our lives under "the guidance of a leader," Knickerbocker explained, "a big man, of tremendous endowment, with almost limitless power." This,

he said, would help to explain the prevalence and tenacity with which this concept is held. More often than not this person was our father and it is theorized by the author that we carry out of childhood the father symbol -- the leader. If this assumption is accepted then we can readily see that the leader, or the person we conceptualize as a leader, should be "larger, more intelligent, more mature, more cultured, more impressive than we." (p. 70)

For an understanding of trait theory, the review of the literature done by Ralph M. Stogdill has been utilized because of its scope. His first review was published in 1948. The project was funded by the American Office of Naval Research. In that review he examined 124 journals and books published between 1904 and 1947. Since that earlier review of the literature, Stogdill (1974:65-91) has completed a similar review of 164 journals and books covering the years 1948 through 1970.

In his first review Stogdill (p. 36) did not count a characteristic, or trait of leadership, unless it was mentioned by at least three researchers. He has been quick to correct the notion, too, that the mere number of times a trait has been observed denotes its importance. He argued, however, that the frequency of a factor being found significant weighs heavily as does the experimental method employed and the adequacy of the statistical method used.

Stogdill (p. 38) reported that the methods used to discern the personal traits or characteristics of leadership were these:

- (1) Observation of behavior or group situations,
- (2) Choices of associates by voting,

- (3) Nomination or rating by qualified observers,
- (4) Selection (and rating or testing) of persons occupying positions of leadership, and
- (5) Analysis of biographical and case history data.

Among the characteristics treated by Stogdill were the following: chronological age; height, weight, physique, energy and health; appearance; fluency of speech; intelligence; scholarship; knowledge; judgement and decision; insight; originality; adaptability; introversion and extroversion; dominance, initiative, persistence, and ambition; responsibility; integrity and conviction; self-confidence; mood control and mood optimism; emotional control; social and economic status; social activity and mobility; biosocial activity; social skills; popularity; and, cooperation.

Stogdill (p. 63) summarized his earlier review by saying that the factors associated with leadership could likely be "classified under the following general headings:

- (1) Capacity (intelligence, alertness, verbal facility, originality, judgement).
- (2) Achievement (scholarship, knowledge, athletic accomplishments).
- (3) Responsibility (dependability, initiative, persistence, aggressiveness, self-confidence, desire to excel).
- (4) Participation (activity, sociability, cooperation, adaptability, humor).
- (5) Status (socioeconomic position, popularity).
- (6) Situation (mental level, status, skills, needs and interests of followers, objectives to be achieved, etc.).

He concluded that a leader is a person who has a position of responsibility in coordinating the activities of a group so that they can reach a common goal. Although no special trait or combination of traits entitles a person to leadership, Stogdill (p. 63-64) asserted the "pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities, and goals of the followers."

In "Leadership Traits: 1948-1970" Stogdill made a comparison between the characteristics of leadership summarized in the 1948 review and those summarized in the 1970 review. The passing of time indicated some shift of emphasis. For example, studies indicating that activity and energy have something to do with leadership increased markedly from five to twenty-four, with Stogdill (1970:76) making this observation:

Results of recent research suggest that the leader tends to be endowed with an abundant reserve of energy, stamina, and ability to maintain a high rate of physical activity. Even when handicapped by physical disability or poor health, the highly successful leader tends to exhibit a high rate of energy output.

With reference to social background, Stogdill (p. 77) revealed the more recent studies to show that while high socioeconomic status is still an advantage in gaining leadership status, more high level positions in industry are held now by people who come from lower socioeconomic strata of society than was the case fifty years ago. Also, they tend to be better educated now than formerly.

The latter review indicated that, without exception, leaders are characterized by superior judgement, decisiveness, knowledge, and

fluency of speech. (p. 78) However, in the personality sphere, the research is less conclusive. As Stogdill (p. 79-80) stated, "The comparatively large number of findings for traits such as dominance and self-confidence probably reflects interest of the researchers rather than significance of the trait." Both surveys revealed that a leader is characterized by a high need for achievement and responsibility as well as being active in various social activities. It was found that such a person interacts well with a wide range of personalities and that this interaction is valued by others. Leaders, Stogdill (p. 80-81) observed, excel in interpersonal skills.

In conclusion -- following a review of the literature from 1904 until 1970 and comparing early studies with later ones -- Stogdill (p. 81-82) asserted that:

Characteristics, or traits, considered singly hold little diagnostic or predictive significance. In combination, it would appear that they interact to generate personality dynamics advantageous to the person seeking leadership.

Stogdill, as a result of his research, took a moderate approach to the trait theory of leadership. He seemed to regret the view of an "either we accept the situationist approach and reject the trait approach" or vice versa. He saw both working together and recognized that to a "very large extent our conceptions of characteristics of leadership are culturally determined." (p. 82)

The implications of holding to the trait theory of leadership exclusively were spelled out clearly by Halpin. (cited in Campbell and Gregg, 1957:171) He warned that if we look for "capacity" or leadership "potential" in an individual, "it is an easy step from this inference that this potential is identifiable and hence

measurable." He continued by saying that if we then can learn how to measure it, we will be able to screen the "leaders" from the "non-leaders." It would then follow, he argued, that there would be meager justification for devoting time and energy to leadership training when leadership is perceived as being an inherent capacity or potentiality. The notion that certain individuals, no matter what, will by the qualities residing within them rise to places of leadership has little currency among the students of leadership today.

Leadership as a Function of the Group

Although the demise of the trait theory has not occurred, nor has it completely been ignored. It is, however, no longer the focus of attention which it once was. Research has since turned to the possibility that leadership may be the function of the group.

That leadership is a function of the group is an approach not without its merits. Wiles and Lovell (1975:65) remarked, "no one is a leader walking down the street by himself. He is able to exert leadership only through effective participation in groups." They concluded, therefore, that "leadership is a group role." Gibb, (1958: 72-74) too, wrote that "there can be no leadership in isolation, it is distinctly a quality of a group situation." He went on to say that "there can be no leader without followers." In addition, he stated that the leader inevitably embodies many of the qualities of the followers. In the same vein Knezevich (1962:83) said that leadership "cannot exist in isolation, but is related to interpersonal relations and group operations." Leadership, he continued, "emerges as a group

phenomenon, a function essential in organized groups." Knezevich termed this kind of leadership, "functional leadership."

Wiles and Lovell (1975:71) termed this the "power with" approach to leadership in contrast to the more traditional "power over" approach. They said that under the group approach to leadership, a leader is not trying to get and maintain personal authority. Rather, he is trying to develop group power and that when that is accomplished the group will be able to reach its goals. Such a leader, they explained, does not see his power as a leader apart from the group. He is concerned with developing working relationships with the group that will give him power "with" them, not "over" them. Fisher's (1957: 505) research supported the effectiveness of the "power with" approach. She found that "teachers seemed to reject a relationship of one-sided direction or apathy." They wanted neither a Milquetoast nor a Napoleon. And they saw value in working with a leader, not for, not under, not away from.

The "power with" kind of leader, Ross and Hendry (1961:59) noted, will help the group enjoy working as a unit as it moves toward its goals. Such a leader has to have insight into the various forces that act upon, and interact in, the group. According to Doll (1972:16), leadership is actually centered in the group to which the nominal leader belongs. The leader is the one who will help the group move harmoniously and happily toward group goals.

Halpin (1959:82) saw the behavior of the leader and the behavior of group members as "inextricably interwoven." The behavior of both, he said, is "determined to a great degree by formal

requirements imposed by the institution of which the group is a part."

In attempting to meet these requirements, a group will have to attempt to identify and articulate its collective needs and will have to face the necessity of formulating goals to meet these needs. Knickerbocker (1961:77) warned that a leader will have no followers, and hence, will not be a leader unless he shares the objectives of the group and is seen by the group as a means to the attainment of its objectives in the reduction of its needs. Jenkins (1961:25) also observed that groups need help -- help of two kinds. First, they need help in making progress toward their working goal. Second, they need help in keeping their groups in a healthy working condition.

Following a discussion of various leadership styles, Hamacheck (1966:30-31) said that leaders come to a given style with a certain "readiness" for it and that followers come to leaders with a certain "readiness" for their style. But how the leader is perceived and how well accepted will depend upon "the follower's personal needs and situational needs."

Campbell (1966:3) spoke pointedly of this matter. He said that the operational definition of leadership demands that someone shall have been demonstrated to have made a difference in group effectiveness.

Effectiveness also includes satisfying those who are one's superordinates as well as one's subordinates, wrote Fiorello (1974: 38). Fiedler (1961:181) spoke, also concerning leader effectiveness being that which promotes a high level of group product. A leader, wrote Fiedler, "is effective to the extent to which his group is productive, or achieves its assigned goals." Fiedler felt that it is possible that effective leadership traits or attributes exist, but he differentiated these from the personality traits of trait theory. (p. 181)

Campbell and Faber (1971:358), in dealing with the subject of administrative behavior, made reference to the research of James M. Lippman which isolated what was considered effective leader behavior in the principals studied in large school systems. Effective principals were found to

- (a) be engaged in strong and purposeful activity;
- (b) be concerned with achieving success and positions of higher status;
- (c) be able to relate well with others; and
- (d) have security at home and at work.

Ineffective principals (employing ineffective leader behavior), on the other hand, were

- (a) deliberate and preoccupied with speculative reasoning;
- (b) satisfied with their present level of achievement and status;
- (c) loath to work with teachers but anxious to assist children;
- (d) highly dependent on others for support; and
- (e) likely to exhibit strong emotional reactions in upsetting situations.

Hemphill's (1956:65-66) findings suggested that effective and successful leadership is related to group needs and goals. In a study involving 500 leaders and their methods he found 365 to be successful and 135 to be failures. The composite picture of the 365 successful leaders revealed these features:

- (1) They set group goals with the members of the group;
- (2) They helped the members reach group goals;
- (3) They worked to coordinate the efforts of the group members;
- (4) They helped members fit into the group;
- (5) They had an interest in the group, not in themselves;
and
- (6) They exhibited "human-ness."

A group's success is not wholly dependent upon effective leader behavior. There are a multitude of groups all with different need dispositions. Benne (1961:20) emphasized:

Groups are more than collections of individuals held together mechanically. Ideally, a group consists of persons who have organically interrelated their efforts in clarifying and serving common purposes -- purposes which individuals by themselves cannot clarify or serve. A collection of individuals becomes a group only as common purposes and problems are attained, as common ways of thinking and acting and producing are worked out and accepted by all members.

Hemphill (1958:369) identified ten characteristics of a group:

- (1) Size
- (2) Viscidity: the degree to which the group functions as a unit.

- (3) Homogeneity: the degree to which the group members are similar in age, background, etc.
- (4) Flexibility: the degree to which the group has established rules, regulations, and procedures.
- (5) Stability: the frequency with which the group undergoes major changes in organization.
- (6) Permeability: the degree to which the group resists admission of new members.
- (7) Polarization: the degree to which the group works toward a single goal.
- (8) Autonomy: the degree to which the group operates independently of direction by other larger groups.
- (9) Intimacy: the degree to which the group members are acquainted with one another.
- (10) Control: the degree to which the group restricts the freedom of members' behavior.

Not everyone, however, accepts the concept of leadership being a function of the group. Jennings (1960:2) questioned this type of leadership and remarked that "leadership turns out to be such varied activities as playground leader, committee chairman, club president, business executive, or politician."

Leadership as a Function of the Situation

Leadership has also been viewed as a function of the situation. Leadership as a function of the situation may be thought of as "history making a leader" rather than a "leader making history."

This perception of leadership has been referred to as Zeitgeist, or the "times make the man." According to Hoy and Miskel (1978:124) this view was popular during the 1930's and the 1940's when

Hitler, Mussolini, and Stalin rose from obscurity to power. It was theorized that these men appeared on the scene at a time most propitious for them and their ambitions.

Jennings (1960:9-11) calls the Zeitgeist view the Insignificant Man Approach and credited it to two German philosophers, Hegel and Fichte. A leader is, or becomes great, because he understands the invincible logic of events and cooperates with history. As a result, the occasion makes the man rather than vice versa. Both Hegel and Marx held that individuals needed to submerge their leadership in a great "spirit" and take their place in the inevitable march of history. In both cases, Jennings wrote, "inevitabalism" was assumed to invite enlightened participation. Men were necessary, but still insignificant, in terms of the changing course of history.

Gibb (1958:70-71) concluded:

The first main point to be made in leadership theory is that leadership is relative always to the situation -- (a) to the extent that a certain kind of situation is required before the leadership relation will appear at all and (b) in the sense that a particular set of social circumstances existing at the moment determines which attributes of personality will confer leadership status and consequently determine which members will assume the role and which qualities of personality will function to maintain the individual in that role.

Every situation possesses its own set of idiosyncrasy, noted Seeman (1957:44), and with school matters in view he explained that "leadership style is simply a matter of taste. It is bound up with the hard facts of community support, salary trends, teacher evaluation, and administrative management." Bavelas (1968:256-258) showed his awareness of the uniqueness of situations when he asserted that "leadership depends not only on the characteristics of the person,

but upon the characteristics of the situation." He added that "situations have personality, too." Bavelas' (1968:258) explanation of how leaders may fit into a situation is worthy of mention:

When specific situational patterns are different from organization to organization, one cannot say what personal traits will lead to acknowledged leadership. Instead, one must try to define the leadership function that must be performed in those situations and regard as leadership those acts which perform them --- hence --- any member of a group may become its leader under circumstances that enable him to perform the required functions of leadership and that different persons may contribute in different ways to the leadership of the group.

Jennings (1960:14) decried the practice of a leader attempting to determine the situational needs and then tailoring his leader behavior to meet those needs. He called such leaders "social meteorologists" who put up trial balloons to determine the atmosphere of the group and the situation in general. Bogardus (1958), however, saw no problem with this practice and, in fact, saw problems for a leader if he did not match his leadership to the situation.

Bogardus (1958:65) warned of what would happen if a leader miscalculates:

Situational leadership often explains leadership unevenness. A person may use a leadership technique in a situation for which it is not intended with the result that it does not work well, or it fails.

Although Bogardus recommended the practice, he recognized, nevertheless, that some might misunderstand a leader's behavior in meeting the demands of various and disparate situations (1958:66):

The situational nature of leadership explains why a leader sometimes seems to contradict himself and to act like a hypocrite even though he loathes hypocrisy . . . (he) may act honestly, yet contradictorily, in two different situations.

"Distinctive situations make specifically different demands for skill and individuals failing to possess these will be limited in their chances for leadership," added Gouldner. (1958:80)

Benne's (1961:206) conviction was that it was a myth to believe that social situations automatically produce the leadership required. "It is extremely significant that leadership is a function of both personal qualities and the situation," he wrote. Gibb (1958), too, concurred with this view: "Leadership is both a function of the social situation and a function of personality, but it is a function of these two in interaction." (p. 69)

In concluding a discussion of the three foregoing leadership theories, it might be asked if leadership is a function of the personality, a function of the group, a function of the situation, or a function of all three? There are those who have said that it is a function of all three.

Knickerbocker (1961), for instance, said that when conceived in terms of the dynamics of human social behavior, leadership is a function of needs "existing in a given situation, and consists of a relationship between an individual and a group." (p. 76) Merrifield (1961:108) wrote in the same vein:

Perhaps the best we can say at this point is that any comprehensive theory of leadership must take into account the fact that roles in groups tend to be structured, and that the leadership role is probably related to personality factors, to the attitudes and needs of "followers" at a particular time, to the structure of the group, and to the situation.

Ross and Hendry (1961) said that the three theories of leadership "overlap." Indeed, when overlapping is denied or ignored,

they warned that difficulty arises. A truly "adequate conception of leadership involves elements from all three conceptions leadership is an interactional phenomenon." (p. 17)

The Great Man Theory of Leadership

In 1879 Galton published a study of the hereditary background of several great men. He tried to explain leadership as the result of inheritance. Galton's work influenced several early leadership theorists. Their work centered around the "Great Man Theory." (Stogdill, 1974:17)

The thesis of eighteenth century rationalists was that great men determine the course of history and not contrariwise. They believed that the personal characteristics of significant figures coupled with good luck determined the course of history.

Jennings' (1960) An Anatomy of Leadership -- Princes, Heroes, and Supermen is possibly one of the most definitive studies on the Great Man Theory. In his book, Jennings stated that great changes in society and in organizations are brought about through the innovative efforts of a few superior individuals. These individuals, he noted, are motivated by desire for power and by a sense of mission. They are men of iron will and of great energy. (p. 1)

Closely allied to the Great Man Theory is what some have designated the charismatic leader. Marshall (1970) defined a charismatic leader as one whose power originates through personal dynamism, fervor, or magnetism and that it is those qualities which set him apart from ordinary mortals. "Until the Industrial Revolution,"

Marshall wrote, "leadership was usually determined by birth or charisma." Moreover, "the societies were structured by class and the regal classes inherited leadership roles and responsibilities." (p. 7)

Trouble looms on the horizon for any modern-day, would-be great men or charismatic leaders, warned Bridges. He pointed out that a major component of the leader's ego ideal is a heroic one. The leader believes that he should be the originator of actions for others and that he should have a special sense of direction for the organization and be able to secure the commitment and efforts of others in the service of this mission. "Dysfunction and trouble" will come to those adhering to such views, asserted Bridges, (1977:208) and those leaders who yearn to "create a Camelot or a New Jerusalem" are on a collision course with "craziness."

Other Views of Leadership

Getzels and Guba expressed their views of leadership by using the terms idiographic, nomothetic, and transactional. The idiographic leader is more person oriented than he is organization oriented. He is, as Knezevich pointed out, most concerned with perceptions and predispositions. He delegates authority and he tailors his relations to others according to their own personality needs. The nomothetic leader, by contrast, stresses the institution and its requirements. He expects conformity of role behavior. He believes that the rules of the institution have value in and of themselves and that they are to be kept without deviation. This kind

of leader expects effectiveness from his followers. The transactional leader is something of a compromise between the idiographic and nomothetic. He appreciates the needs of the institution and at the same time realizes that individuals have need of growing and developing, too. He may stress organizational needs at one time -- depending upon the circumstances -- and human needs another time.

(Knezevich, 1962:80-90)

Goldman (1966:85-88) suggested that the Consideration and Initiating Structure dimensions of Halpin's Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) were roughly equivalent to the idiographic and nomothetic leader behaviors of Getzels and Guba. As obvious as this may be, it has not been widely expressed in the literature.

Ohio State University Leadership Studies

This present study concerned, in part, with leadership behavior and attitudes of school principals, has its roots in the work commenced in the mid-1940's by Carroll L. Shartle at the Ohio State University. The LBDQ was developed by researchers from 150 leadership behavior items which in turn had been derived from over 1,800 original items which "expert judges" put into nine a priori "dimensions" of leadership:

- (1) Integration
- (2) Communication
- (3) Production Emphasis
- (4) Representation

- (5) Fraternization
- (6) Organization
- (7) Evaluation
- (8) Initiative
- (9) Domination

Out of this research, two major factors emerged: "Initiating Structure and Consideration." (Fleishman, 1953:1-2) These were to have answered the two questions, "What does he do?" and "How does he do it?" respectively. Halpin (1955:21) was careful to point out, lest any misunderstanding arise, that Initiating Structure and Consideration were dimensions of leader behavior and not leadership traits.

Various forms of the LBDQ have been constructed and each form has been used with many different populations. There is considerable opinion that effective leadership is associated with high scores on both the Initiating Structure and Consideration dimensions. (Halpin, 1955:31) In fact, as Halpin (p. 16) noted, because educational administrators are high on Consideration and low on Initiating Structure, schools, in his opinion, are not as productive as they could be. In addition, Rim (1965:429) stated that men and women scoring high on both Consideration and Initiating Structure appear to be the influencers in the group and tend to take higher initial risks than their colleagues.

Sergiovani and Carver (1973:203) stated, too, that with reference to Consideration and Initiating Structure, the consensus of empirical researchers is that an individual high in both is the most effective.

The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) is an instrument which Edwin A. Fleishman (Feb. 1953:1) developed from his Supervisory Behavior Description (SBD) which, in turn, he had developed from the LBDQ. He developed the LOQ to measure leadership attitudes, not leadership behavior as does the LBDQ. Stated another way, the LOQ is used to assess how a leader thinks he should behave in a given situation, while the LBDQ measures follower perceptions of leader behavior. Fleishman first developed a 110-item LOQ. The items in this questionnaire were generally parallel to those in the pretest form of the SBD. In the pilot edition of the LOQ the words "actually do" were used whereas in the current LOQ it is "what should you do with reference to statements describing various leader behavior?" After using several forms of the LOQ and improving it through many revisions, Fleishman stated: "The implications of these findings seem to be that the dimensions of 'Consideration' and 'Initiating Structure' are as meaningful and as independent in the attitudinal domain of leadership as in the behavioral realm." (June 1953:155) The LOQ measures leadership attitudes on only the Consideration and Initiating Structure scales.

In any research utilizing instruments such as the LBDQ, or the LOQ, the researcher should clarify the domain in which he wishes to obtain data. If he is intent on collecting leadership behavior data, then he would not want to use an instrument such as the LOQ which was designed to determine attitudes, not behavior. And similarly, he would not use the LBDQ to determine leadership attitudes. This was spelled out clearly by Fleishman and Hunt (1975:180) who cautioned against using the same measures interchangeably simply because they dealt with similar concepts.

Once the dimensions of Consideration and Initiating Structure, as isolated by the use of the LOQ or the LBDQ, have been examined, a fair question which might be asked is this: "What does it all mean?" Traditionally, this information has been arranged in a four cell quadrant (see Figure 1 early in this chapter) with the high Consideration and high Initiating Structure cell being considered descriptive of the ideal, or normative style. High Initiating Structure and low Consideration, high Consideration and low Initiating Structure, and low Initiating Structure and low Consideration comprise the remainder of the quadrant. Low Initiating Structure combined with low Consideration are considered to exemplify least desired leader behavior. Hersey and Blanchard (1977), however, have separated with the more traditional view and suggested that "no single ideal or normative style" of leadership can be specified. In a basically prescriptive treatment of the four-cell Consideration and Initiating Structure quadrant they concluded that successful leaders can adapt a leader behavior to meet the demands of their own unique environment. They suggest that a leader, depending on his specific circumstances, starts in a different place in quadrant and progresses onward. Progress they would define as being able, step by step, to decrease Initiating Structure while keeping Consideration high but eventually have a group which functions well with the leader exhibiting a minimum of Initiating Structure and Consideration. (p. 180)

Related Leadership Studies

Studies of a related nature are of two types: Those utilizing the LOQ and measuring leadership attitude or the "ideal" form of leadership, and those utilizing the LBDQ and measuring leadership behavior or the "real" form of leadership.

The LOQ and/or the LBDQ are frequently used with other standardized instruments and if not with these kinds of instruments, then almost certainly with personal information questionnaires or some such information gathering instrument. Petty and Pryor (1974), for instance, used these two instruments, and the Leaderless Group Discussion (LGD) instrument in their research.

The purpose of the Petty and Pryor study at the University of Tennessee was to examine the predictive validities of Consideration and Initiating Structure as measured by the LOQ, the LBDQ, and the LGD. The subjects were 68 ROTC students randomly chosen from the University of Tennessee ROTC population who met several criteria of leader performance. As a result of their study, they concluded that the LOQ failed to predict any of the performance criteria. The LGD, they reported, was best in the area of predicting Initiating Structure. The researchers concluded that "the low heteroinstrument-homeotrait correlation appear to indicate that the three instruments were measuring different phenomena (i.e. self, peer, and observer perceptions of leadership status)." (Petty and Pryor, 1975:384) Their conclusions tended to bear out Fleishman and Hunt's (1975) caution that distinctions must be made between leadership attitudes, perceptions, and behavior.

Arkoff and Shears (1961) used the LOQ but not for predictive or selection purposes. They used the LOQ to determine the conceptions of "ideal" leadership in both accepted and rejected principal training candidates in the State of Hawaii whose selection or rejection had been based upon the use of several standardized tests.

The study concerned 93 candidates for a leadership training program sponsored by the Department of Public Instruction of Hawaii and by the University of Hawaii. Thirty-three candidates were chosen (22 males and 11 females) and 60 (42 males and 18 females) were rejected. (1961:71)

Arkoff and Shears concluded that the similarity of means of accepted and rejected candidates on the Consideration and Initiating Structure dimensions of the LOQ seemed to indicate that both groups had similar attitudes towards "ideal" leadership. The significant differences in variances suggested an important discrepancy between groups. The accepted candidates, according to these researchers, were more homogeneous in their conception of "ideal" and the rejected were more heterogeneous. (p. 72)

Fifty-nine elementary principals and 973 elementary teachers responded to Maher's (1972) inquiry concerning the leadership of elementary school principals as perceived by their teachers and by themselves. Using the LBDQ for Consideration and Initiating Structure, he found that leadership ideology was significantly higher than the leadership behavior of the elementary school principals in the various collective negotiation situations; that the expectations of

the teachers were significantly higher than their perceptions of the leadership behavior of their principals in the various collective negotiation situations; and, that the expectation of the principals, themselves, was not significantly higher than their perceptions of their own leadership behavior in the various collective negotiation situations.

In a similar study, Dow (1971) sought to determine differences between elementary teachers and their principals with regard to perceptions and expectations as measured on the LBDQ, by using four dimensions upon six schools administered by black principals and six schools administered by white principals. He concluded the following: (1) there was no significant difference between the teachers and administrators' perceptions of the principals' leadership behavior, (2) there was a significant difference between the teachers' and administrators' expectations of the principals' leader behavior, particularly contributed by the Consideration and Initiating Structure dimensions, and (3) there was a significant difference between the perceptions and expectations of the principals' leader behavior.

Capelle (1966) used the LOQ to determine if the LOQ would differentiate male college leaders from non-leaders. The subjects tested were 50 leaders and 50 non-leaders who were students at the University of Maryland. In this instance leaders were defined as those listed in Who's Who Among Students In American Universities and

Colleges or as those listed as members of Omicron Delta Kappa, an honorary male leadership fraternity. Non-leaders were neither of the above but were, as were the leaders, students at the University of Maryland. The leaders scored significantly higher than the non-leaders on both the Initiating Structure and Consideration scales as measured by the LOQ.

"The leadership behavior of the principal, the cohesiveness of the teaching group, and the convergence of teachers' expectations for the principal's behavior" were three factors researched by Watson (1965). Her data was acquired by using the LBDQ as well as another instrument, from which two measures of cohesiveness were obtained. The conclusions drawn from this study were that the leadership behavior of the elementary principal tends to be related to the cohesiveness of the teaching group. A highly cohesive group is associated with leadership behavior which is perceived as high in Initiating Structure and in Consideration. Finally, elementary teachers are inclined to value the Consideration dimension more highly than the Initiating Structure dimension. However, Initiating Structure increases in importance for them as the year progresses.

An exploratory effort, to ascertain the possible existence of a relationship between the leader behavior expectations of the follower and six specific personality traits of the follower, was accomplished by Finnessy (1973) at Indiana University. Responses by 122 teachers as recorded on modified forms of the California Psychological Inventory and the LOQ provided the data. The conclusions drawn from this study were that teachers generally expect an effective principal

to exhibit more Initiating Structure behavior than Consideration; that teachers also expect a principal to demonstrate a high Consideration factor; and finally, that the linear relationship between follower personality traits and follower leader behavior expectations were not strong enough to help determine the leader behavior the principal should exhibit to be a more effective leader.

The majority of the empirical investigations reviewed as pertinent to this study of leadership has some degree of common foundation. This similarity often appears in the terminology (i.e., "Real" behavior, "Ideal" behavior, "Effective" administration, "Ineffective" administration, Initiating Structure dimension, Consideration dimension, etc.). At times, different authorities have used different terms to identify much the same actions, behaviors, or styles. Case in point, numerous studies have hypothesized similar dimensions to those of Consideration and Initiating Structure. In fact, the popular theoretical two dimensional derivation by Getzels and Guba (1957:423-441) of "nomothetic" and "idiographic" styles of behavior are distinctly similar to "Initiating Structure" and "Consideration" dimensions. Hoy and Miskel (1978:180) provide a list (Table 1) of researchers and theorists and the terms they apply to these two dimensions. Though different names are applied, the meanings are similar. To paraphrase Lonsdale (1964:142-144), the emergence of a respectable degree of consensus may be observed as a commonality running through the analysis of a goodly number of empiricists

TABLE 1
DIMENSIONS OF LEADERSHIP
COMPARISONS AND SIMILARITIES

Theorist	Concern for Organizational Tasks	Concern for Individual Relationships
Barnard	Effectiveness	Efficiency
Etzioni & Parsons	Instrumental Activities	Expressive Activities
Cartwright & Zander	Goal Achievement	Group Maintenance
Getzels & Guba	Nomothetic	Idiographic
Halpin	Initiating Structure	Consideration
Kahn	Production Orientation	Employee Orientation
Bales	Task Leader	Social Leader
Bowers & Seashore	Goal Emphasis	Support
Brown	System Orientation	Person Orientation
Stogdill	Production Emphasis	Tolerance of Freedom
	Initiating Structure	Tolerance of Uncertainty
	Representation	Consideration
	Role Assumption	Demand
	Persuasion	Reconciliation
	Superior Orientation	Predictive Accuracy
		Integration

(Hoy & Miskel, 1978:180)

over the past thirty years.

In conclusion, most of the literature concerned with leadership is inconclusive. Much has been accomplished that points out that leadership is a highly complex concept and is, at best, definable using its own terms, thereby shedding little light on its many facets.

Leadership has yet to be examined in comparison to Maslow's concept of the self-actualizing individual. It would seem that self-actualization, with its emphasis on time reference and inner dimension, might well be worth exploring in relation to leadership in school administration.

SELF-ACTUALIZATION

In recent years psychiatrists, psychologists, sociologists, social workers, biologists, and anthropologists have been concerned with the relationship of the individual to his culture or society. To obtain knowledge of a society one ultimately must study the individuals that are a part of that society; conversely, the individual can be wholly understood only when viewed within his social and cultural context. The increasing realization of the importance of understanding the motivation of human behavior in society and the organizations of society has led to a general trend in the field of organization and administration. This trend stresses use of the theory of behavioral sciences in schools of education, engineering, business and administration. (Argyris, 1957:9)

The necessary focus on human behavior and the understanding thereof simultaneously required some conception of personality. The term "personality" is a difficult concept, as evidenced by Allport's exhaustive survey of literature in which he extracted almost fifty different definitions (50). Despite the elusiveness of the term "personality," there is a conviction that the understanding of human behavior will evolve only from the study of the whole person.

A recent approach is that of Maslow, who based his conception of personality on the study of particularly well-organized and creative behavior. His focus on "peak experiences" stressed the peculiar psychological properties of exceptionally productive and integrative human activities. While the concept of self-actualization is frequently attributed to Maslow, the term itself was coined by Goldstein who used it to refer to a desire for self-fulfillment or the tendency for one to actualize potentiality. Maslow phrased this tendency as a "desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything that one is capable of becoming. . . . What a man can be, he must be," (Maslow, 1964:16). He saw the self-actualized person as functioning more fully and living a more enriched life than the average person. Such an individual was seen as developing and utilizing his unique talents, or potentialities, free of constraints and emotional turmoil common to those less self-actualized.

Self-actualization is not a new concept. Cangemi (1974), in his study to investigate if self-actualization was a major goal of higher education, traced the basic ideas underlying human development

and self-actualization to Aristotle. From Aristotle, Socrates, and Plato, to the present, Cangemi found similarities and parallel development between many philosophers, psychologists, and researchers, notably Rousseau, Hegel, Dewey, Reisman, Rogers, Fromm, and Allport. Their basic commonality lies in their marked interest in development of individual capacities to the fullest and the attainment of mental hygiene. Others are described by Cangemi, and all have in common the concern for values and the total development of the human organism, however they choose to perceive it.

Maslow was one of the principal architects of the humanistic "Third Force" philosophy and psychology. His theories originated in a search for a more exact description of the healthiest members of the human species and as an alternative to the normative description of man that Maslow (1971:7) referred to as:

. . . an average of what amounts to indiscriminately sick and healthy, indiscriminately good and bad specimens, good and bad choosers, biologically sound and biologically unsound specimens.

Maslow visualized a better society if the influence of the healthiest members of the human species could be realized. The ultimate attainable expression of the human species, the people identified by Maslow as "self-actualized" supposedly represent the highest level of philosophical and psychological development.

Investigation of human motivation led Maslow to formulate the classic hierarchy of needs. Briefly stated, a self-actualizing person is one whose basic human needs or motives have been met (Maslow 1970a). The needs form a hierarchy, illustrated in Figure 2, beginning with physiological needs, continuing in ascending order to

safety needs, belongingness and love needs, esteem needs, and finally, the need for self-actualization. As each of the lower needs is sufficiently satisfied, other higher needs emerge; these, then, dominate the organism. These needs, in turn, are satisfied and still higher needs emerge, and so on. Maslow contended that human beings are always desiring something, ". . . he is a wanting animal and . . . rarely reaches a state of complete satisfaction except for a short time. As one desire is satisfied, another pops up to take its place." (Maslow, 1964:39)

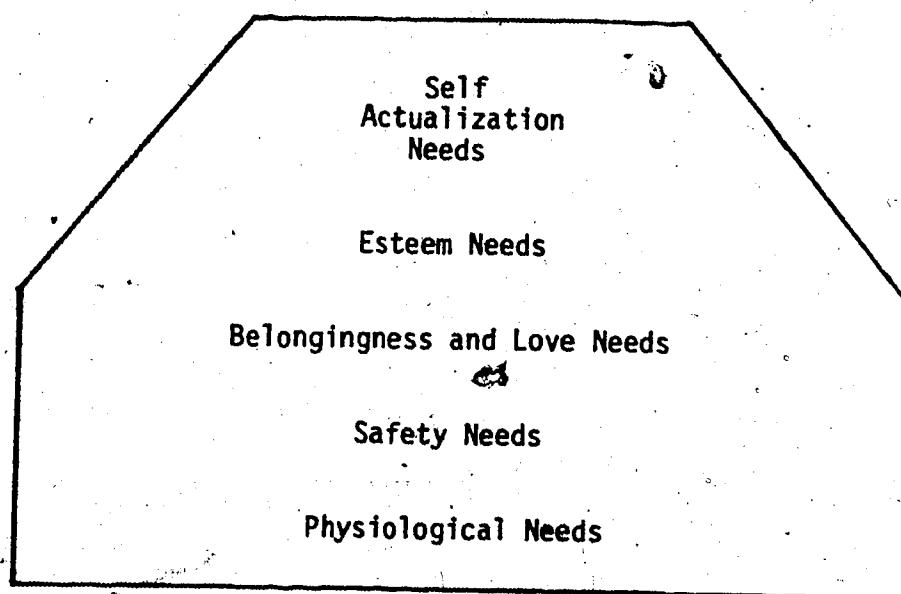


Figure 2. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs.

Self-actualized people have sufficiently gratified their basic needs and were defined by Maslow (1968:25-26) in terms of the following clinically observed characteristics:

1. Superior perception of reality.
2. Increased acceptance of self, of others and of nature.

3. Increased spontaneity.
4. Increase in problem-centering.
5. Increased detachment and desire for privacy.
6. Increased autonomy, and resistance to enculturation.
7. Greater freshness of appreciation, and richness of emotional reaction.
8. Higher frequencies of peak experiences.
9. Increased identification with the human species.
10. Changed (improved) interpersonal experiences.
11. More democratic character structure.
12. Greatly increased creativeness.
13. Certain changes in the value system.

Self-actualized people possess distinctive qualities. They are better able to separate ends from means, the main issue from peripheral issues, and the attainable from the unattainable goal. As stated by Maslow (1970a:166), the self-actualized person can see things that the average person cannot see, ". . . that the truth that is so clear to him is for most people veiled and hidden." Among these distinctive qualities, Maslow believed, was the ability of self-actualized persons to make better choices than less healthy (i.e. less self-actualized) members of the species. The value of such an ability was stressed by Maslow (1968:15):

To average the choices of good and bad choosers, of healthy and sick people is useless. Only the choices and tastes and judgements of healthy human beings will tell us much about what is good for the human species in the long run.

In addition to the clinically observed characteristics, the self-actualizing individual has a set of values called the B-values or the Being values. Stated another way, they are the values of being. These values, listed in Figure 3, are very significant to this person, and if blocked in pursuing any or all of them, he may show symptoms of what Maslow (1971) calls metapathologies -- the "sicknesses of the soul" (pg. 43).

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Truth | 8. Completion - finality |
| 2. Goodness | 9. Justice - order |
| 3. Beauty | 10. Simplicity |
| 4. Unity - wholeness | 11. Richness - totality |
| a. Dichotomy -
transcendence | 12. Effortlessness |
| 5. Aliveness - process | 13. Playfulness |
| 6. Uniqueness | 14. Self-sufficiency |
| 7. Perfection | 15. Meaningfulness |
| a. Necessity | |

Figure 3. The B-values of the self-actualizing person as described by Maslow. (1971:128-129)

The metapathologies, along with metaneeds, belong in Maslow's theory of metamotivation, or those things which motivate self-actualizing persons. Briefly, the metamotivated individual is one who is motivated by the B-values of truth, goodness, simplicity,

justice, etc. He devotes his life towards working at something which is very precious to him. He may devote his life, for example, to law, beauty, or truth. Each self-actualizing individual, in one way or another, devotes his life to the search for the B-values. (1971:42) One can develop metapathologies when deprived of the opportunity to fill his meta-needs (B-values). Maslow (1971:318) describes these metapathologies as cynicism, hatred, disgust, disintegration, low synergy, loss of zest in life, insecurity, depression, grimness, meaninglessness, etc.

The self-actualizing person is one whose values and sense of self-esteem are deeply interwoven. Should one be value deprived, his sense of self-esteem may suffer, along with his ability to see the many opposites in life as having meaningful relationships. In some instances, personal effectiveness suffers, and a sense of anomie develops when the metaneeds of the self-actualizing person are not met.

The self-actualizing person is more inner directed than a less self-actualized individual. He responds to an internal sense of right and wrong and tends to not be overly influenced by what others think he should or should not accomplish. Graham (1973) observed inner and other direction in leaders when he studied the impact of successful group performance on the behavior of group leaders.

Shostrom (1966) has carefully examined the behavior of self-actualizing individuals and has concluded that self-actualizing persons are time competent persons. (p. 13) Time competence is a concept which emphasizes how an individual perceives time and where he sees himself on a time continuum involving past, present, and

future time. The time competent person sees himself in the present most of the time and is able to tie the past and future to the present, creating meaningful continuity.

Shostrom's interest in self-actualization led him to develop the "Personal Orientation Inventory" (POI) which purports to measure the degree of self-actualization of individuals. The POI provides a measure of values and behavior considered important in the development of self-actualization. He ultimately concluded that self-actualization is indeed influenced by perception of time and degree of inner direction. (1966)

Inner-directed means being energized from within as opposed to being other-directed and energized by people to whom one gives that authority. While the other-directed person depends on the views of others, the inner-directed individual is more independent, relying on internal motivations, which, over time become generalized into an inner core of character traits and principles. (Shostrom, 1972:17)

The source for this inner-directedness is implanted early in life, primarily through the parents and guided by relatively few principles. The source for other-directedness seems to be splintered between family and external authorities which in turn promotes fear or anxiety. Thus the other-directed individual becomes dependent upon the opinion and approval of others and in this way conforms to external influences. (Shostrom, 1964)

The second fundamental concept developed by Shostrom (1964: 1972) is that of time orientation described in terms of polarities of time competence and time incompetence. Time competent means living primarily in the present but tying the past and future together in

meaningful continuity. On the other hand, time incompetent means living primarily in the past with guilts, resentments and regrets, and/or in the future, with fears and idealized goals.

The self-actualizing person is mostly time competent in that the past is used for reflective thinking and the future is seen in terms of present goals. The non-self-actualized is, in comparison, mostly time incompetent wrapping up the present with excessive concern for the past or future. The past-oriented person persists in "nibbling on the undigested memories and hurts of the past" while the future oriented, living with fears and fanciful goals, is the "obsessive worrier who nibbles at the future." (Shostrom, 1972:16)

As stated earlier, many of the component parts of Maslow's description of a self-actualized person can be traced back and found in the teachings of Plato, Aristotle, and Socrates. Although they believed that the good in life was to be achieved primarily through reason and intelligence, they, like Maslow, thought of man's higher capabilities as the virtues that led to excellence in life. For those early philosophers also, excellence in life was not so much equated with external achievement as with fulfillment of potential and self-awareness. More recent writers thinking in the context of a democratic society have been referred to by Maslow (1968:iv):

We need something 'bigger than we are' to be awed by and to commit ourselves to in a new, naturalistic, empirical, non-churchly sense, perhaps as Thoreau and Whitman, William James and John Dewey did.

As a philosopher and psychologist concerned with education, John Dewey saw the need for the development of a science of human nature. Dewey anticipated the growth of a scientific social

psychology and in his discussion of it he perhaps foresaw the work to be undertaken several decades later by Maslow when he (1922:324) stated:

It is a commonplace that modern industry and commerce are conditioned upon a control of physical energies due to proper methods of physical inquiry and analysis. We have no social arts which are comparable because we have so nearly nothing in the way of psychological science. Yet through the development of physical science, and especially of chemistry, biology, physiology, medicine and anthropology we now have the basis for the development of such a science of man. Signs of its coming into existence are present in the movements in clinical, behavioristic and social (in its narrower sense) psychology.

Not only did Dewey visualize the movement that Maslow would become part of, he also anticipated some outcomes of the movement. In discussing the value of using a scientific approach in studying the realities of human nature, the moral life, and the advantages of studying them as the physical sciences are studied, Dewey (1922:12) suggested:

But morals based upon concern with facts and deriving guidance from knowledge of them would at least locate the points of effective endeavor and would focus available resources upon them. It would put an end to the impossible attempt to live in two unrelated worlds. It would destroy fixed distinction between the human and the physical, as well as that between the moral and the industrial and political. A morals based on study of human nature instead of upon disregard for it would find the facts of man continuous with those of the rest of nature and would thereby ally ethics with physics and biology. It would find the nature and activities of one person continuous with those of other human beings, and therefore link ethics with the study of history, sociology, law and economics.

The principal aspect of Maslow's theory of self-actualization was first published in Psychological Review (1943:370-396) under the title "A Theory of Human Motivation." Huizinga (1970:23) stated that

Maslow acknowledged having derived the term "self-actualization" from Goldstein, and points out that the concept was first introduced into psychology under the name "individuation" by Jung as a critique on Freud.

However, of the attempts to precisely define the general area of superior mental health and self-actualization, Maslow (1968:24) stated:

For the writers in these various groups, notably Fromm (50), Horney (67), Jung (73), C. Buhler (22), Angyal (6), Rogers (143), and G. Allport (2), Schachtel (147), and Lynd (92), and recently some Catholic psychologists (9, 128) growth, individuation, autonomy, self-actualization, self-development, productiveness, self-realization, are all crudely synonymous, designating a vaguely perceived area rather than a sharply defined concept. In my opinion, it is not possible to define this area sharply at the present time. Nor is this desirable either, since a definition which does not emerge easily and naturally from well known facts is apt to be inhibiting and distorting rather than helpful, since it is quite likely to be wrong or mistaken if made by an act of the will, on a priori grounds. We just don't know enough about growth yet to be able to define it well.

Maslow's Concept of Self-Actualization

"Ought a biological species to [sic] be judged by its crippled, warped, only partially developed specimens," Maslow asked, "or by examples that have been overdomesticated, caged and trained?" (1970a:195). Where behavioral psychologists have been disposed to study averages that led to a consensus of the well adjusted person, Maslow attempted to study representatives of the fully developed human personality. The best representatives of the human species, those individuals who are in Maslow's (1970a:150) words the products of

"fulfilling themselves and doing the best they are capable of doing," represent the best specimens of psychological maturity of the species. The full potential of humanity, the leading edge of the human species, may account for less than one percent of the population.

In his research, Maslow (1970a:149-180) found that in the vast majority of cases his self-actualizing subjects felt safe, unanxious, accepted, loved and loving, worthy of respect and respected, and had established a sound philosophical, religious, and ethical orientation. In all cases Maslow's self-actualizing subjects felt they were fully utilizing and exploiting their talents, capacities, and potentials.

Self-actualizing people tend to accept their personal nature in a stoic style, reconciling individual shortcomings, and coping rather well with discrepancies from the ideal image. They take the weaknesses and "evils" of human nature in the same unquestioning spirit with which one accepts the characteristics of nature. The self-actualized do not feel guilty or defensive about their natures; however, they are often upset by lack of agreement between what is and what ought to be. Maslow (1970a:157) indicates that what self-actualized individuals feel regretful or guilty about are (1) improvable shortcomings, e.g., laziness, thoughtlessness, loss of temper, hurting others; (2) stubborn remnants of psychological ill health; e.g., prejudice, jealousy, envy; (3) habits, which, though relatively independent of character structure, may yet be very strong, or (4) shortcomings of the culture or of the group with which he has identified.

Self-actualized behavior is simple and natural; conventional behavior can easily be dropped by the self-actualizing individuals if the issue at hand is a basic affront to their natures.

Dedication to task, job, responsibility or duty is a characteristic of self-actualized personalities. These individuals are generally not concerned with themselves, rather their attention is focused on a much wider frame of reference. Their interests tend toward the philosophical and ethical, yet self-actualized persons can be practical, shrewd, and realistic. Maslow (1970a:160) felt that their abilities to live within a framework of values that is broad rather than petty creates an atmosphere which makes life easier and more serene for themselves and for those around them.

Among the self-actualized there are definite qualities of reserve. To a degree greater than found in average persons, self-actualized individuals seek privacy and solitude; it is part of their nature to be calm, serene, and reserved. In some cases the self-actualized could be described as aloof, seclusive, and distant. In social situations with most people, according to Maslow, detachment of this sort is often interpreted as coldness, unfriendliness, or even hostility. A more positive view of this trait could be described as one of dignified independence.

Maslow emphasized that people are both similar to and different from each other. (1968) In agreement with Rogers (1968), he stated that our inner nature, as much as we know of it so far, is definitely not evil, but rather good or else neutral. He postulated that satisfaction of the survival tendency is all that is necessary to

ensure that self-actualization will occur. Once the survival tendency has been met, he continued, whether or not the individual will strive for self-actualization hinges on the nature of the physical and social environment.

In terms of actual behavior, what does one do when he self-actualizes? Maslow (1972:43-47) is able to describe eight ways in which an individual self-actualizes in "moment-to-moment" terms. First, self-actualization means experiencing fully, vividly, selflessly, with full concentration and total absorption. The second method involved the individual's ability to make "growth" choices because self-actualization is an ongoing process. The third method implied that there is a self within the self referred to as "listening to the impulse voices" which allows the self to emerge. Fourth, he continued, when in doubt, choose to be honest rather than not, and this includes choosing not to play games and posing with others. Fifth, after a person does each of these little things each time the choice point comes, he will discover that they add up to better choices about what is constitutionally right for him. "One cannot choose wisely for a life unless he dares to listen to himself, his own self, at each moment in life, and to say calmly, 'No, I don't like such and such.'" (Maslow, 1972:47) Sixth, self-actualization must be seen as not only an end state but a process of actualizing oneself at any time, in any amount. "It involves working to do well the thing that one wants to do." (48) The process of breaking up an illusion, getting rid of false notions, learning what one's potentialities are not, helps the person to discover who one really

is; Maslow's seventh method. Finally, finding out who one is, what one is and likes and doesn't, what is good and bad for oneself, identifying one's defenses and finding the courage to give them up is the last method Maslow referred to in helping one achieve self-actualizing moments.

Put all these points together, and we see that self-actualization is not a matter of one great moment. It is a matter of degree, of little accessions accumulated one by one. Self-actualizing people listen to their own voices; they take responsibility; they are honest; and they work hard. They find out who they are and what they are, not only in terms of their mission in life, but also in terms of the way their feet hurt when they wear such and such a pair of shoes and whether they do or do not like eggplant or stay up all night if they drink too much beer. All this is what the real self means. (p. 50)

Among the self-actualized a basic source of strength and pleasure is an ongoing rediscovery of the basic good experiences of life. Maslow (1970a:163) has pointed out that they find more wonder and appreciation in music, nature, and children than in wealth or going to a night club or party.

The friends of the self-actualized persons are few in number, but they involve deep emotional ties. These friends in turn are likely to be much closer to self-actualizing themselves than the average person. The criteria of the self-actualized for selecting friends appears to be that the individual possess suitable character. Differences of class, education, political and religious beliefs, race or color are inconsequential. As stated by Maslow (1970a:168):

These individuals, themselves elite, select for their friends elite, but this is an elite of character, capacity, and talent, rather than of birth, race, blood, name, family, age, youth, fame or power.

Self-actualizing individuals have strong (and possibly unique) ethical codes. They have definite moral standards and take delight in doing the right and the good in life. Essentially they avoid doing what they consider wrong. Needless to say, their notions of right and wrong and of good and evil are not always the conventional ones. They find pleasure in doing good, rewarding talent and virtue, in bringing about justice and opposing cruelty. The uniqueness of their code and their dedication to it Maslow suggests, originates in how they perceive reality. What is often construed by average men to be a moral, ethical, or value related problem is to the self-actualized more a man-made dilemma rather than an intrinsic human issue; to the self-actualized it was never a problem in the first place. Their ethics are based on accepted principles resulting from their own value systems, rather than on the conventions of social life, and therefore, as Maslow (1970a:158) states, the self-actualized "... sometimes feel like spies or aliens in a foreign land and sometimes behave so."

Universally and uniquely, the self-actualized share a spontaneous and somewhat childlike creativity. Their creativity is not a special-talent creativeness such as might be associated with art or music. It is more the absence of what Maslow referred to as "enculturation." Rather than creativity which results in a product, the creativity of the self-actualized is a certain attitude, a process, or the spirit of the person doing something.

Their lack of enculturation (adjustment) to a particular culture manifests itself in other ways also. The self-actualizers

may "appear" conventional because they accept aspects of their culture which they believe to be unimportant or unchangeable if they are not associated with moral issues. If the self-actualizers are North Americans, they accept what is good by their code and reject what they think is bad. Choice of clothes, ways of doing things, styles and social amenities are of no significance to the self-actualized. These individuals are not, as pointed out by Maslow (1970a:172), ". . . fashionable, smart, or chic." Largely, the self-actualizers address themselves to the moral issues of their cultures; they are governed principally by the rules of their own characters rather than by the rules of their societies.

Most self-actualizing people possess a feeling of separation from their cultures -- a feeling of objectivity and detachment -- as if they did not quite belong to them. To an extent, self-actualized persons are in exile within their own cultures. They are different from other people in their ways of thinking, in their basic drives and impulses, in their ways of living and conducting themselves, and in their feelings, emotions, and values.

Among the self-actualized there is a sense of satisfaction; they are responsible for themselves and their own destinies; they are self-contained individuals who count their blessings and are grateful for them. Work brings about a great deal of satisfaction. If one asks self-actualizing individuals why they love their work, or more specifically, which are the moments of greatest satisfaction in their job, many specific answers of the type listed and summarized in Appendix A may be received. These are the moments of reward which make all the necessary chores worthwhile and acceptable.

Poelling (1971) conducted a study in which he traced the professional history of Maslow, and the influences and personalities that led him to develop his theory of self-actualization. The major topics and concepts discussed by Poelling included: (1) hierarchy of needs, (2) peak experiences, (3) synergy, (4) eupsychia, and (5) self-actualization. It was noted by Poelling that Maslow believed education and eupsychian management should be concerned with developing the values that foster healthy individual growth.

Approaches to Research About Self-Actualization

The nature and consequences of self-actualization has warranted the attention of researchers from a variety of disciplines. Several recent studies have empirically tested and evaluated aspects involving Maslow's theory of self-actualization. The purpose of this section is to review a sample of the research, thereby assessing, to a limited degree, empirical validity of the theory itself. Studies conducted have utilized a variety of measures to determine self-actualization. The most frequently used instrument however, was Shostrom's Personal Orientation Inventory (1966). Studies utilizing this instrument include: Bagott (1968), Biondolillo (1973), Bowlan (1972), Burke (1973), Dandes (1964), Eiden (1973), Esser (1969), Hargadine (1973), Jorgenson (1968), Jury (1973), Knight (1973), Lessner (1973), Mace (1970), McCann (1973), Moore (1974), Murry (1968), Ormond (1973), Provost (1970), Quinn (1974), Sands (1970), Smith (1968), Sterchele (1973), and Wombacher (1973).

[illegible]

Bowlan (1972) combined the Personal Orientation Inventory and an instrument developed by the researcher to analyse the relationship between self-actualization and perceived effectiveness among principals and teachers.

Cangemi (1974) developed an instrument which was used to determine whether self-actualization was an important objective of higher education, and a questionnaire used to ascertain if there were differences between the perception of students, faculty, and administrators regarding self-actualization as a purpose of higher education.

Hargadine (1973) constructed a check list named the Movement Scope Check List and used this in conjunction with the Personal Orientation Inventory to ascertain if a relationship existed between self-actualization and scope of movement as it pertains to dance.

Jorgenson (1968) devised a questionnaire on which selected teachers made six choices from a prescribed list of students, three students who best represented their teaching goals and three who least represented what they hoped to accomplish. The data collected by this instrument, combined with Personal Orientation Inventory test scores, determined if teachers selected students of significantly different levels of self-actualization when choosing students who best and least represent what they hoped to accomplish as teachers.

Knight (1973) utilized the Personal Orientation Inventory in conjunction with the Relationship Inventory, an instrument fashioned by the researcher, and the Knight Questionnaire to develop detailed information about ten individuals in the process of self-actualizing.

A small Business Questionnaire was developed by Lessner (1973) and used with the Personal Orientation Inventory to determine the degree of self-actualization and the attitudes of the small business entrepreneur.

Sands (1970) developed the Family Life Teacher Scale which was used with the Personal Orientation Inventory to determine the relationship between a sample of 100 Michigan family life teachers' self-actualization and their self-perception of competence.

Smith (1968) constructed the Teacher Facilitation of Self-Direction Inventory to describe some teacher behaviors which encourage or discourage the development of student self-directed learning, and used it in conjunction with the Personal Orientation Inventory to investigate the relationships between personality characteristics of 164 teachers, self-actualization, and open-mindedness on their perceptions of their behaviors related to the development of student self-directed learning.

Research Studies Related to Self-Actualization and Education

Maslow was deeply concerned with education. He felt that education should attempt to produce an improved human being, one who was psychologically more healthy, trusting, and able to handle problems of the present confidently. Maslow was critical of the objectives of many educators, but saw a shift toward a different emphasis when he stated (1971:181):

If we look at education in our own society, we see two sharply different factors. First of all, there is the overwhelming majority of teachers, principals, curriculum

planners, school superintendents, who are devoted to passing on the knowledge that children need in order to live in our industrialized society. They are not especially imaginative or creative, and they often question why they are teaching the things they teach. Their chief concern is with efficiency, that is, with implanting the greatest number of facts into the greatest number of children, with a minimum of time, expense, and effort. On the other hand, there is the minority of humanistically oriented educators who have as their goal the creation of better human beings, or in psychological terms, self-actualization and self-transcendence.

Studies have been conducted among teachers to determine if there is a relationship between self-actualization and student learning, pupil control, and teacher training.

In an early study, Smith (1968) sought to investigate the facilitation of student self-directed learning as perceived by teachers with high and low levels of self-actualization and dogmatism. Smith found that the more highly self-actualizing teachers were significantly more open-minded than the less self-actualizing teachers and that the self-actualizing teachers perceived themselves as using a significantly greater amount of teaching behaviors which encouraged the development of self-directed learning among students than did less self-actualizing teachers.

Jury (1973) used the Personal Orientation Inventory to help determine if teacher self-actualization was related to their methods of controlling students. He found that the more self-actualizing teachers were more "humanistic" in their approach to pupil control, "humanistic" in the sense of being more sensitive to individual needs and interests. Although no significant differences were found to exist regarding self-actualization, he found elementary teachers more humanistic than secondary teachers, female teachers more humanistic

than male teachers, and less experienced teachers more humanistic than experienced teachers.

In a study designed to investigate relationships between self-actualization and child-centeredness among teachers, Sterchele (1973) used the Personal Orientation Inventory and The Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory to determine if differences existed between child-centered and authoritarian teachers. He found that the child-centered group of teachers was more self-actualized than the authoritarian group of teachers. Sterchele concluded that schools of education and hiring institutions should seriously consider the factors that discriminate between the child-centered and authoritarian personalities. He suggested that both pre-service and in-service teacher training programs could be developed to facilitate the development of child-centered factors in teachers.

Several studies have investigated the relationship between self-actualization and job satisfaction. Mace (1970) attempted to determine if a relationship existed between job satisfaction and a desire on the part of career teachers to become school administrators. Mace found that those aspiring to become administrators were more self-actualized than career teachers, but also found less job satisfaction among those seeking to become administrators than those not seeking to become school administrators.

Biondolillo (1973) conducted a study that concerned itself with the extent to which individually prescribed instruction teachers and traditional teachers varied in their degree of job satisfaction and self-actualization. He found that, in general, individually

prescribed instruction teachers were both more self-actualized and had greater job satisfaction than the teachers operating in the traditional environment.

Sherman (1969) examined the relationship between job satisfaction and self-actualization and found the two factors to be unrelated. Provost (1970) found that future administrators were less self-actualizing, as measured by the POI, than were career teachers. This was based on the finding that career teachers are more inner directed being guided by internal motivations rather than by external pressures. These future administrators were, however, less satisfied with teaching. Age, academic preparation, and level of teaching experience all were unrelated to job satisfaction or to self-actualization.

Bagott (1968), using the POI, discovered no relationship between self-actualization and effectiveness of student teachers as assessed by their college supervisors. Esser (1969) used the same instrument and found a relationship between the self-actualization of teachers and evaluations by their principals. Those teachers whose self-actualization level was highest received more positive evaluations. Esser reported no significant relationships between self-actualization level or evaluation and age, sex, marital status, experience or grade taught.

Bowlan (1972), in his study, attempted to determine if a relationship existed between self-actualization and perceived effectiveness among principals and teachers. Bowlan found that there was no relationship between self-actualization and perceived

effectiveness among principals and teachers. He concluded that principals with more tenure in the system apparently had more of an opportunity to actualize their potential and reach a higher degree of self-actualization.

Adk (1972) however, in another study of teacher self-actualization, philosophical orientation, and student attitudes found that as a teacher's behavior becomes more inner directed, open, and supportive, student attitude toward the teacher becomes more positive. He also found a significant difference in the degree of self-acceptance between teachers highly experimental in philosophy and classroom practice and teachers low in acceptance of experimentalism. The highly experimental teachers tended to be more tolerant of personal weakness and deficiencies than teachers low in their acceptance of the experimental philosophy.

A study by Quinn (1974) attempted to determine the effect of secondary biology teacher self-actualization upon students' attitudes toward biology. He found that students of average category self-actualizing teachers expressed more favorable attitudes toward biology than students of both high self-actualizing and low self-actualizing teachers. Students of low self-actualizing teachers, however expressed less favourable attitudes towards biology than students of high self-actualizing teachers. Quinn indicated that if students perceive a biology teacher as being less self-actualizing, they may perceive biology content as being less relevant in their lives.

In a study to determine if teachers' level of self-actualization and social values affected students' perception of the

teachers' concern, Murry (1968) found that self-actualizing teachers would be perceived by their students as more concerned than non-self-actualizing teachers. Teachers with high social values were perceived by their students as more concerned than teachers with low social values.

One of Maslow's greatest concerns involved values and the ultimate goals of education. He believed that the values most essential to the good life and the good society could be taught in the schools. Maslow (1970b:67) stated:

What is the practical upshot for education of all these considerations? We wind up with a rather startling conclusion, namely, that the teaching of spiritual values and ethical and moral values definitely does (in principle) have a place in education, perhaps ultimately a very basic and essential place, and that this in no way needs to controvert the American separation between church and state for the very simple reason that spiritual, ethical, and moral values need have nothing to do with any church. Or perhaps, better said, they are the common core of all churches, all religions, including the non-theistic ones. As a matter of fact, it is possible that precisely these ultimate values are and should be the far goals of all education.

Leadership Potential of Self-Actualized Individuals

The writings of Abraham Maslow suggested that the values, characteristics, and motivations of the healthiest people could have an important influence on the future of our institutions, society and culture.

The appeal of the self-actualizing individual over others was disclosed in several studies. Wombacher (1973) found that both respect for and being liked and sought after by others increased in

all situations as the level of self-actualization increased.

Similar findings were disclosed by Paulk (1972) who concluded that as a teacher's behavior became more self-actualizing, student attitude toward that teacher became more positive. In a study designed to investigate interpersonal attraction between students and teachers, McCann (1973) found that regardless of their own level of psychological development, students were more attracted to teachers who were significantly more self-actualizing than to other classifications of teachers.

In a recent study by Boston (1975) the probability of teacher self-actualization being a possible predictor with teacher success was investigated. Teachers were identified as most and least successful with an instrument that measured, in part, aspects of their ability to impart supportive behavior in the classroom environment. The major hypothesis was supported in that there was a significant relationship between level of self-actualization and degree of successful teaching. Boston's work supports a basic Maslow premise that an individual can be accepting and nurturing to others only after he has come to accept himself and value his own nurturing as highly as that of others.

Concurrent with an emphasis on understanding and allowing the self-actualization of individuals, there has been a recent trend to develop methods to increase self-actualization. Otto (1968), a pioneer in the effort to develop methods to expand human potential, established the National Center for the Exploration of Human Potential. He developed and tested an impressive list of group

techniques which, presumably, have enhanced the ability of persons to develop their capabilities. The program was designed to help individuals "discover capacities, strengths, talents, and abilities" which he has, but may be unaware of.

Maslow visualized a better society if the influence of the healthiest members of the human species could be realized. Poston's (1972) study indicated that the possession of certain personality characteristics and interpersonal skills are important for the effectiveness of those who administer public schools. Drachler (1973) stated that contemporary social changes suggest a new role for the educational administrator. He found that responses from a poll of schools in fifty large cities indicated most school districts still depend on traditional training by institutions for administrators. He further found that attitudes pertaining to the way a person perceives others should be a part of the preparation of administrators.

A Canadian study by Goldborough (1971) indicated an overwhelming desire for group process training and further indicated that the leadership style required of a successful principal had changed radically in recent years. Strong agreement showed that a more humanized approach to leadership is a basic requirement for secondary school principals.

Education is one of society's most influential institutions and deals with human potential perhaps to a greater degree than any other profession. Because of education's intangible nature, members of the profession find themselves in great need of direction in selecting goals, priorities, and objectives. Educational research has suggested

that a positive relationship exists between the ability of the administrator to help bring about constructive change and growth in people and his level of self-actualization (Maslow, 1970a:199).

Although a positive relationship is believed to exist, more research is needed to confirm this belief.

Conclusion

Self-actualization is not an end point but rather an ongoing existential process. Self-actualizing people demonstrate considerable wholeness and unity in their personality. They are spontaneous yet in good control of their daily lives. They are ruled as much by their own inner nature as by the laws of society. They know accurately their strengths and limitations and tend to look inside themselves for the path to fulfillment --- they are unquestionably self-reliant.

Self-actualization is not a static state of being, but rather a dynamic process of becoming. Maslow (1968:97) clearly states that self-actualization is a "matter of degree and frequency rather than an all-or-none affair." Therefore, every person is self-actualized to some extent. There is no division whereby a person is either self-actualized or non-self-actualized. The term is relative rather than absolute. Self-actualization is desirable and beneficial for both the individual and society. For the individual, there is greater opportunity for meaningful success, self-understanding, happiness, acceptance, spontaneity and creativity. For society, there is a wealth of unleashed human potential which can facilitate growth in a positive, meaningful direction.

Summary

The literature review component on leadership dealt with leadership concepts, leadership theories, leadership studies, and related leadership studies.

It was noted earlier in this chapter that leadership scholars and researchers have had difficulty in agreeing upon leadership definitions and concepts. Authors have defined leadership and conceptualized it as they perceived it from their unique vantage point. As a result, the definitions and concepts expressed, although varied, form a mosaic which, when viewed in total, provide a clearer and more comprehensive view of leadership and a better appreciation of its complexities than might otherwise be had if there were but a few agreed-upon definitions.

Among leadership theories it was seen that, in the past, many viewed leadership as a trait within the individual, a view no longer held as the main explanation of leadership by most leadership scholars and researchers, but one still deeply imbedded in popular opinion.

Another theory of leadership was that leadership is a function of the group-- that it is a group role. This type of leadership revolves around group goals and a leader is any person who, at any given time, can help the group define and reach its goals. Such a leader is more than a facilitator in that he or she actively participates in the group's goal setting. According to this theory, a group's leader may change from time to time, depending on who the group feels can best help it achieve its goals.

A third leadership theory viewed leadership as a function of the situation. According to this theory history makes leaders rather than leaders making history. This perception of leadership was called Zeitgeist -- "times make the man." It was theorized that situations have personality and that leadership depends not only upon the characteristics of a person, but upon the characteristics of the situation, too.

With reference to these three theories, Ross and Hendry (1961:17) concluded that a truly "adequate conception of leadership involves elements from all three conceptions . . . Leadership is an interactional phenomenon."

The Great Man Theory said that great men -- truly superior men with iron wills and great reserves of strength -- determine the course of history. Such leaders are motivated by a desire for power and by a sense of mission. They are "rule breakers" and "value creators." The Great Man Theory was developed by eighteenth century rationalists.

Work commenced in the mid-1940's at the Ohio State University to develop a more satisfactory and acceptable theory of leadership. Out of the Ohio State University research came the concept that leadership can be thought of as behavior. The Ohio State researchers put forward these questions: "What does a leader do?" and "How does a leader do it?" The answers are a description of leader behavior. In time, the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) was developed by the leadership researchers at Ohio State as a means

of measuring leader behavior. Ultimately Edwin A. Fleishman developed the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ). It was derived from the LBDQ.

Much has been written about the use of both the LBDQ and the LOQ. The former has generally been described as a measure of leader behavior while the latter has been acknowledged to be a measure of leadership attitudes. Each uses the Consideration (answering the question, "How does a leader do it") and Initiating Structure (answering the question, "What does a leader do?") scales.

Maslow's theory of self-actualization was discussed. John Dewey, also a philosopher and psychologist, anticipated the movement that Maslow would become part of and foresaw the effort that would attempt to shape a philosophy and science of man that was consistent with the realities of human nature. Background information about Maslow's concept of the self-actualized person was also discussed -- their observed characteristics, motivations, traits, and gratifications.

Different approaches to self-actualization research were described. A review of the literature ascertained that the most frequently selected instrument to measure self-actualization was Shostrom's Personal Orientation Inventory. A number of researchers used instruments of their own design in conjunction with the Personal Orientation Inventory.

Several research studies related to self-actualization and education were discussed. Teachers who were deemed to be

self-actualized were generally found to be more openminded and less authoritarian, more innovative and experimental, more humanistic and child-centered, ambitious, and more concerned with student welfare than teachers less self-actualized.

The findings of several studies suggested that because of the appeal of the self-actualizing individual, such individuals could have an important influence on the development of our institutions, society, and culture.

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CHAPTER III

METHODS, PROCEDURES, INSTRUMENTS, AND DATA ANALYSIS

The purpose of this study was to explore and analyse the interrelationships that exist between principals' self-actualization, teacher perception of principal leadership behavior, and principals' leadership attitudes.

A systematic review of the procedures followed in the acquisition and compilation of these data is identified and summarized. Included is a discussion of the population and sampling procedures, description of the survey instruments, and an explanation of the methods used in analysing the data.

Population and Sample

The population for this study consisted of principals and teachers from secondary schools within the Edmonton Public School System. Secondary schools include Junior High Level involving grades 7, 8, and 9 or Senior High Level involving grades 10, 11, and 12. Within the Edmonton Public School System there were thirty-four secondary schools that were identified. Four limitations were established for the selection of the population. These were: (1) the principal must have been at the present school for at least one year, (2) the program emphasis had not changed within the past two years, (3) no internal school crisis had occurred that had led to central office and/or community reaction within the past two years,

and (4) no excessive (abnormal) increase or decrease of enrolment had taken place at the school within the past two years. The use of these restrictions sought to minimize the influences of various external variables on the purpose of the study.

The appropriate School Board administrators were contacted and the research project was explained in detail in order to secure permission to contact each principal. On the basis of the four limitations, the Assistant Superintendent of Personnel recommended deletion of seven schools from the original list. The reasons provided to the researcher were that four principals had been in their first year at the school, two schools had recently been the focus of media attention, and one other school was in the process of reviewing and modifying their program.

Permission to contact the twenty-seven school principals was granted. Assurance was requested that individual schools not be identified in the study. This request was honoured and anonymity was assured for all participating schools.

Procedure for Data Collection

Each of the twenty-seven school principals was contacted by telephone to arrange for a meeting to discuss the study. Prior to the telephone call, however, written notice from the Edmonton Public School Board's Director of Research was sent to each school principal. Essentially the notification indicated the topic of the research and stated approval had been granted for the researcher to initiate

contact with the school principal. Each principal had the option of not participating if that was desired. Three principals chose to exercise this option, all indicating that a research study would place undue stress on themselves and their staff.

The twenty-four participating school principals were personally visited and the purpose of the study was further explained. Each principal was then given a packet which included: (1) a general introduction to the survey page, (2) a direction page which included nine demographic questions, (3) a Personal Orientation Inventory questionnaire, (4) a Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, and (5) an envelope for completed questionnaires. The above items are included in Appendix B. At this stage it was stressed that individuals and their schools would not be identified in the study and that anonymity would be assured for all.

At each school a random sample of teachers was selected to complete the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire in regards to how they perceive their principal. The sample comprised thirty percent of the total teaching staff that met the two year present school residence requirement established for this study. However, no fewer than ten teachers were selected per school (see Table 2). A table of random numbers was utilized to draw the sample. Assistant principals were excluded from participating.

Selected teachers had packets placed in their school mail slot which included: (1) a solicitation letter, (2) a general introduction to the survey page, (3) a Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire, and (4) an envelope for completed

questionnaires. These items are included in Appendix C. Upon completion, the teachers were to return the sealed envelope to the head school secretary. The researcher collected the envelopes two weeks after initial distribution.

As the coded instruments were returned a master respondent list was maintained to avoid duplication of work effort and to minimize needless offence to the respondents whose instruments had been returned. To guarantee that the professional privacy requests were not violated, the researcher neither informed anyone of the list, nor allowed anyone to see it.

All twenty-four principals completed the requested information sheets and questionnaires. Of the three hundred and five selected teachers, two hundred and twenty-nine completed and returned the questionnaires for a 75.1 percent response.

Follow-up procedures for non-respondents began two weeks after initial distribution with a reminder letter requesting completion of the questionnaire (see Appendix E). The follow-up letter secured a total of two hundred and sixty responses for an 85.3 percent return. Ten schools had a 100 percent return with no school being lower than 70 percent. A summary of the returns is presented in Table 2. To encourage returns, a sheet was provided in each packet for participants to write their name and address if they wished to receive results of the study.

TABLE 2
SUMMARY OF QUESTIONNAIRE RETURNS

School	Questionnaires Distributed		Questionnaires Received (after reminder)	
	(Principal)	(Teachers)	(Principals)	(Teachers)
1	1	9	1	9
2	1	10	1	10
3	1	10	1	7
4	1	10	1	10
5	1	10	1	9
6	1	10	1	7
7	0	0	0	0
8	1	10	1	9
9	1	10	1	10
10	1	10	1	10
11	1	10	1	10
12	0	0	0	0
13	1	10	1	10
14	1	10	1	7
15	1	10	1	10
16	1	10	1	10
17	1	10	1	7
18	1	10	1	10
19	1	10	1	8
20	1	10	1	7
21	1	13	1	10
22	1	14	1	9
23	1	19	1	16
24	0	0	0	0
25	1	25	1	24
26	1	24	1	17
27	1	31	1	24
TOTALS	24	305	24	260

The Survey Instruments

Three instruments were selected for use of data collection, namely the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI), the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ), and the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ).

Personal Orientation Inventory

The Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) is a 150-item, two-choice comparative value judgment test designed to reflect an individual's values and behavior related to Maslow's concept of self-actualization. The instrument was developed by Everett L. Shostrom (1966:4) as a self-administering test composed of non-threatening items that may be completed in as little as 20 minutes.

Maslow (1971:28) in referring to Shostrom's POI stated:

In studying healthy people, self-actualizing people, etc., there has been a steady move from the openly normative and the frankly personal, step by step, toward more and more descriptive, objective words, to the point where there is today a standardized test of self-actualization can now be defined quite operationally, as intelligence used to be defined, i.e., self-actualization is what the test tests. It correlates well with external variables of various kinds, and keeps on accumulating additional correlational meanings.

The level of self-actualization is assessed by statistical treatment of the raw scores on the two major scales of the POI. The Time Competence Scale (Tc) of 23 items and the Inner Directed Scale (I) of 127 items are considered by most researchers to be the most valid indicators of self-actualization.

The Tc scale measures the orientation to time by the person and evaluates the degree to which the individual lives in the present

as contrasted with the past or the future. The self-actualizing individual is believed to live more fully in the present without being burdened by regrets, resentments and guilts about the past, or excessive idealization of the future. This person is believed to find the past, present, and future a meaningful continuity of life (Shostrom, 1966:15).

The I scale is a measure of an individual's orientation toward self or others. Inner or self-directed individuals are led by internalized motivations and goals while other-directed individuals are to a much greater extent motivated and influenced by external forces such as a peer group. The self-actualized person is believed to be more independent and to rely more upon himself and the inner values. This individual is believed to be receptive to help from others but is not overly dependent upon that help (Shostrom, 1966:32).

Shostrom (1964:34) reported a test-retest reliability coefficient of .91 and .93 which were obtained by testing 650 freshmen at Los Angeles State College, 15 patients in various stages of therapy, 75 members of the Sensitivity Training Program at U.C.L.A. and 15 school psychologists in group training in Orange County.

In regards to validity, Shostrom and Knapp (1966:194) investigated the sensitivity of the POI in clinical settings. The instrument was administered to two groups of outpatients in therapy, one group of 37 beginning patients entering therapy and the other a sample of 39 patients in advanced stages of psychotherapeutic progress. The latter group had been in therapy for a mean time of 26.6 months. Analysis of the POI scores showed all scales differentiated between groups at the .01 confidence level.

Several studies were conducted to determine the effects of "faking." These indicated that the POI responses are not easily distorted in a predicted, positive way. Shostrom (1966) gave the POI to college students with instruction to make a "good impression" in regards to self-actualization. The results were then compared with a control group. The coached group scored significantly lower on 8 of the 12 POI scales. In another study, Grater (1968) asked groups of students to distort their responses so they would present themselves in the most favorable way possible. This study found that a "fake good" response resulted in lower scores on 9 of the 12 scales. This study indicated that a deliberate attempt to "fake good" did not produce profiles of the self-actualizing person.

Written permission had been granted by the Educational and Industrial Testing Service to use the POI instrument for data collection in this dissertation (see Appendix D).

Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire

The LBDQ provides a method by which group members may describe the behavior of designated leaders in formal organizations. A sample LBDQ is included in Appendix C.

The manual suggests administering the LBDQ to a minimum of four respondents per leader with six or seven respondents per leader representing a good standard. Past experience with the LBDQ has indicated that additional respondents beyond ten does not significantly increase the stability of the index scores that describe the leaders. The frequency with which the respondent perceives the leader to engage

in each type of listed behavior is noted by marking one of five adverbs. The five adverbs are "always," "often," "occasionally," "seldom," and "never" with each adverb assigned a value of 4, 3, 2, 1, or 0 respectively. The responses are scored on two dimensions of leader behavior which are entitled Initiating Structure and Consideration. Length of time for completion is approximately 15 minutes.

Permission to use the LBDQ in this study was granted by the Center for Business and Economic Research, The Ohio State University (see Appendix D). The permission included approval for the duplication of sufficient copies of the instrument for purposes of this study.

The LBDQ utilized for this study was the 1957 version designed by Andrew W. Halpin. The original LBDQ was developed as one project of the Ohio State Leadership Studies directed by Dr. Carroll L. Shartle.

As previously noted, the LBDQ identifies two fundamental dimensions of leader behavior -- Initiating Structure and Consideration. In his manual, Halpin (1957:1) described these dimensions as follows:

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

The following excerpt from Halpin's (1957:3) LBDQ manual explains the interpretation of the scores:

How may these Initiating Structure and Consideration scores be interpreted? Preferably the members of a given sample of leaders should be evaluated in respect to their relative position on each dimension, as compared with other members of that same sample. At present we do not have LBDQ data available on many different types of leaders. What data we have should therefore not be construed as norms, in the strict sense of the term. But in order to provide some basis for interpreting LBDQ scores, we may refer to data secured from three independent samples of leaders.

. . . Although these data are not sufficient to serve as norms, they may be used as a rough guide for interpreting LBDQ scores.

The sample which refers to educational administration was taken from the public schools of Ohio. It included 64 administrators, a majority of whom were superintendents. Each was described by 7 staff members. Their mean index score for Initiating Structure was 37.9 and for Consideration 44.7.

The estimated reliability of the LBDQ by the split-half method is .83 for the Initiating Structure scores and .92 for the Consideration scores respectively. The LBDQ utilized criterion validity to establish a high positive relationship between both Initiating Structure and Consideration. Halpin cited as one example a study involving military aircraft crews and their commanders (Halpin, 1957:1).

Leadership Opinion Questionnaire

The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) was the 1969 version developed by Edwin A. Fleishman to measure two important dimensions of leadership attitudes -- Consideration and Initiating Structure. It should be noted that the LOQ was developed from the

LBDQ Ohio State Leadership Studies. Fleishman devised this questionnaire to measure leadership attitudes, not leadership behavior as does the LBDQ.

The frequency with which the principal believes himself to react to a given situation is noted by marking one of five adverbs. The five adverbs are "always," "often," "occasionally," "seldom," and "never" with each adverb assigned a value of 4, 3, 2, 1, or 0 respectively. With the LOQ responses scored on the two-dimensions of leader attitude entitled Consideration and Initiating Structure, the similarity of the LBDQ as parent to the LOQ is obvious.

A letter granting permission to use the LOQ in data collection for this research was granted by the Science Research Associates in Chicago, Illinois. This letter is included in Appendix D.

The LOQ was developed to measure two important dimensions of leadership -- Consideration and Initiating Structure.

Fleishman wrote concerning these scales:

Originally identified in the Ohio State University leadership studies (Fleishman, 1951, 1953a, 1953b, 1953c; Halpin and Siner, 1953; Hemphill, 1955; Shartle, 1956; Stogdill and Coons, 1957), these two broad patterns have been shown to be meaningful in a wide variety of supervisory-subordinate situations. (1969:1)

Fleishman explained the two scores provided by this questionnaire:

Consideration (C). Reflects the extent to which an individual is likely to have job relationships with subordinates characterized by mutual trust, respect for their ideas, consideration of their feelings, and a certain warmth between the individual and them. A high score is indicative of a climate of good rapport and two-way communication. A low score indicates the individual is likely to be more impersonal in relations with group members.

Initiating Structure (IS). Reflects the extent to which an individual is likely to define and structure his or her own role and those of subordinates toward goal attainment. A high score on this dimension characterizes individuals who play a very active role in directing group activities through planning, communicating information, scheduling, criticizing, trying out new ideas, and so forth. A low score characterizes individuals who are likely to be relatively inactive in giving direction in these ways.

An important discovery, according to Fleishman, is that the Consideration and Initiating Structure dimensions are independent which means that a respondent may be high on both dimensions, low on both, or high on one and low on the other. As for reliability, Fleishman (1969:1) noted that internal consistency reliabilities were obtained by the split-half method and that for the Consideration scale the range was from .62 to .89. Reliability in the Structure scale ranged from .67 to .88. The above also include some test-retest reliabilities.

Bass (cited by Fleishman, 1969:5) used the LOQ in a study with 72 sales supervisors who were rated three years later by top management. The correlation between the ratings and the Consideration scale was .32 which is statistically significant at the .05 level.

In selecting the instrument, consideration was given to the LOQ being self-administering and thus posing less of a threat than a test requiring the response of one's subordinates. The time element, with the LOQ requiring only about 15 minutes to complete, made it attractive. Furthermore, it was felt that the assessment of leadership attitudes is, in and of itself, a legitimate and worthwhile avenue of inquiry. To quote Fleishman (cited by Stogdill)

and Coons, 1957:120) on this point, he said, "No less important than the description of leadership behavior is the assessment of leadership attitudes."

Leadership Dimensions of LBDQ and LOQ

Leadership is displayed in many styles. It is not a constant and generally varies from leader to leader. Ordinarily, no pure style of leadership emerges, but, instead, several styles are compounded into an overt display by the leader. In fact, it may be said that there are as many styles of leadership behavior as there are leaders -- each leader being unique unto himself. Thus, a leader may emphasize one dimension of leadership to the near exclusion of the other. Consequently, the Initiating Structure and Consideration dimensions exhibited by principals or exhibited by teacher perceptions may be characterized by one of the algebraic quadrants of Table 3 as adapted from Hoy and Miskel (1978:183):

TABLE 3

QUADRANTS FORMED BY USING EITHER LBDQ OR LOQ DIMENSIONS

Quadrant II Low Consideration (-) High Initiating Structure (+) II = (-,+)	Quadrant I High Consideration (+) High Initiating Structure (+) I = (+,+)
Consideration Axis	Initiating Structure Axis
Quadrant III Low Consideration (-) Low Initiating Structure (-) III = (-,-)	Quadrant IV High Consideration (+) Low Initiating Structure (-) IV = (+,-)

Empirically, the leadership ideology of principals in this study may be categorized into one of four quadrants of dimensional variance:

- I. High Consideration (+C) and High Initiating Structure (+IS)
- II. Low Consideration (-C) and High Initiating Structure (+IS)
- III. Low Consideration (-C) and Low Initiating Structure (-IS)
- IV. High Consideration (+C) and Low Initiating Structure (-IS).

Demographic Information

In addition to the POI and LOQ instruments, the 24 principals were asked to complete a data sheet to collect information on selected demographic variables. The demographic information was used to determine the relationships of leadership behavior, leadership attitudes, and self-actualization to educational achievement, sex, age, employment, teaching experience, staff size, or training emphasis. Appendix B includes the nine items the principals were to complete.

Treatment and Analysis of the Data

The collected data were coded and the LBDQ responses placed on IBM 5050 cards. The LOQ and POI were both hand scored by the researcher. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (1970) program was used to analyse the data. The collected data were coded in the following way:

School: (1 - 27)

Age: (1) 21-30, (2) 31-40, (3) 41-50, (4) 51-60, (5) 61-70

Sex: (1) Male, (2) Female

Secondary Level of School: (1) Junior High School

(2) Senior High School

Number of Full Time Equivalence Teachers on Staff: (00)

Number of Years As Principal at Present School: (00)

Number of Years, In Total, As a Principal: (00)

Number of Years, In Total, Employed in School Systems: (00)

Number of Years of University or College Training Completed: (00)

Area Perceived as University or College Emphasis: (1) Humanities,
(2) Sciences, (3) Business, (4) Vocational, (5) Physical
Education

Principal's Score on LOQ's Dimension of Consideration: (00)

Principal's Score on LOQ's Dimension of Initiating Structure:
(00)

Principal's Score on POI's "Tc" Scale: (00)

Principal's Score on POI's "I" Scale: (000)

Principal's Combined Score on POI's "Tc" and "I" Scales: (000)

Selection of Self-Actualizing Groups

The selection process provided a standard method of discriminating among respondents. Each respondent was placed into one of the three selected classifications of self-actualization based on the respondents' combined Time Competent (Tc) and Inner Directed (I) scale scores on the Personal Orientation Inventory.

Principals who scored in the top one-third of the combined Tc and I scales were classified as more-self-actualizing; those who scored in the middle one-third on the combined scales were classified as medially-self-actualizing; and those who scored in the bottom one-third on the combined scales were classified as less-self-actualizing.

Data Analysis

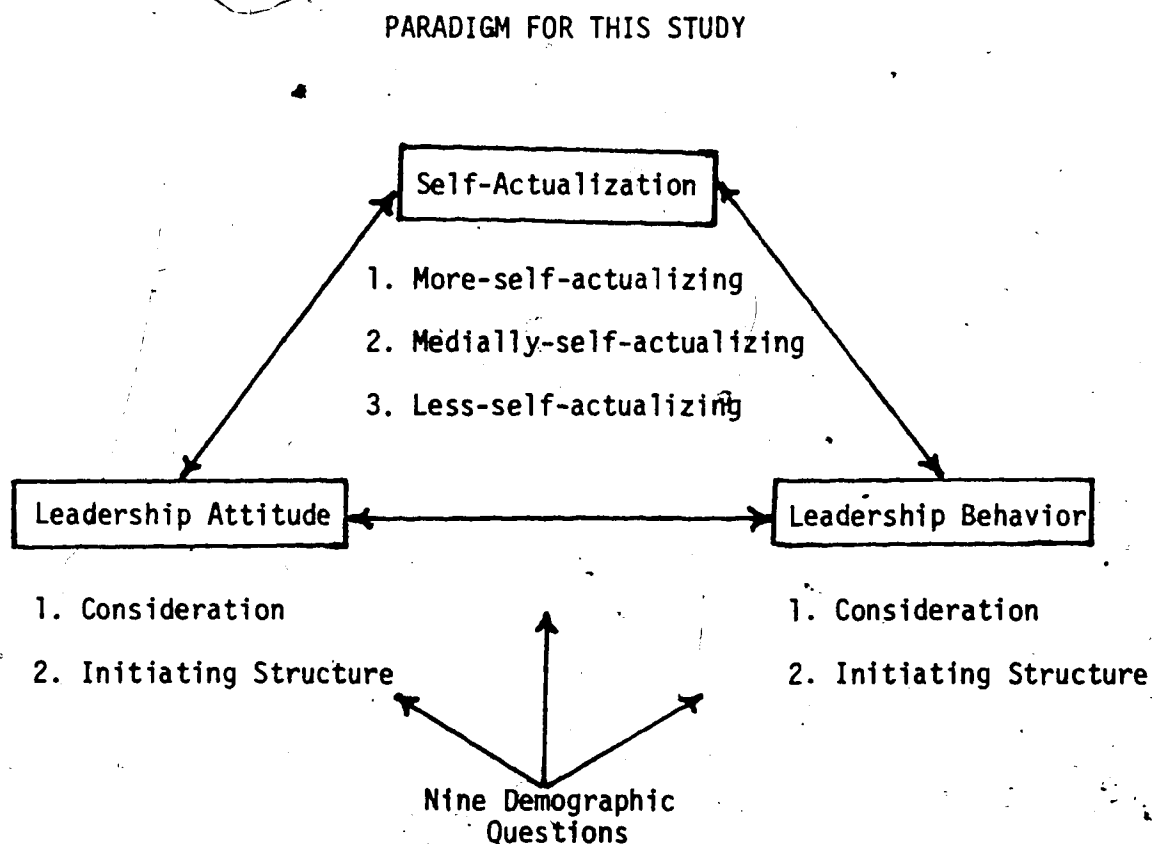
All data were statistically analysed to determine, first of all, if statistically significant relationships existed among any of the groups of principal self-actualization (more, medial, or less), principal leadership attitude (dimensions of Initiating Structure and Consideration), and principal leadership behavior (dimensions of Initiating Structure and Consideration). The mean scores of each group of principals were subjected to one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to test the null hypothesis for statistically significant differences. The scores tested the null hypothesis that, indeed, no statistically significant differences existed among principals between leadership attitude and leadership behavior, between leadership attitude and self-actualization, or between leadership behavior and self-actualization.

A one way analysis of variance was employed in order to test for statistical differences among the groups. This procedure is generally applied when a researcher has data on a single variable from two or more groups. Where the ANOVA method yielded the conclusion that there were statistically significant differences within the data, the nature of the implied differences were investigated further by

the application of the Scheffe' method of posteriori comparisons. This is a method of testing differences between all possible pairs of means.

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and ANOVA methods were used to test significance of the nine ancillary questions. These tested the demographic variables for the degree of relationship between category means completed by the staff of each school (LBDQ) and the self evaluation category means completed by each principal (LOQ and POI). A .05 level of significance was used to reject, or not to reject, the null-hypotheses and the ancillary questions.

A paradigm for the relationship among the variables of this study is presented in Figure 4 below.



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CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

The objective of this study was to analyse the interrelationships that exist among principals' degree of self-actualization, teacher perception of principal leadership behavior, and principals' leadership attitude. An additional nine questions were posed to determine the relationship of the demographic data to the dimensions of self-actualization, leadership behavior, and leadership attitude.

The information in this chapter includes the following:

- (1) the distribution of principals regarding the self-actualization scores, and
- (2) the hypotheses examined in this study through the results of statistical tests of significance, and
- (3) the analysis of the nine ancillary questions reflecting demographic information describing the twenty-four principals.

Distribution of Principals by Self-Actualization Level (POI)

Table 4 shows that each principal was identified with one of three levels of self-actualization based on Personal Orientation Inventory test scores. Approximately one-third of the total number of principals were placed in each category. Groups were determined by the "Tc" and "I" combined raw scores. Nine principals were identified as more-self-actualizing, eight principals were identified as medially-self-actualizing, and seven principals were identified as

TABLE 4
DATA PERTAINING TO SELF-ACTUALIZING FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

Number of Subjects	N	Score	Degree of Self-Actualization
24	1	122	More-Self-Actualizing N = 9
150	1	120	
Personal Orientation Inventory: Combined Ic (23 items) and I (127 items) Scales	1	118	
	2	114	
	2	113	
	1	111	
	1	110	
Range	2	107	
	1	105	
High	1	104	Medially-Self-Actualizing N = 8
Low	2	103	
	2	102	
Mean	1	99	
	1	98	Less-Self-Actualizing N = 7
One Standard Deviation From The Mean	1	97	
	2	91	
	1	84	
	1	68	

less-self-actualizing.

As shown in Table 4, the test consisted of 150 items. More-self-actualizing principals scored between 108 and 122 on the combined Tc and I scales of the test. Medially-self-actualizing principals scored between 100 and 107, less-self-actualizing principals scored between 68 and 99. The overall range of the test scores was 54 while the mean of the combined "Tc" and "I" scales was 104.

Table 5 presents general information to the study displaying the scores of the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) and Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) which each principal completed. Also included are the mean scores of the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) completed by a random sample of teachers at each school. These reflect teacher perception of their principals' leadership behavior.

Study Questions

The purpose of this study as detailed in Chapter I was to provide data relative to the following three questions:

- I. Is there a significant difference in leadership behavior among principals classified by their self-actualization level?
- II. Is there a significant difference in leadership attitude among principals classified by their self-actualization level?
- III. Is there a significant relationship between principals' leadership behavior and their leadership attitude?

TABLE 5

"POI," "LOQ," AND MEAN "LBDQ" SCORE OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

SCHOOL	POI	LOQ		LBDQ	
	S.A. Score	"C" Dimension	"IS" Dimension	"C" Dimension	"IS" Dimension
1	84	60	51	41.00	37.44
2	102	63	42	46.80	41.20
3	110	59	54	36.43	37.43
4	113	49	41	29.00	36.60
5	113	53	40	33.00	31.78
6	105	51	51	38.14	38.86
7	122	58	35	39.78	35.44
8	99	55	47	39.40	37.90
9	91	64	49	39.80	35.80
10	107	59	41	43.20	47.40
11	114	59	48	40.20	36.30
12	102	65	37	41.43	38.71
13	107	68	56	34.90	44.00
14	111	54	41	38.60	46.50
15	103	61	47	37.29	41.14
16	114	69	40	36.90	44.70
17	120	63	41	42.87	35.00
18	91	55	28	45.14	37.29
19	68	54	40	32.80	28.90
20	97	61	44	35.11	36.56
21	118	61	43	40.81	39.37
22	98	61	48	36.17	35.96
23	104	59	40	32.62	38.12
24	103	54	35	30.37	44.50
MEAN	104.0	59.1	43.2	37.3	38.9

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Ten null hypotheses were formulated to be tested. Three null hypotheses were tested for each of questions I and II, whereas four null hypotheses were tested for question III. The .05 level of significance was selected as a basis for rejection of the null hypotheses.

Null-Hypothesis I-1

There is no significant difference in the mean scores of the leadership behavior dimension of initiating structure among principals classified as more, medial, or less self-actualizing.

Findings

The statistical treatment used to test this Null-hypothesis was a one-way analysis of variance and the Scheffe' Multiple Comparison of Means. Table 6 presents a summary of mean scores and standard deviations utilized in the Null-hypotheses data analysis based on data derived from the responses on the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire by 260 teachers, and both the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire and Personal Orientation Inventory by 24 principals. Table 7 reflects the findings. Since the probability of obtaining an F ratio of 4.72 was 0.02, it was concluded that the differences between the sample groups were significantly related. The Scheffe' multiple comparison of means revealed that there were no

TABLE 6

SUMMARY MEAN SCORES OF HYPOTHESES VARIABLES BASED ON DATA
FROM 24 PRINCIPALS AND 260 TEACHERS

Principals' Self-Actualization Level	Principals' Leadership Attitude		Principals' Leadership Behavior (Perceived)	
	Consideration	Initiating Structure	Consideration	Initiating Structure
More-Self-Actualizing mean = 115.00 s.d. = 4.09	mean = 43.75 s.d. = 4.42	mean = 31.92 s.d. = 4.09	mean = 37.51 s.d. = 4.29	mean = 38.12 s.d. = 4.72
Medially-Self-Actualizing mean = 104.13 s.d. = 2.03	mean = 45.00 s.d. = 4.19	mean = 32.72 s.d. = 5.38	mean = 38.09 s.d. = 5.52	mean = 41.74 s.d. = 3.29
Less-Self-Actualizing mean = 89.71 s.d. = 10.92	mean = 43.93 s.d. = 2.90	mean = 32.89 s.d. = 5.90	mean = 38.49 s.d. = 4.13	mean = 35.69 s.d. = 3.09
All Principals mean = 104.00 s.d. = 12.15	mean = 44.22 s.d. = 3.83	mean = 32.47 s.d. = 4.89	mean = 37.34 s.d. = 4.12	mean = 38.92 s.d. = 4.35

statistically significant differences between the principals categorized as more-self-actualizing and medially-self-actualizing or those categorized as more-self-actualizing and less-self-actualizing and the leadership behavior dimension of Initiating Structure. There was, however, a significantly related difference beyond the .05 level between the medially-self-actualizing and less-self-actualizing on this variable. The mean score for the medially-self-actualizing was 41.74 while the less-self-actualizing mean score was 35.69, indicating that the teachers perceived principals categorized as medially-self-actualized as possessing significantly more Initiating

TABLE 7

ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF PERCEIVED PRINCIPALS' LEADERSHIP
BEHAVIOR DIMENSION OF INITIATING STRUCTURE AMONG PRINCIPALS
CATEGORIZED AS MORE, MEDIAL, OR LESS SELF-ACTUALIZED
FOLLOWED BY THE SCHEFFÉ MULTIPLE COMPARISON OF MEANS

Source	S.S.	M.S.	D.F.	F.	P
Between Groups	140.13	70.06	2	4.72	0.02*
Within Groups	311.74	14.85	21		

S.S. - sum of squares

M.S. - mean square

D.F. - degrees of freedom

F. - variance ratio

P. - significance of F

SCHEFFÉ MULTIPLE COMPARISON OF MEANS

Groups	More- Self-Actualizing	Medially- Self-Actualizing	Less- Self-Actualizing
Means	38.12	41.74	35.69
More-Self- Actualizing	---		
Medially-Self- Actualizing		---	
Less-Self- Actualizing		*	---

* - difference between the means was significant beyond the .05 level

Structure characteristics than principals categorized as less-self-actualized. The Null-hypothesis was, therefore, rejected.

Null-Hypothesis I-2

There is no significant difference in the mean scores of the leadership behavior dimension of consideration among principals classified as more, medial, or less self-actualizing.

Findings

Table 8 presents the results of the differences that exist between the variables of principal self-actualization level and the leadership behavior dimension of Consideration. As can be seen, the F value of 0.09 with a probability of 0.92 indicated that the differences between the means was not significantly related, indicating no relationship of any significance between principals' category of self-actualization and the perceived leadership behavior component of consideration. The Null-hypothesis was, therefore, not rejected.

TABLE 8

ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF PERCEIVED PRINCIPALS'
LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR DIMENSION OF CONSIDERATION AMONG
PRINCIPALS CATEGORIZED AS MORE, MEDIAL, OR LESS-SELF-
ACTUALIZED

Source	S.S.	M.S.	D.F.	F	P
Between Groups	3.90	1.95	2	0.09	0.91
Within Groups	463.21	22.06	21		

Null-Hypothesis I-3

There is no significant difference in the principals' mean leadership behavior scores of both initiating structure and consideration within the leadership quadrant, and their self-actualization scores.

Findings

Table 9 shows the results of the differences that exist between the variables of principals' self-actualizing level and the leadership behavior dimensions of both Initiating Structure and Consideration as placed in a quadrant form popularized by the Ohio State University Leadership studies. As the table reflects, the F value of 0.42 with a probability of 0.74 showed that the differences among the means were not significantly related, indicating no relationship among the "placement" of principals in the

TABLE 9

ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF PRINCIPALS' SELF-ACTUALIZATION LEVEL AND THE PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR DIMENSIONS OF BOTH INITIATING STRUCTURE AND CONSIDERATION

Source	S.S.	M.S.	D.F.	F.	P.
Between Groups	200.03	66.68	3	0.42	0.74
Within Groups	3195.96	159.80	20		

leadership quadrant and their level of self-actualization. This Null-hypothesis was consequently not rejected.

Table 10 presents a summary of the number of principals placed in each leadership quadrant along with their mean scores on the POI. Both leadership behavior and attitude are included in this table. Table 11 follows as further information detailing the actual scores attained by principals within each of the four leadership quadrants

TABLE 10
SUMMARY OF THE NUMBER OF PRINCIPALS
AND POI MEANS FOR EACH OF THE FOUR LEADERSHIP GROUPS
(N = 24)

Leadership Quadrant Group	Leadership Behavior (based on LBDQ scores)		Leadership Attitude (based on LOQ scores)	
	N	Mean POI	N	Mean POI
I High Consideration High In. Structure	6	107.5	8	100.5
II Low Consideration High In. Structure	4	106.8	2	102.0
III Low Consideration Low In. Structure	7	100.4	7	103.0
IV High Consideration Low In. Structure	7	103.0	7	109.6
Total	24		24	

TABLE 11

PRINCIPALS' SCORES ON LBDQ, LOQ, AND POI WITHIN
EACH OF THE FOUR LEADERSHIP GROUPS
(N = 24)

Leadership Quadrant Group	Leadership Behavior (LBDQ) Dimensions and POI Scores			Leadership Attitude (LOQ) Dimensions and POI Scores		
	"C"	"I.S."	POI	"C"	"I.S."	POI
I High Consideration High In. Structure	46.80	41.20	102	60	51	84
	43.20	47.40	107	59	54	110
	38.60	46.50	111	64	49	91
	40.81	39.37	118	59	48	114
	38.14	38.86	105	68	56	107
	41.43	38.71	102	61	47	103
				61	44	97
				61	48	98
Ave.	41.50	42.01	107.5	61.63	49.63	100.5
II Low Consideration High In. Structure	34.90	44.00	107	51	51	105
	37.29	41.14	103	55	47	99
	36.90	44.70	114			
	30.37	44.50	103			
Ave.	34.87	43.59	106.8	53.0	49.0	102.0
III Low Consideration Low In. Structure	36.43	37.43	110	49	41	113
	29.00	36.60	113	53	40	113
	33.00	31.78	113	58	35	122
	32.80	28.90	68	54	41	111
	35.11	36.56	97	55	28	91
	36.17	35.96	98	54	40	68
	32.62	38.12	104	54	35	103
Ave.	33.59	35.05	100.4	53.86	37.14	103.0
IV High Consideration Low In. Structure	41.00	37.44	84	63	42	102
	39.78	35.44	122	59	41	107
	39.40	37.90	99	65	37	102
	39.80	35.80	91	69	40	114
	40.20	36.30	114	63	41	120
	42.87	35.00	120	61	43	118
	45.14	37.29	91	59	40	104
Ave.	41.17	36.45	103.1	62.71	40.57	109.6

Null-Hypothesis II-1

There is no significant difference in the mean scores of the leadership attitude dimension of initiating structure among principals classified as more, medial, or less self-actualizing.

Findings

Table 12 presents the results of the relationship among the variables of principal self-actualization level and the leadership attitude dimension of Initiating Structure. An F value of 0.09 with a probability of 0.92 reveals that the differences between the three groups were not statistically significant, indicating no relationship of any significance between the principals' category of self-actualization and their leadership attitude dimension of Initiating Structure. Therefore, this Null-hypothesis was not rejected.

TABLE 12

ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF PRINCIPALS' LEADERSHIP
ATTITUDE DIMENSION OF INITIATING STRUCTURE AMONG
THOSE PRINCIPALS CATEGORIZED AS MORE, MEDIAL, OR LESS-
SELF-ACTUALIZED

Source	S.S.	M.S.	D.F.	F	P
Between Groups	4.50	2.25	2	0.09	0.92
Within Groups	454.04	25.95	21		

Null-Hypothesis II-2

There is no significant difference in the mean scores of the leadership attitude dimension of consideration among principals classified as more, medial, or less self-actualizing.

Findings

Table 13 presents the findings of the relationship among the variables of principal self-actualization level and the leadership attitude dimension of Consideration. As can be seen, an F value of 0.24 with a resulting probability of 0.79 indicates that the differences between the three groups of self-actualizing principals were not statistically significant, thus indicating no relationship between the principals' self-actualization category and their leadership attitude dimension of Consideration. Consequently this Null-hypothesis was not rejected.

TABLE 13

ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF PRINCIPALS'
LEADERSHIP ATTITUDE DIMENSION OF CONSIDERATION AMONG
THOSE PRINCIPALS CATEGORIZED AS MORE, MEDIAL, OR
LESS-SELF-ACTUALIZED

Source	S.S.	M.S.	D.F.	F	P
Between Groups	7.45	3.72	2	0.24	0.79
Within Groups	329.46	15.69			

Null-Hypothesis II-3

There is no significant difference in the principals' mean leadership attitude scores of both initiating structure and consideration within the leadership quadrant, and their self-actualization scores.

Findings

Further back on Table 10 a summary was presented of the number of principals which were placed in each of the Ohio State leadership quadrants along with their mean POI scores for both leadership behavior and attitude dimensions. Table 14 shows the results of the differences that exist between the variables of principals' self-actualization level and their leadership attitude dimensions of both Initiating Structure and Consideration. Table 14 reflects an F value of 0.72 with a probability of 0.55, showing that the difference among the means of self-actualization scores was not statistically significant. These results indicate no significant difference between groups among the principals' "placement" within the leadership quadrant and their level of self-actualization. As a result, this Null-hypothesis was not rejected.

TABLE 14

ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF PRINCIPALS' SELF-
ACTUALIZATION LEVEL AND THEIR LEADERSHIP ATTITUDE
DIMENSIONS OF BOTH INITIATING STRUCTURE AND CONSIDERATION

Source	S.S.	M.S.	D.F.	F	P
Between Groups	330.28	110.10	3	0.72	0.55
Within Groups	3065.71	153.29	20		

Null-Hypothesis III-1

There is no significant correlation between principals' leadership behavior dimension of Initiating Structure and their leadership attitude dimension of Initiating Structure.

Findings

These findings are based on grouping all principals together, regardless of their self-actualization level. Table 15 presents the results of the correlation between the variables of principals' leadership behavior dimension of Initiating Structure, as perceived by teachers, and their leadership attitude dimension of Initiating Structure. The correlation coefficient of 0.03 with a resulting probability of 0.44 shows no significant correlation between the two dimensions. This indicates that the way teachers perceive their principals in the leadership behavior dimension of Initiating Structure bears no statistical relationship to the principals' leadership attitude of the same dimension. Consequently the Null-hypothesis was not rejected.

Null-Hypothesis III-2

There is no significant correlation between principals' leadership behavior dimension of Initiating Structure and their leadership attitude dimension of Consideration.

TABLE 15

CORRELATION MATRIX FOR LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR (N = 260) AND
LEADERSHIP ATTITUDE (N = 24) DIMENSIONS

	LQ - Principal Attitude Dimension of Init. Structure	LQ - Principal Attitude Dimension of Consideration	LQ - Principal Attitude Dimension of Consideration	LBDQ - Principal Behavior Dimension of Init. Structure (Teacher Perception)	LBDQ - Principal Behavior Dimension of Consideration (Teacher Perception)
LQ - Principal Attitude Dimension of Init. Structure	-----				
LQ - Principal Attitude Dimension of Consideration	0.25 p = 0.12	-----			
LBDQ - Principal Behavior Dimension of Init. Structure (Teacher Perception)	0.03 p = 0.44	0.27 p = 0.11	-----		
LBDQ - Principal Behavior Dimension of Consideration (Teacher Perception)	-0.09 p = 0.33	0.35* p = 0.05	0.05 p = 0.46	-----	

*significant at the .05 level

Findings

These findings are based on the grouping of all principals together regardless of self-actualization level. Table 15 presents the results of the correlation between the variables of principals' leadership behavior dimension of Initiating Structure, as perceived by teachers, and the principals' leadership attitude dimension of Consideration. The correlation coefficient of 0.27 with a probability of 0.11 did not provide for significance at the .05 level of confidence. The results indicate that the way teachers perceive their principals in the leadership behavior dimension of Initiating Structure is not significantly related to their leadership attitude dimension of Consideration. As a result, the Null-hypothesis was not rejected.

Null-Hypothesis III-3

There is no significant correlation between principals' leadership behavior dimension of Consideration and their leadership attitude dimension of Initiating Structure.

Findings

These findings are based on grouping all principals together regardless of self-actualization level. Table 15 presents the results of the correlation between the variables of principals' leadership behavior dimension of Consideration, as perceived by teachers, and

the principals' leadership attitude dimension of Initiating Structure. The correlation coefficient of -0.09 with a subsequent probability of 0.33 does not provide for any statistical significance between the two dimensions. This indicates that the way teachers perceive their principals to possess the Consideration dimension of leadership behavior in their role as principal, bears no relationship to their leadership attitude dimension of Initiating Structure. Consequently, the Null-hypothesis was also not rejected.

Null-Hypothesis III-4

There is no significant correlation between principals' leadership behavior dimension of Consideration and their leadership attitude dimension of Consideration.

Findings

These findings are based on grouping of all principals together regardless of self-actualization level. Table 15 presents the results of the correlation between the variables of principals' leadership behavior dimension of Consideration, as perceived by teachers, and the principals' leadership attitude dimension of Consideration. The correlation coefficient of 0.35 with a probability of 0.05 was, indeed, statistically significant at 0.05 level of confidence, indicating that the higher the principals'

attitude toward the leadership behavior dimension of Consideration, the more teachers perceived these principals to reflect leadership behavior in the same dimension. As a result the Null-hypothesis was rejected.

Demographic Data

The demographic variables consisting of personal and professional data provide a composite picture of the responding principals. The following tables present these data. As can be noted from Table 17, an overwhelming majority of secondary school principals were male. The other variables were age, level of secondary school, number of teachers on staff, number of years of principal experience both at the present school and overall, total number of years in education, number of years of training, and area principal perceives training to have been. The tabular presentation of these data serves as a statistical description of the secondary school principal participants in this study. These findings are also based on grouping of all principals together, regardless of self-actualizing level.

It can be seen from the summary of Table 16 that the largest number (45.8 percent) of secondary school principals are between the ages of 41 to 50. There are no principals under 31 years of age or over 61 years of age. The majority of principals (87 percent) are between the ages of 41 and 60.

TABLE 16
PRINCIPALS GROUPED BY AGE (N = 24)

Demographic Characteristic - Age	N	Percentage of Respondents
1. 21-30	0	0
2. 31-40	3	12.5
3. 41-50	11	45.8
4. 51-60	10	41.7
5. 61-70	0	0
Total	24	100.0

TABLE 17
PRINCIPALS GROUPED BY SEX (N = 24)

Demographic Characteristic - Sex	N	Percentage of Respondents
1. Male	22	91.7
2. Female	2	8.3
Total	24	100.0

As indicated earlier, the majority (91.7 percent) of secondary school principals are male. Table 18 reflects that most principals (70.8 percent) surveyed in this study were at the Junior High level of secondary schools.

TABLE 18
PRINCIPALS' LEVEL OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS (N = 24)

Demographic Characteristic - School Level	N	Percentage of Respondents
1. Junior High School (Grades 7, 8, 9)	17	70.8
2. Senior High School (Grades 10, 11, 12)	7	29.2
Total	24	100.0

Table 19 indicates a wide range (11-108) in the number of full time equivalence teachers on each staff. Staff sizes of between 18 and 32 teachers inclusive comprised half (12) the total number of schools. This accounted for 50.0 percent of the total number of teachers as well.

TABLE 19
NUMBER OF FULL TIME EQUIVALANCE TEACHERS ON
PRINCIPALS' STAFF (N = 24)

Demographic Characteristic - No. of F.T.E.	N	Percentage of Respondents
11	1	4.2
12	1	4.2
14	1	4.2
18	2	8.3
21	2	8.3
25	3	12.5
28	1	4.2
30	1	4.2
31	2	8.3
32	1	4.2
34	2	8.3
35	1	4.2
47	1	4.2
50	1	4.2
65	1	4.2
85	1	4.2
87	1	4.2
108	1	4.2
Total	24	100.0

Table 20 shows that 50 percent of the secondary school principals surveyed in this study have been at their present school for either two or three years. No principal had been at the present school for longer than eleven years.

TABLE 20
YEARS AS PRINCIPAL AT PRESENT SCHOOL (N = 24)

Demographic Characteristic - Years at Present School	N	Percentage of Respondents
2	6	25.0
3	6	25.0
4	3	12.5
5	3	12.5
6	2	8.3
7	1	4.2
10	1	4.2
11	2	8.3
Total	24	100.0

Table 21 shows a wide range of secondary school principals' experience extending from two years to twenty-six years. Fifty-four percent, however, had between two and six years experience as a principal.

Table 22 indicates a range from fourteen to thirty-one years that secondary school principals had been employed in the area of education. Equal distribution appears to have occurred within this range.

TABLE 21.

TOTAL NUMBER OF YEARS AS A PRINCIPAL (N = 24)

Demographic Characteristic - Years as Principal	N	Percentage of Respondents
2	2	8.3
3	5	20.8
4	1	4.2
5	3	12.5
6	2	8.3
8	3	12.5
10	1	4.2
11	2	8.3
14	1	4.2
16	2	8.3
23	1	4.2
26	1	4.2
Total	24	100.0

TABLE 22

TOTAL NUMBER OF YEARS IN EDUCATION (N = 24)

Demographic Characteristic - Total Years in Education	N	Percentage of Respondents
14	1	4.2
15	1	4.2
17	3	12.5
18	1	4.2
19	3	12.5
20	2	8.3
21	2	8.3
23	2	8.3
24	1	4.2
27	1	4.2
28	2	8.3
29	2	8.3
30	1	4.2
31	2	8.3
Total	24	100.0

Table 23 shows that only one secondary school principal did not continue past the four year Bachelor's degree. The majority (62.5 percent) of the principals had six years of training at a University or College level. The mean for all secondary school principals was 5.9 years of training.

TABLE 23
PRINCIPALS' YEARS OF UNIVERSITY OR COLLEGE TRAINING
(N = 24)

Demographic Characteristic - Years of Training	N	Percentage of Respondents
4		4.2
5		16.7
6	15	62.5
7	4	16.7
Total	24	100.0

Table 24 indicates that more principals (45.8 percent) perceived their training to have been in Humanities than in any other field. It should be noted that on the original demographic questionnaire to the principals the category "other" was in place of the term "Physical Education." For this category three principals perceived that, indeed, Physical Education was their area of training.

TABLE 24
 PRINCIPALS' PERCEIVED AREA OF TRAINING
 (N = 24)

Demographic Characteristic - Perceived Area of Training	N	Percentage of Respondents
1. Humanities	11	45.8
2. Sciences	9	37.5
3. Business	0	0.0
4. Vocational	1	4.2
5. Physical Education	3	12.5
Total	24	100.0

The foregoing descriptive statistics of secondary school principals who participated in this study may be summarized in Table 25 which reflects all the demographic variables.

Analysis of Demographic Data

In addition to the three problem questions and the subsequent ten Null-hypotheses, there were an additional nine questions posed to determine the relationship of the demographic data to the dimensions of self-actualization, leadership behavior, and leadership attitude.

Table 26 contains the correlation matrix for six of the nine demographic variables related to data for principals.

TABLE 25
VARIABLES, MEAN SCORES, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND
RANGES OF THE DEMOGRAPHIC DATA OBTAINED FROM PRINCIPLES
(N = 24)

Variable	Mean Response	Standard Deviation	Range
Age	3.29 (See Table 16)	0.69	31-60
Sex	1.08 (See Table 17)	0.28	2-22
Secondary Level	1.29 (See Table 18)	0.46	7-17
No. of F.T.E. Teachers	36.96	25.23	11-108
Yrs. Principal at Present School	4.50	2.78	2-11
Total Yrs. As Principal	8.38	6.52	2-26
Total Yrs. In Education	22.50	5.37	14-31
Yrs. of Training	5.92	0.72	4-7
Perceived Area of Training	2.00 (See Table 24)	1.35	---

Tables 27 and 28 use T-tests to determine significance of results for two other variables. The last variable of principals' "sex" could not be analysed due to a small female N of two. The T-tests used for the significance of the difference between means assumes that the variances of the principal population from which the sample is drawn are equal.

TABLE 26
CORRELATION MATRIX FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL VARIABLES
(N = 24)

	Leadership Attitude Consideration I. Structure	Self-Actualization	Leadership Behavior Consideration I. Structure
1. Age	-0.06 P=0.39	0.11 P=0.30	-0.30 P=0.08 -0.36* P=0.04
2. No. of Teachers on Staff	0.02 P=0.46	-0.03 P=0.45	-0.47** P=0.01 0.11 P=0.31
3. Years in Present Position	0.26 P=0.11	0.01 P=0.48	-0.22 P=0.15 0.38* P=0.04
4. Total Years as Principal	-0.22 P=0.15	-0.31 P=0.07	-0.25 P=0.12 -0.25 P=0.12
5. Total Years in Education	-0.28 P=0.10	-0.18 P=0.20	-0.34* P=0.05 -0.22 P=0.15
6. Years of University Training	0.07 P=0.37	-0.43* P=0.02	0.01 P=0.48 -0.08 P=0.36

* Significant at the .05 level

** Significant at the .01 level

TABLE 27

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE FOR PRINCIPALS'
LEVEL OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS (N = 24)

	Junior High Level (N = 17)		Senior High Level (N = 7)		T-Value	Probability
	Mean	St. Deviation	Mean	St. Deviation		
Leadership Attitude						
- Consideration	44.56	4.27	43.39	2.54	0.67	0.51
- Initiating Structure	33.57	4.57	29.78	4.91	1.81	0.08
Leadership Behavior						
- Consideration	38.75	4.13	36.15	5.18	1.31	0.21
- Initiating Structure	39.19	4.36	37.24	4.65	0.98	0.34
Self-Actualization						
- Score	106.88	9.71	97.00	15.30	1.92	0.07

TABLE 28

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (T-TEST) FOR PRINCIPALS' PERCEIVED
AREA OF TRAINING¹ (N = 24)

	Humanities Training (N=11)		Sciences Training (N=9)		T-Value	Probability
	Mean	St. Deviation	Mean	St. Deviation		
Leadership Attitude						
- Consideration	43.57	4.02	44.42	4.42	-0.45	0.66
- Initiating Structure	33.68	5.74	31.42	4.18	0.99	0.34
Leadership Behavior						
- Consideration	37.67	4.34	38.16	5.46	-0.22	0.83
- Initiating Structure	38.29	4.61	40.30	4.72	-0.96	0.35
Self-Actualization						
- Score	102.27	14.49	103.78	8.66	-0.27	0.79

¹As the vast majority (83.3 percent) of principals perceived their training in either Humanities (45.8 percent) or in Sciences (37.5 percent), a T-test to measure the analysis of variance between these two disciplines was performed.

The contents of this section will present a restatement of the ancillary questions and a presentation of the results. Once again, these findings are based on grouping all principals together regardless of their self-actualization level.

Ancillary Question 1

Is there a relationship between age of the principals and
a) the degree of self-actualizing, b) the leadership behavior, or
c) the leadership attitude?

Findings

Table 26 shows that age is significantly related to the leadership behavior dimension of Initiating Structure ($r=-0.36$). Indicating that older principals had teachers perceive their leadership behavior dimension of Initiating Structure to be significantly lower than had the younger principals. Ancillary question one was therefore answered in the positive for sub-question "b".

Ancillary Question 2

Is there a relationship between the sex of the principals and a) the degree of self-actualizing, b) the leadership behavior, or c) the leadership attitude?

Findings

From Table 17, it can be noted that an overwhelming majority of secondary school principals used in this study were male (91.7 percent). As a result no statistical relationship could be determined for this study with any degree of reliability.

Ancillary Question 3

Is there a difference between the secondary school level of the principals and a) the degree of self-actualizing, b) the leadership behavior, or c) the leadership attitude?

Findings

As shown in Table 27 there are no significant differences when comparing Junior High to Senior High school principals in the dimensions of self-actualization, leadership behavior, and leadership attitude. Therefore, ancillary question three was answered in the negative for all three sub-questions.

Ancillary Question 4

Is there a relationship between the number of teachers on staff and a) the degree of self-actualization, b) the leadership behavior, or c) the leadership attitude of the principals?

Findings

Table 26 shows a negative correlation between the number of teachers on a principal's staff and the leadership behavior dimension

of Consideration of -0.47 which was significant at the $.01$ level. This finding indicates that the larger the number of teachers on staff, the lower principals were perceived by their teachers on the leadership behavior dimension of Consideration. No other correlation was significant at the $.05$ level. Ancillary question four was therefore answered in the positive for sub-question "b" only.

Ancillary Question 5

Is there a relationship between the number of years the principals had been in their present positions and a) the degree of self-actualization, b) the leadership behavior, or c) the leadership attitude?

Findings

Table 26 reflects that there is a positive correlation between the perceived leadership behavior dimension of Initiating Structure and years in position at present school of 0.38 which was significant at the $.05$ level. This indicates that the principals who remained longer at a particular school were seen by their teachers to exhibit greater leadership behavior dimension of Initiating Structure. No other significant findings were revealed at the $.05$ level. Consequently, ancillary question five was answered in the positive for sub-question "b" only.

Ancillary Question 6

Is there a relationship between the total number of years the principals had occupied a position of principal and a) the degree of self-actualization, b) the leadership behavior, or c) the leadership attitude?

Findings

Table 26 shows that no statistically significant relationship exists between the number of years experience as a principal and the dimensions of self-actualization, leadership behavior, or leadership attitude. As a result, ancillary question six was answered in the negative for all three sub-questions.

Ancillary Question 7

Is there a relationship between the total number of years the principals had been in education and a) the degree of self-actualization, b) the leadership behavior, or c) the leadership attitude?

Findings

As shown in Table 26 the correlation between the total number of years the principal had been involved in education and the leadership behavior dimension of Consideration was -0.34 , significant at the $.05$ level. This indicates that the principals who had been in education longer were perceived to exhibit lower leadership behavior dimension of Consideration than the others. No other correlation was

significant at the .05 level. Consequently, ancillary question seven was answered in the positive for sub-question "b" only.

Ancillary Question 8

Is there a relationship between the number of years the principals have completed University or Teachers' College training and a) the degree of self-actualization, b) the leadership behavior, or c) the leadership attitude?

Findings

Table 26 shows a negative correlation coefficient for the number of years of training a principal had undertaken and his level of self-actualization. The coefficient of -0.43 was significantly related at the .05 level of confidence. This finding indicates that the more university or college training a principal had earned, the lower he scored on the self-actualization dimension. Worded another way, the more educated a principal -- the less self-actualized he was. No other correlations were significantly related at the .05 level. As a result, ancillary question eight was only answered in the positive for sub-question "a".

Ancillary Question 9

Is there a difference between the area the principals perceive their University or Teachers' College emphasis to have been (i.e. humanities, sciences, business, vocational, or physical education) and a) the degree of self-actualization, b) the leadership behavior,

or c) the leadership attitude?

Findings

Utilizing T-tests as shown in Table 28 the principals' perceived area of training was not significantly different, at the .05 level, for either the dimensions of self-actualization, leadership behavior, or leadership attitude. Therefore, ancillary question nine was answered in the negative.

Summary

Chapter IV presents the analysis of data procedures which were followed to determine if significant relationships existed between secondary school principals' leadership attitude, leadership behavior, and self-actualization. Chapter I had presented reasons why such relationships might be discovered.

Statistical methods of analysis were employed to test the data in the 24 returned principal questionnaires and the 260 returned teacher questionnaires for statistically significant relationships. The results of the analysis of the data were that two significant relationships existed between principals' self-actualization, teacher perception of principal leadership behavior, and principal leadership attitude. First, teachers perceived the medially-self-actualizing principals to be significantly higher in the leadership behavior dimension of Initiating Structure than did the teachers of less-self-actualizing principals. Second, the more value a principal placed on the leadership attitude dimension of Consideration, the more

teachers perceived this to be the case with their principals' leadership behavior of the same dimension.

In analysing the three main variables with the demographic data from the principals, it was also found at a significant level that:

- a) The higher the age of the principals, the lower were their scores on the leadership behavior dimension of Initiating Structure;
 - b) The larger the number of teachers on staff, the lower principals were perceived on the leadership behavior dimension of Consideration;
 - c) The principals who remained longer at a particular school were seen by their teachers to exhibit Initiating Structure in their leadership behavior;
 - d) The principals who had been in the area of education longer were perceived by teachers as exhibiting less "Consideration" in terms of leadership behavior;
- and
- e) The principals who attained more years of formal university training scored lower on self-actualization.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Included in this final chapter is a section which includes a summary of the study. A second section focuses on the results of the major findings with conclusions, implications, and recommendations for further research.

SUMMARY

The summary consists of a brief description of the problem, the literature, the procedures, and the findings of the study.

The Problem

The object of this study was to analyse the nature of the interrelationships that exist between principals' self-actualization, teacher perception of principal leadership behavior, and principal leadership attitude. Leadership has been studied from a variety of standpoints with few conclusive results. Self-actualization, a concept in personality theory and in psychotherapy, has been tested and studied numerous times from clinical, managerial, and educational perspectives. This study sought to investigate leadership attitude, leadership behavior, and the concept of self-actualization together in an effort to determine if an interrelationship does, in fact, exist. A search of the literature had not revealed any studies where the three variables were measured in relation to each other.

The Literature

The second chapter of this study provided a literature review of leadership and of Maslow's concept of self-actualization. The leadership review dealt with leadership concepts, leadership theories, and leadership studies related to education. Detail was given to research completed at Ohio State University which focused on the concept that leadership could be acknowledged as behavior. In the literature review on self-actualization attention was given to the self-actualized individual's motivations, characteristics, gratifications, and traits. Numerous research studies on self-actualization utilized Shostrom's Personal Orientation Inventory, one of the instruments that was chosen for this study.

The Procedures

Twenty-four principals and two hundred and sixty teachers from the Edmonton Public School Board participated in this research. Only secondary level schools were used.

Three instruments were utilized for the collection of data: (1) Personal Orientation Inventory (POI), (2) Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), and (3) the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ). Both the LBDQ and the LOQ developed as an outgrowth of the Ohio State University leadership studies and were designed to include similar dimensions of leadership behavior and leadership attitude respectively. The POI was designed to measure an individual's values and behavior as related to Maslow's concept of

self-actualization. The total score from two major scales of Time Competence and Inner Directedness are considered by most researchers to be the most valid indicators of self-actualization. All three instruments had been established to possess reliability and validity in major studies.

After approval to conduct research was granted from the appropriate administrators of the School Board, each secondary school principal was contacted. Once permission was granted, appointments were arranged for information sessions detailing the purpose of the study. Principals provided the researcher with staff lists from which a 30 percent random sample of teachers was selected. No fewer than 10 were chosen from each school. All 24 principals completed both the POI and LQO questionnaires while 260 of the 305 selected teachers completed the LBDQ. A composite of just over 86 percent of all three instruments were completed and utilized in the data analysis.

A one-way classification of analysis of variance (ANOVA) was one method of statistical procedure employed to test for statistical significance. Where the F rates proved statistically significant, the nature of the implied differences was investigated further by the application of the Scheffe method of posteriori comparisons. In addition, Pearson product-moment correlations were computed to determine the relationships in four of the ten null hypotheses and the majority of ancillary questions. Tests for significance were at the .05 level of confidence.

The Findings

Three questions and a resultant total of ten null hypotheses were posed to determine the interrelationships that exist between principals' self-actualization, teacher perception of principal leadership behavior, and principal leadership attitude. Nine further questions were selected for the investigation of demographic data relationships to the variables of the null hypotheses. The significant results of the ancillary questions will be listed under "Ancillary Findings."

The first question involving three Null-hypotheses examined for differences among the principals categorized as more, medial, or less-self-actualizing and their teachers' perception of principals' leadership behavior. The findings revealed that principals categorized as medially self-actualizing were perceived by teachers to be significantly higher in the leadership behavior dimension of Initiating Structure than principals categorized as less self-actualizing.

The second question also included three Null-hypotheses and examined for relationships among principals categorized as more, medial, or less-self-actualizing and their leadership attitude. The results revealed no significantly related findings for any of the Null-hypotheses.

The four Null-hypotheses posed from the third question examined for significantly related relationships between teacher perception of principals' leadership behavior and the principals' leadership attitude. One of the Null-hypotheses was rejected at the .05 level

of confidence revealing that the greater the value placed by a principal on the leadership attitude dimension of Consideration, the more teachers perceived this dimension in his leadership behavior.

Ancillary Findings

In addition to the major null hypotheses, significant ancillary findings were found between the three main variables (self-actualization, leadership attitude, and leadership behavior) and the demographic information obtained from the principals. The significantly related findings that follow are detailed further in Tables 16 through 28.

1. Teachers perceived the leadership behavior dimension of Initiating Structure to be lower for older principals.
2. The larger the size of a school staff, the less principals were perceived as "Considerate" in their leadership behavior.
3. The principals who remained longer at a particular school were seen by their teachers to exhibit more Initiating Structure in their leadership behavior.
4. The principals who had been in the area of education longer were perceived by teachers as exhibiting less "Consideration" in terms of their leadership behavior.
5. The principals who attained more years of formal university training scored lower on self-actualization.

CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions presented in this section were based on the literature reviewed for this research and the significantly related findings revealed from the analysed data. A brief overview of the research paradigm (Figure 4, page 108) will offer a visual framework for the variables that were tested.

Results of the first problem under consideration in this study seemed to indicate no significant difference among groups of principals categorized by their self-actualization score and their teachers' perceived leadership behavior. When the analysis differentiated among the more, medial, or less self-actualizing principals, only one significant relationship was determined. The medially self-actualizing principals were perceived by their teachers as being significantly higher in the leadership behavior dimension of Initiating Structure than were the less self-actualizing principals. While some authors such as Knowles and Saxeberg (1971), contend that the more self-actualized or metamotivated (self-actualizing person who has all of his basic needs gratified, genuinely feels called to vocation, identifies with his work, and is primarily motivated by the Being Values) individual would make a more capable leader, the results of this study do not necessarily support that assumption. Getzels et al. (1968:122) implied that within an organization, individuals with a high degree of self-actualized behavior would be ineffective compared to the "average" employee. The results of this research did not support, nor did they refute, an interpretation of an individual's high degree of self-actualization as possibly being

dysfunctional to a large organization such as a school system. The high score of the medially self-actualizing principals on the leadership behavior dimension of Initiating Structure was supportive, in a sense, of both philosophies. It suggests that most principals scoring in the upper leadership quadrant formed by the LBDQ dimensions (pg. 104) are, indeed, those in the mid-range of self-actualization, and not the most self-actualized as Knowles and Saxeberg indicate, or possibly the less self-actualized as Getzels suggests.

The findings from the second problem indicated that there was no significant difference among groups of principals categorized by their self-actualization score and their leadership attitude. The results showed that, for this study sample and with the instruments that were utilized, principal leadership attitudes and their self-actualization were not related statistically at a significant level. Though the literature did not specifically focus on leadership attitudes as related to self-actualization, Maslow's assumption was that self-actualized individuals would make better choices than other members of the population. Maslow suggested that these choices would be reflective of an idealized leadership attitude offering professional leadership qualities.

An analysis of the third question indicated that there was generally no significantly related relationship between principals' attitude towards leadership and actual principals' leadership behavior. The only significant relationship found showed that the more value a principal placed on the leadership attitude dimension of Consideration, the more teachers perceived "Consideration" to be

exhibited in his leadership behavior. The basis for examination of these relations was as follows: the principal who believes and acts in system-oriented (Initiating Structure) and person-oriented (Consideration) manners will be perceived to behave in these ways by his staff. According to the literature, being identified as behaving highly in both of these dimensions appears related to the presence of "good" leadership. The review of the literature indicated this overwhelmingly. Leaders in a variety of situations were rated as more effective when they scored high in both Consideration and Initiating Structure dimensions. Therefore, considered to be ideal was a principal who could establish and maintain productive leader-teacher relations, and also had the foresight and technical competence to guide the education program successfully toward the school's identified goals and objectives.

This study indicated that there was essentially no relationship between principals' leadership attitude and actual leadership behavior. From the literature describing "ideal" and "real" leadership, it should be expected that leadership attitudes of principals translated into leadership behavior would, indeed, be positively related. Simply stated, these results revealed that what a principal believed and valued in regards to his leadership was only partially perceived to be the same.

The overriding conclusion reached in this study was that there is no interrelationship between the variables of principal self-actualization, teacher perception of principal leadership behavior, and principal leadership attitude. This conclusion does

not support the conjectured hypotheses that was based on the literature review which suggested an relationship does exist.

There are four possible explanations offered as to why the null-hypotheses were not rejected.

1. The sample may not have been representative in the sense that it was drawn from a rather small group. Further, for some unexplained reason the sample may have been different from the normal population of principals and teachers. However, this rationalization seems to be rather unworthy when the numbers in the sample are examined. Ordinarily an N of 24 would be sufficient to show relationship if such a relationship does, in fact, exist.

2. Another possible explanation was that the instruments used to measure the variables were not adequate or sufficient to measure the proposed interrelationships. The Personal Orientation Inventory, Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, or all three may have been inadequate to measure the variables. The results on each of the instruments suggested that this is a possibility. This explanation holds some credibility in interpreting the lack of significant findings.

3. The third possible reason why this study failed to find significant support for the formulated hypotheses was that there may, in fact, be no interrelationship between principals' self-actualization and their leadership behavior, principals' self-actualization and their leadership attitude, or principals' leadership behavior and their leadership attitude. The interrelationship suggested in the literature review, if they exist at

all, may be only indirectly related through an intervening variable rather than related in a direct fashion as studied in this dissertation. Certainly this study supports the idea that there is no relationship, and this must be listed as a possible interpretation of the results.

4. The final explanation why the hypotheses were not supported was the possibility that the leadership process may be explained only when all the known variables are operating at one time. It is possible, for example, that principal leadership behavior is affected by personal attitude but only in conjunction with a particular situation, the nature of the task, the attitudes of the teachers, the personality of the principal, and the educational goals of the school. That this study failed to show the desired interrelationships may be due, at least in part, to its failure to consider the other variables concurrently.

IMPLICATIONS FOR SELECTING PRINCIPALS

The evidence presented in this study demonstrates that principals' leadership is in part a function of the level of self-actualization. To date, the selection of candidates for the administrative positions of principalship has, in most school board jurisdictions, been dependent upon the candidate's commitment to educational goals, ability to conform to system expectations, and potential exhibited to carry out school policies. It appears, however, that few, if any, valid criteria for personality assessment

enter into the selection of candidates seeking principalship.

The results of this research suggest some attention could be given to the personality dimension of self-actualization in selecting candidates for principalship. The findings, as discussed in the previous section, indicate those in the medially-self-actualizing range may, indeed, be the most desirable candidates within a school system. The more self-actualizing are confident individuals possessing an inner strength and a motivating value system which focuses on present situations. However, these individuals do not have a need to direct others and would rather respect others for what they are and choose to do. The less-self-actualizing, on the other hand, have a greater need to work with others in order to gain approval and support (esteem/love needs). These Deficiency-Needs reflect a willingness to take from others rather than to share, as they are dependent on others (other directed) to fulfill their needs. Consequently, conjecture could be made that a compromise between the more and the less-self-actualizing candidate for principalship (i.e. the medially-self-actualizing) would be desirable as having both sufficient confidence to work with other members of his staff and the need to involve himself in directing others.

School systems committed to the selection, training, and placement of school principals might utilize an instrument, such as the Personal Orientation Inventory as a resource in the initial screening of candidates. In addition, prospective principals could

profit through the opportunity to acquire additional insights into their own value and personality systems. These insights, which may at first be threatening, might reveal to a prospective principal dimensions of his values and behaviors that he did not know. The accuracy with which a prospective principal perceives himself, and the accuracy of his perceptions with respect to the behavior of others, is a vital factor in determining success as a leader.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Throughout the summary and conclusion sections of this study, the implications seemed clear. The suggestion that an interrelationship existed between principals' self-actualization, teacher perception of principal leadership behavior, and principal attitude was generally not demonstrated. The results did not substantiate the central issue in this dissertation. Instead of providing data supporting the objectives of this research; i.e., 1. to provide an understanding of the interrelationships of the three dimensions, and 2. to identify areas where further scholarly research is required that may have an impact on administrators and teachers, the study only cast doubts. The thrust of the literature cited in Chapter II

suggested encouragement in finding significant relationships between the main variables. The literature implied that the more self-actualizing segment of the population should be utilized because of their potential collective value in the process of choosing goals, priorities, objectives, and of their potential for leadership in education.

Based upon the findings and conclusions of this study together with inferences from the cited references, the following recommendations and comments are offered for future research efforts:

1. The design, the instrumentation, and the sample may have contributed to the failure of this dissertation to facilitate the hypothesized relationships. The findings of this study did not support Maslow's assumption that self-actualizing individuals possess potential leadership qualities and make better choices than other members of the population. With the results being contrary to this presumption, it cannot be concluded that more self-actualizing individuals would be better suited to serve in the leadership role as principals of schools. Therefore, this study should be replicated. The soundest recommendation that can be made is that the research be done again using different designs, instruments and samples.
2. Replication of the study with expansion of research design to include analysis of the data based on demographic variables for principals and teachers such as sex, age, assignment, experience, etc., is also recommended. With this studies demographic data on

principals resulting in significant findings, conjecture could be made that further significant information would be gained through an expanded replication.

3. Replicate this study's research with a provincial, or a national random sample of principals and teachers. By using a larger sample with the expectation of receiving 20 to 25 principals from the upper one to two percent of the population would be ideal. Since this study's more self-actualizing respondents represent approximately 35 percent of the population, it could be concluded that more significant relationships would be expected as the more self-actualizing sample approaches Maslow's suggested one or two percent of the population. Furthermore, it is suggested that there is utility in replicating the study within other populations in order to determine whether manifestations of the results of this study exist.
4. Replicate this study with consideration given to the interaction between principals and the situational influences on leadership. Research literature focusing on situational factors suggests analysis of principals' leadership could involve not only a study of attitude and behavior, but also of the situational variables. Hoy and Miskel (1978:204) suggested that the situational components that influence leadership are basically a function of technological, organizational, and human factors. These elements are seldom given equal weights, but rather vary from situation to situation. This recommendation suggests emphasis be placed on the analysis of leadership in situations,

and the congruence of that leadership behavior and attitude with the demands of the situation.

Although unrelated to the purpose of this study, the data suggests a further recommendation. A study of a specific personality characteristic, such as self-actualization, may not be appropriate to examine or to explain leadership relationships within a school organization unless it can be shown to be related to some aspect of the organization. The problem, therefore, may be one of assessing the principals' "job personality" and "job self-actualization" behavior. "Job personality" for a principal may be different than his usual personality, according to Simon (1957:202) and Barnard (1938:187-188). It might be hypothesized that the degree of self-actualization attributed to job factors is different than the general degree of self-actualization. Therefore, a principal may have a high degree of general self-actualization, but a low degree of job self-actualization. Further research is recommended to determine what aspects of a principal's role contribute to his degree of self-actualization.

In summation, the purpose of this study was to analyse the interrelationship of principals' self-actualization, teacher perception of principals; leadership behavior, and principals' leadership attitude. The results indicated that the relationship indirectly proposed in theory has yet to be substantiated by research. While it may have been easy to speculate about relationships in a theoretical or even a clinical sense, research must eventually support or reject those speculative relationships. This study did not support the proposed relationships.

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APPENDIX A

MOTIVATIONS AND GRATIFICATIONS
OF SELF-ACTUALIZING PEOPLE

Motivations and Gratifications of Self-Actualizing People, Obtained Through Their Work as Well as in Other Ways. (These are in addition to Basic-Need Gratifications.) Maslow (1971, p. 298-299).

Delight in bringing about justice.

Delight in stopping cruelty and exploitation.

Fighting lies and untruths.

They love virtue to be rewarded.

They seem to like happy endings, good completions.

They hate sin and evil to be rewarded, and they hate people to get away with it.

They are good punishers of evil.

They try to set things right, to clean up bad situations.

They enjoy doing good.

They like to reward and praise promise, talent, virtue, etc.

They avoid publicity, fame, honors, popularity, celebrity, or at least do not seek it. It seems to be not awfully important one way or another.

They do not need to be loved by everyone.

They generally pick out their own causes, which are apt to be few in number, rather than responding to advertising or to campaigns or to other people's exhortations.

They tend to enjoy peace, calm, quiet, pleasantness, etc., and they tend not to like turmoil, fighting, war, etc. (they are not general-fighters on every front), and they can enjoy themselves in the middle of a "war."

They also seem practical and shrewd and realistic about it, more often than impractical. They like to be effective and dislike being ineffectual.

Their fighting is not an excuse for hostility, paranoia, grandiosity, authority, rebellion, etc., but is for the sake of setting things right. It is problem-centered.

They manage somehow simultaneously to love the world as it is and to try to improve it.

In all cases there was some hope that people and nature and society could be improved.

In all cases it was as if they could see both good and evil realistically.

They respond to the challenge in a job.

A chance to improve the situation or the operation is a big reward. They enjoy improving things.

Observations generally indicate great pleasure in their children and in helping them grow into good adults.

They do not need or seek for or even enjoy very much flattery, applause, popularity, status, prestige, money, honors, etc.

Expressions of gratitude, or at least of awareness of their good fortune, are common.

They have a sense of noblesse oblige. It is the duty of the superior, of the one who sees and knows, to be patient and tolerant, as with children.

They tend to be attracted by mystery, unsolved problems, by the unknown and the challenging, rather than to be frightened by them.

They enjoy bringing about law and order in the chaotic situation, or in the messy or confused situation, or in the dirty and unclean situation.

They hate (and fight) corruption, cruelty, malice, dishonesty, pompousness, phoniness, and faking.

They try to free themselves from illusions, to look at the facts courageously, to take away the blindfold.

They feel it is a pity for talent to be wasted.

They do not do mean things, and they respond with anger when other people do mean things.

They tend to feel that every person should have an opportunity to develop to his highest potential, to have a fair chance, to have equal opportunity.

They like doing things well, "doing a good job," to do well what needs doing. Many such phrases add up to "bringing about good workmanship."

One advantage of being a boss is the right to give away the corporation's money, to choose which good causes to help. They enjoy giving their own money away to causes they consider important, good, worthwhile, etc. Pleasure in Philanthropy.

They enjoy watching happiness and helping to bring it about.

They get great pleasure from knowing admirable people (courageous, honest, effective, "straight," "big," creative, saintly, etc.). "My work brings me in contact with many fine people."

They enjoy taking on responsibilities (that they can handle well), and certainly don't fear or evade their responsibilities. They respond to responsibility.

They uniformly consider their work to be worthwhile, important, even essential.

They enjoy greater efficiency, making an operation more neat, compact, simpler, faster, less expensive, turning out a better product, doing with less parts, a smaller number of operations, less clumsiness, less effort, more foolproof, safer, more "elegant," less laborious.

APPENDIX B
PACKET FOR PRINCIPALS

Survey Introduction

I would like to thank you for your willingness to participate in this research project. My dissertation will attempt to measure the relationship that exists with secondary school principals in the dimensions of self-actualization, leadership behavior, and leadership attitudes. The study will involve 27 school principals and 382 teachers.

It should be noted that all information regarding any individual will be kept confidential. The results, when summarized, will not include any breakdown by school name or individuals.

If you would like a summary of the research project, please write your name and mailing address below.

When you are finished with this introduction section, please go on to the direction page.

Sincerely,



Joe J. Danyluk

Encl.

Directions for Principals

Please complete the information requested below. When you have done this, complete the enclosed "Personal Orientation Inventory" by responding on the answer sheet, and the "Leadership Opinion Questionnaire" by responding directly on the questionnaire. The length of time to complete the three should be between 20 to 30 minutes. Upon completion place in the attached enveloped. THANK YOU for your anticipated cooperation and time.

Respond to the following by either circling or filling in the appropriate answers:

- | | <u>C.C.</u> |
|---|-------------|
| A. Age: (1) 21-30 (2) 31-40 (3) 41-50 (4) 51-60 (5) 61-70 | 1, 2 |
| B. Sex: (1) male (2) female | 3
4 |
| C. The secondary level of your school is:
(1) Junior High School (2) Senior High School | 5 |
| D. How many full time equivalence (F.T.E.) teachers on your staff? _____ | 6-8 |
| E. How many years have you been a principal at the present school? _____ | 9, 10 |
| F. How many years, in total, have you been a principal? _____ | 11, 12 |
| G. How many years, in total, have you been employed within a school system(s)? _____ | 13, 14 |
| H. How many years of University or Teachers' College training have you completed? _____ | 15 |
| I. In which area do you perceive your University or Teachers' College emphasis to have been? (Check one only)
(1) Humanities (2) Sciences (3) Business
(4) Vocational (5) Other _____ | 16 |
| C _____ | 17, 18 |
| Is _____ | 19, 20 |
| Tc _____ | 21, 22 |
| I _____ | 23-25 |
| Ts _____ | 26-28 |

Shostrom's "Personal Orientation Inventory" is a copyrighted instrument. Samples may be obtained by writing:

Educational and Industrial
Testing Service
P.O. Box 7234
San Diego, California 92107

Fleishman's "Leadership Opinion Questionnaire" is a copyrighted instrument. See letter in Appendix D for regulations in its use. Sample LOQ may be obtained by writing:

Science Research Associates, Inc.,
155 North Wacker Drive
Chicago, Illinois 60606

APPENDIX C
PACKET FOR TEACHERS

March, 1980

Dear

You have, with your principal's and Edmonton Public School Board's permission, been selected to participate in a study concerned with principal's leadership behavior. The information gathered on your perception of your principal's leadership behavior is to be used, in part, to ~~complete~~ my Doctoral dissertation at the University of Alberta.

The enclosed Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire should not exceed 10 to 15 minutes of your time to complete. I would like to emphasize that your completion of the requested information is crucial.

Please be assured that your name is on the envelope only so that you may receive credit for questionnaire completion. Your response will in no way be identified during any other stage of the study.

Once you have completed the requested information, please seal it in the attached envelope and return it to your head school secretary. I will be at your school in two weeks time to pick up your envelope. If you have any concerns with any part of the questionnaire, please indicate such on the "Survey Introduction" page. You will then be contacted personally by me.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Sincerely,



Joe J. Danyluk

/td
Encl.

Survey Introduction

I would like to thank you for your willingness to participate in this research project. My dissertation will attempt to measure the relationship that exists with secondary school principals in the dimensions of self-actualization, leadership behavior, and leadership attitudes. The study will involve 27 school principals and 382 teachers.

It should be noted that all information regarding any individual will be kept confidential. The results, when summarized, will not include any breakdown by school name or individuals.

If you would like a summary of the research project, please write your name and mailing address below.

When you are finished with this introduction section, please begin the questionnaire regarding the leadership behavior of your principal. Respond directly on the booklet. Thank you once again for your time and cooperation.

Sincerely,



Joe J. Danyluk

Encl.

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Developed by staff members of
The Ohio State Leadership Studies

Name of Leader (Principal) Being Described _____

On the following pages is a list of items that may be used to describe the behavior of your principal. Each item describes a specific kind of behavior, but does not ask you to judge whether the behavior is desirable or undesirable. This is not a test of ability. It simply asks you to describe, as accurately as you can, the behavior of your principal.

Note: The term, "group," as employed in the following items, refers to a department, division, or other unit of organization which is supervised by the person being described.

The term "members," refers to all the people in the unit of organization which is supervised by the person being described.

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DIRECTIONS:

- a. READ each item carefully.
- b. THINK about how frequently the principal engages in the behavior described by the item.
- c. DECIDE whether he/she always, often, occasionally, seldom or never acts as described by the item.
- d. DRAW A CIRCLE around one of the five letters following the item to show the answer you have selected.

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

		C.C.
		1-2
1. Does personal favors for group members.	A B C D E	3
2. Makes his/her attitudes clear to the group.	A B C D E	4
3. Does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group.	A B C D E	5
4. Tries out his/her new ideas with the group.	A B C D E	6
5. Acts as the real leader of the group.	A B C D E	7
6. Is easy to understand.	A B C D E	8
7. Rules with an iron hand.	A B C D E	9
8. Finds time to listen to group members.	A B C D E	10
9. Criticizes poor work.	A B C D E	11
10. Gives advance notice of changes.	A B C D E	12
11. Speaks in a manner not to be questioned.	A B C D E	13
12. Keeps to himself/herself.	A B C D E	14
13. Looks out for the personal welfare of individual group members.	A B C D E	15
14. Assigns group members to particular tasks.	A B C D E	16
15. Is the spokesperson of the group.	A B C D E	17
16. Schedules the work to be done.	A B C D E	18

		<u>C.C.</u>
17. Maintains definite standards of performance.	A B C D E	19
18. Refuses to explain his/her actions.	A B C D E	20
19. Keeps the group informed.	A B C D E	21
20. Acts without consulting the group.	A B C D E	22
21. Backs up the members in their actions.	A B C D E	23
22. Emphasizes the meeting of deadlines.	A B C D E	24
23. Treats all group members as his/her equals.	A B C D E	25
24. Encourages the use of uniform procedures.	A B C D E	26
25. Gets what he/she asks for from his/her superiors.	A B C D E	27
26. Is willing to make changes.	A B C D E	28
27. Makes sure that his/her part in the organization is understood by group members.	A B C D E	29
28. Is friendly and approachable.	A B C D E	30
29. Asks that group members follow standard rules and regulations.	A B C D E	31
30. Fails to take necessary action.	A B C D E	32
31. Makes group members feel at ease when talking with them.	A B C D E	33
32. Lets group members know what is expected of them.	A B C D E	34
33. Speaks as the representative of the group.	A B C D E	35
34. Puts suggestions made by the group into operation.	A B C D E	36
35. Sees to it that group members are working up to capacity.	A B C D E	37
36. Lets other people take away his/her leadership in the group.	A B C D E	38
37. Gets his/her superiors to act for the welfare of the group members.	A B C D E	39
38. Gets group approval in important matters before going ahead.	A B C D E	40
39. Sees to it that the work of group members is coordinated.	A B C D E	41
40. Keeps the group working together as a team.	A B C D E	42

APPENDIX D
LETTERS AND RESPONSES
FOR PERMISSION TO USE COPYRIGHTED
INSTRUMENTS

November 23, 1979

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

Dear Sirs:

As a doctoral candidate enrolled at the University of Alberta located in Edmonton, Alberta, Canada, I have become interested in the area of school principal leadership behavior and have found the "Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire" to be appropriate and desirable as a major instrument for my research project.

In recognition of, and with respect for, the copyright laws no use will be made of your instrument without direct and formal consent. Therefore, I am seeking your permission to distribute, collect, and evaluate the findings of this instrument as it pertains to my research project.

I would appreciate a copy of the questionnaire as well as a manual should one be available. If a fee is required by the copyright holder, please specify how much the fee is and to whom the cheque should be made out.

I will anxiously await your response by return mail.

Sincerely,

Joe J. Danyluk
11242 - 61 Street
Edmonton, Alberta
Canada
T5W 4A5

STATEMENT OF POLICY

Concerning the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire and Related Forms

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

1. Use: The forms may be used in research projects. They may not be used for promotional activities or for producing income on behalf of individuals or organizations other than The Ohio State University.
2. Adaptation and Revision: The directions and the form of the items may be adapted to specific situations when such steps are considered desirable.
3. Duplication: Sufficient copies for a specific research project may be duplicated.
4. Inclusion in dissertations: Copies of the questionnaire may be included in theses and dissertations. Permission is granted for the duplication of such dissertations when filed with the University Microfilms Service at Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106 U.S.A.
5. Copyright: In granting permission to modify or duplicate the questionnaire, we do not surrender our copyright. Duplicated questionnaires and all adaptations should contain the notation "Copyright, 19--", by The Ohio State University."
6. Inquiries: Communications should be addressed to:

Center for Business and Economic Research
The Ohio State University
1775 College Road
Columbus, Ohio 43210 U.S.A.

November 23, 1979

Educational and Industrial Testing Service
San Diego, California
U.S.A. 92107

Dear Sirs:

As a doctoral candidate enrolled at the University of Alberta located in Edmonton, Alberta, Canada, I have become interested in the area of secondary school principal leadership and as related to levels of self-actualization. I find the "Personal Orientation Inventory" to be appropriate and desirable as a major instrument for my research project.

In recognition of, and with respect for, the copyright laws no use will be made of your instrument without direct and formal consent. Therefore, I am seeking your permission to distribute, collect, and evaluate the findings of this instrument as it will pertain to my project.

For my research I will require twenty (20) inventories if your copyright law does not allow for reproduction. As well I will require a manual for the instrument. If a fee is required please specify how much the total is and to whom to make the cheque payable to.

I will anxiously await your response by return mail.

Sincerely,

Joe J. Danyluk
11242 - 61 Street
Edmonton, Alberta
Canada
T5W 4A5



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PERSONAL ORIENTATION INVENTORY (POI)

Bill to: _____ Purchase Order No. _____ Ship to: _____
Name _____
Title _____
Institution _____
Address _____ Zip _____

Quantity		Amount
_____	POI Specimen Sets (containing test booklet, answer sheets, profile sheet, and manual) at \$3.75 per set	_____
_____	POI manuals at \$2.75 _____ Handbook for the POI at \$12.95	_____
_____	Packages of 25 POI test booklets (reusable) at \$10.50 per package	_____
_____	Packages of POI Hand Scoring Answer Sheets at \$5.75 per package of 50	_____
_____	Packages of POI Hand Scoring Answer Sheets at \$53.00 per package of 500	_____
_____	Packages of POI Computer Scoring Answer Sheets for use with Optical Reader <input type="checkbox"/> IBM 1230 <input type="checkbox"/> Digitek (for EdITS processing) at \$5.50 per 50	_____
_____	Packages of POI Computer Scoring Answer Sheets for use with Optical Reader <input type="checkbox"/> IBM 1230 <input type="checkbox"/> Digitek (for EdITS processing) at \$49.00 per 500	_____
_____	Packages of POI Profile Sheets at \$4.00 per package of 50	_____
_____	Packages of POI Profile Sheets at \$37.50 per package of 500	_____
_____	Sets of POI Hand Scoring Keys for IBM 1230 Sheets at \$10.00 per set	_____
_____	Sets of POI Hand Scoring Keys for Hand Scoring Sheets at \$10.00 per set	_____

Scoring by EdITS: \$0.95 per POI answer sheet in quantity of 49 or less; \$0.85 each for 50 or more.
EdITS POI/021 Digitek answer sheets should be used for processing by EdITS.

All orders are F.O.B. San Diego, California. California orders are subject to 6% State Tax.

Member: ☐ American Psychological Association
☐ American Pers. & Guid. Association
☐ Other: _____

Licensed: ☐ Psychologist
☐ Marriage and Family Counselor

For research applications: Any information which you can provide regarding your research and plans for use of the Inventory will facilitate exchange of information among users of the POI.

Approximate date when findings will be available: _____

I agree to use this Inventory with appropriate precautions, to use only those answer forms and other accessory materials published or authorized by the publisher and to return used answer sheets to EdITS upon request and to make any findings available to EdITS and the author.

Signed _____

Title or Position _____ Date _____

Signature of Sponsoring Member of the American Psychological Association
(required for graduate students): _____

January 28, 1980

Science Research Associates Inc.
259 East Erie Street
Chicago, Illinois
U.S.A. 60611

Dear Sirs:

As a doctoral candidate enrolled at the University of Alberta located in Edmonton, Alberta, Canada, I have become interested in the area of school principal leadership attitude. The "Leadership Opinion Questionnaire" instrument is considered to be appropriate and desirable for my research project.

In recognition of, and with respect for, the copyright laws no use will be made of your instrument without direct and formal consent. Therefore, I am seeking your permission to distribute, collect, and evaluate the findings of this instrument as it pertains to my research project.

I would appreciate a copy of the questionnaire as well as a manual with scoring key should one be available. If a fee is required by the copyright holder, please specify the amount and to whom the cheque should be made out.

I will anxiously await your response by return mail.

Sincerely,

Joe J. Danyluk
11242 - 61 Street
Edmonton, Alberta
Canada
T5W 4A5

/td



SCIENCE RESEARCH ASSOCIATES, INC.
A Subsidiary of IBM

155 North Wacker Drive
Chicago, Illinois 60606
(312) 984-2000
Cable SCIREBUS, Chicago

February 8, 1980

Mr. Joe J. Danyluk
11242 - 61 Street
Edmonton, Alberta T5W 4A5
Canada

Dear Mr. Danyluk:

This will acknowledge receipt of your letter of January 28, 1980 in which you request permission to use the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire by Edwin A. Fleishman as part of your doctorate.

SRA is willing to and hereby does grant you permission to use the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire in your project subject to the following terms and conditions. The permission is for one-time, noncommercial use, for research purposes only and distribution of the test is limited to research applications.

This permission does not allow you to include a copy of this test or any of the individual test items in your thesis--either permanently filed with, bound to or microfilmed. As you know, the LOQ is a secured test and, as such, its distribution is highly restricted in order to limit access to it by the general public.

You may, however, provide a loose copy of this instrument with your thesis for your faculty review. And you may, of course, publish the results of your study, providing you do not include copies of the test items.

SRA's copyright notice, as shown on the original material, must appear on all duplications of the test along with the following credit line:

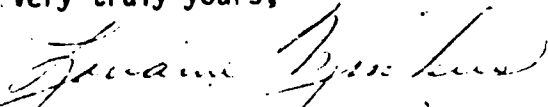
"Reproduced with permission of and by special arrangement
with Science Research Associates, Inc., Chicago, Illinois"

I have enclosed photocopies of the appropriate pages in the SRA Canada catalog which contains ordering information for the LOQ. May I suggest that you contact them to order the material that you will need for your research.

Mr. Joe J. Danyluk
February 8, 1980
Page Two

I thank you for your request and interest in SRA materials. I wish you well in your project and if there is anything more I may do for you, please let me know.

Very truly yours,

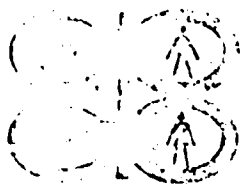


Miss Lorraine Minkus
Rights & Permissions Associate

LM/gw

Enclosures

APPENDIX E
LETTERS AND FORMS PERTAINING
TO STUDY



EDMONTON PUBLIC SCHOOLS¹⁹⁸

10010 - 107A Avenue, Edmonton, Alberta T5H 0Z8. Telephone (403) 429-7111.

March 20, 1980

BOARD OF TRUSTEES

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Mr. W. A. Kiffiak
School Liaison Officer
Division of Field Experiences
University of Alberta
Edmonton, Alberta
T6G 2G5

Dear Mr. Kiffiak:

Re: Research Request "Interrelationships of Secondary
School Principals' Leader Behavior, Leader Attitudes,
and Self-Actualization" - Joe J. Danyluk

The above research request has been approved on a permissive basis following examination by our department and consultation with Mrs. M. Smith, Supervisor Administrative Staffing. The requestor, who is an E.P.S.B. staff member on leave of absence, should directly contact the principals of the schools concerned to determine whether or not they wish to participate in the study and to make the necessary arrangements with the schools which wish to participate.

We would very much appreciate receiving a copy of the results of the study as soon as they are available.

Sincerely,

T. A. Blowers, Ph. D.
Director Research

TAB:jg
Attch.

cc: M. Smith, Principals, Assoc. Superintendents.

March 20, 1980

Dr. T.A. Blowers
Director of Research
Edmonton Public School Board
10010 - 107A Avenue
Edmonton, Alberta

Dear Dr. Blowers:

Thank you for granting me permission to conduct my doctoral research with secondary school principals and teachers in your school system. At our meeting on January 10, 1980 you requested a letter be sent indicating which schools have been selected and approximate time initial contact will be made with each principal.

Attached please find a "Cooperative Activities Program" outlining detailed information of my research including approximate time of principal contact, and a listing of the 27 secondary schools selected for the study.

As indicated at our meeting, a research summary will be forwarded to your office upon completion of the dissertation.

Thank you once again for your assistance and cooperation.

Sincerely,

Joe J. Danyluk
Doctoral Candidate
Educational Administration

/td

COOPERATIVE ACTIVITIES PROGRAM1. Nature of Activity (Check One)

Student Teaching Internship _____ Demonstration/Experimentation _____
Special Practicum _____ Research _____

2. Organization to be Involved

Edmonton Public School System _____ County of Strathcona _____
Edmonton Separate School System _____ St. Albert Protestant/Separate
N.A.I.T. _____ School System _____

3. Requestor (University staff member)

Name _____ Department _____

Telephone _____ Position _____ Date _____

Request made on behalf of _____
(Name)

(Address) (Telephone)

4. Description of Activity - Include title, objectives, procedure, evaluation, techniques, etc.

5. Anticipated value to requestor:

6. Anticipated value to cooperating organization:

7. Estimate of cost (see remuneration guidelines):

8. Suggested personnel, schools and times:

For Office Use Only:

Approved by _____, Field Services Date _____

Approved by _____ Date _____

Subject to the following conditions:

(a) A report of the results of findings of this project is required by the cooperating school system (check one) yes ☐ no ☐

(b) Other

April, 1980

Dear

I am in need of your assistance. Two weeks ago you received an instrument entitled Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire which focused on how you perceived your school principal in the role of leadership. The return of this instrument is necessary to complete my doctoral dissertation study on the relationship that exists with secondary school principals in the dimensions of self-actualization, leadership attitudes and leadership behavior.

The response has been very gratifying. Your completed questionnaire, however, has not been received as yet. In the event you have misplaced the questionnaire, I have left extra copies with your head school secretary along with an envelope for sealing the completed questionnaire. I will be back in one week to hopefully collect the instruments.

Thank you very much for your assistance.

Joe J. Danyluk
Ph.D. Candidate
University of Alberta

/td

FACULTY OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL
ADMINISTRATION



THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA
EDMONTON, CANADA
T6G 2G6

June 16, 1980

SUPERVISORY COMMITTEE

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DOCTORAL RESEARCHER

Joseph J. Danyluk
11242 - 61 Street
Edmonton, Alberta
T5W 4A5
479-4063

Dear,

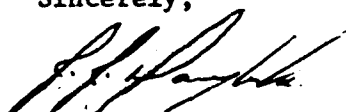
Thank you very much for your participation in my doctoral study on Principals' leadership behavior, leadership attitude, and self-actualization. I hope the time spent completing the questionnaire did not excessively inconvenience you.

Your colleagues were most cooperative. It may interest you to know that of your colleagues responded to the LBDQ instrument on teacher perception of their principal's leadership behavior, for a % return from your school. In total, respondents from 24 secondary schools in the Public School System provided an 85.3% response effort.

The results for your particular school have been shared with your principal. A.T.A. policy and regulations permit me to divulge research findings only to the principal directly involved. As a result, I am unable to provide specific findings related to your school. However, your principal may choose to share results with the staff.

Again, thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,


Joseph J. Danyluk
Ph.D. Candidate