A THEORY OF ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP

FOR CONTEMPORARY EDUCATION

Thesis for the Degree of Ed. D.

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John Lewis Forbes

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This is to certify that the

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A THEORY OF ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP

FOR CONTEMPORARY EDUCATION

By

JOHN LEWIS FORBES

AN ABSTRACT

Submitted to the School for Advanced Graduate Studies of
Michigan State University of Agriculture and
Applied Science in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Department of Administrative and Educational Services

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AN  ABSTRACT                                                JOHN LEWIS FORBES

The purpose of this study was to develop a comprehensive and verifiable theory of administrative leadership for contemporary education which might serve as a general frame of reference for empirical research in this special field. It was assumed that general theories of this sort serve to stimulate research in a given field of inquiry and serve also as a base for relating the results of empirical testing into a logical, internally-consistent body of knowledge.

This inquiry was premised upon an explicit concept of theory which held that (a) a theory begins with an <u>operational definition</u> of an empirical phenomenon, (b) a theory brings a set of <u>relevant</u> <u>assumptions</u> to bear upon the definition, and (c) a theory is constructed by drawing explicit inferences from the assumptions to each part of the definition and casting these inferences in the form of predictions about the nature of the phenomenon defined. It was assumed in this inquiry that theories are never <u>true</u> or <u>false</u>, only <u>useful</u> or <u>not useful</u>, since theorizing ends with the creation of predictions. Utility of a theory depends upon the comprehensiveness of its definition, the relevancy of its assumptions, hence the comprehensiveness of its predictions about the nature of the phenomenon with which it deals. Ultimately, the usefulness of a theory depends upon its capacity to

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The literature of educational administration was used as a base for constructing an operational definition of leadership in this investigation. Selected literary works from perceptual psychology were shown to be relevant to a theory of leadership; hence these were made to serve as a base for deriving a set of assumptions for the theory.

Working from the assumptions that (a) it is possible to construct an operational definition of administrative leadership in education from pertinent research literature which is more comprehensive in its inclusion of relevant aspects of this empirical phenomenon than any of the operational definitions contained in all of the major studies reported in this field to date, (b) that a set of assumptions about human growth and development abstracted from selected work of Prescott Lecky, Donald Snygg and Arthur Combs, and Robert Bills are relevant for theorizing about administrative leadership in contemporary education, it was hypothesized (c) that from a set of assumptions about human growth and development abstracted from selected works of Lecky, Snygg and Combs, and Bills, it is possible to derive at least one prediction about every aspect of administrative leadership in contemporary education that is included in its operational definition. This hypothesis was substantiated upon investigation.

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The theory derived in this study was found to be <u>useful</u> in terms of some of the criteria for utility assumed at the outset of the inquiry. Even so the theory had a number of limitations which detracted from its usefulness. These suggested ways in which a more useful theory can be built;using pertinent research literature as a base for defining leadership in education, for example, resulted in theoretical predictions which were too abstract to be of real use to educational administrators and professors of educational administration. The assumptions from perceptual psychology also appeared to be limited in scope. It seemed reasonable to suppose that a more useful theory of administrative leadership for education could be constructed by (a) defining this phenomenon on the basis of problems of administration perceived by administrators, other people involved in educational systems, and by teachers of educational administration; (b) by utilizing a set of assumptions that were broadly inclusive of knowledge about human behavior integrated from the several social sciences; and (c) by employing the intelligence and energy of all interested researchers in theory construction through a central research organization rather than to build a theory through the efforts of one individual.

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CHAPTER I

AN OVERVIEW OF THE PROBLEM

The purpose of this study was to develop a comprehensive and

verifiable theory of administrative leadership for contemporary

education which might help to increase our store of organized

knowledge about administration in America's educational enterprise.

From the outset of this inquiry a main concern was to construct a

general frame of reference--a way of looking at the phenomenon of

administrative leadership in education in its broadest, most inclusive

detail. A comprehensive and verifiable theory, as the phrase is

being used here, is actually a foundation conception or a scheme of

ideas which can serve as a base for generalizing about the results of

empirical investigations of all kinds in the area of administrative

leadership in education. General theories of this sort are designed

to impose an order upon a universe of inquiry so that subsequent

research within that universe can separate superstition and belief

from laws and principles through the process of empirical verification,

and so that the laws and principles which are discovered can be unified

into a logical, internally-consistent body of knowledge.

The need for a comprehensive and verifiable theory of administrative

leadership in contemporary education has been apparent for several years

and, according to researchers in this field, is important for a better understanding of educational administration. In the past five or six years, a number of national organizations have combined their efforts to press for a better understanding of administrative leadership in education through empirical research. The American Association of School Administrators, the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration, and the Kellogg Foundation together have stimulated and financed a great number of research studies of educational leadership in the last half decade. These studies have been conducted through cooperative programs of research in educational administration. The CPEA projects, as the programs are called, are coordinated by eight regional centers across the United States. Research efforts in these centers have involved expenditures of several million dollars. In each CPEA region numerous institutions of higher learning, other interested organizations, and many individuals have contributed time and energy to advance systematic inquiry in this special empirical field.

A central objective of CPEA research has been to upgrade the professional performance of practicing educational administrators. To achieve this objective CPEA study efforts are presently being extended on three fronts. One line of study is concerned with upgrading present administrative leader practice through in-service training. A second line of study is concerned with improving programs of instruction for students of educational administration. A third line of study, which some investigators believe underlies the success of inquiry on all of these fronts, is the development of a universally applicable theory of

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administrative leadership for contemporary education.

Several scholars of administrative leadership in education have stated that intelligent inquiry into the problem of leadership demands initially that an acceptable theory of administrative leadership be devised which is grounded upon empirically validated facts. Hollis Moore, Jr.,[2] speaking for the American Association of School Administrators, emphasizes this point. He claims that the natural next step from schematic approaches to research in school administration is the development of a theory. Current research projects in administration by Kellogg grants have a theory in mind. The term, theory, in this context is nothing more than a set of rules for doing the job--rules which connect action taken with results achieved. Moore maintains that administrators gradually and instinctively develop their own theories on the job, but a systematic set of principles which can be taught in the preparation programs of administration students would be a valuable professional contribution.

Daniel Griffiths,[3] speaking for the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration, and for many others associated with CPEA

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[1]Hollis A. Moore, Jr., Studies in School Administration: A Report on the CPEA (Washington, D. C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1957), pp. 12-23.

[2]Ibid., p. 29.

[3]Daniel Griffiths, "Toward A Theory of Administrative Behavior," Administrative Behavior in Education, ed. Roald F. Campbell and Russell T. Gregg (New York: Harper & Bros., 1957), p. 388.

leadership research projects, reaffirms Moore's position. Griffiths points out that the great task of science has been to impose an _order_ upon the universe. Kepler's laws, for instance, impose a set of relationships upon the planets of the solar system. Within this framework of laws, the motions of the planets make sense. Their positions can be predicted through this frame of reference, and order is apparent to all who care to look for it. He contends that the great task of students of administrative leadership in education is to develop a theory of administrative behavior that will make it possible to relate what appear to be discrete administrative acts to one another in a unified concept. Within a set of principles, yet to be formulated, it will then be possible to recognize interrelationships among apparently discrete administrative acts; and it will be possible to predict the behavior of the administrative leader within the framework of educational organization. Griffiths goes on to say that with a theory of administrative leadership—a set of principles and laws which are universally acceptable—it will be possible to make decisions that will result in a more efficient and effective educational enterprise. Subsequent research into administrative leadership in education will also have more meaning because it will be directed toward the solution of definite problems, there will be clearer definitions, and research efforts will be coordinated by, and will contribute to, the whole conception of administration. Administrative leadership will be more easily understood when viewed against a standard frame of reference because it will use concepts that have the same meaning to all in the profession.

Andrew W. Halpin,[4] another spokesman for the National Council of

Professors of Educational Administration and others associated with

CPEA leadership research projects, maintains that we do not have a

universally acceptable theory of administrative leadership in education

now for a number of specific reasons. Halpin says that we have failed

to recognize the importance of theory in leadership research and have

relied too heavily upon naked empiricism. Not only have we imputed

too much significance to facts per se, we have used the term theory

with descriptive glibness, used it naively, and have betrayed a limited

knowledge of the technique of theory construction in science. A theory,

as Halpin defines it, is more than a conglomerate of facts or of common

sense speculations. A theory must possess specified logical properties

and must be internally consistent so that we can generate fruitful,

testable hypotheses from it which enable us to predict events in the

real world with more accuracy. According to Halpin we have directed a

disproportionate amount of research energy to ad hoc problems and

peripheral studies rather than to central investigations which yield

conclusions of broad generalizability. Flights from theory and preoccupa-

tion with immediate practical problems have made our research episodic

rather than programmatic and have stunted our capacity for research

growth. He says that the same difficulty permeates all spheres of

science today. A new awakening, particularly in the physical sciences,

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[4]Andrew W. Halpin, "A Paradigm for Research on Administrator
Behavior," Administrative Behavior in Education, ed. Roald F. Campbell
and Russell T. Gregg (New York: Harper & Bros., 1957), pp. 197-98.

is directing more and more energy into basic research; and we need a similar long-range program of basic research in educational administration. Halpin also contends that students of administrative leadership in education have been too parochial in their research outlook. Their infatuation with the uniqueness of educational administration has often blinded them to problems that educational administration shares with all other forms of administration. They have also been parochial in not drawing upon the resources of such other disciplines as the social sciences, personnel administration, and political science. Nor have they progressed far in incorporating the insights and techniques of the social sciences into their own research methodologies. Finally, Halpin points out that researchers in administrative leadership in education have failed to define their concepts clearly--they lack precision. Many have not learned the lessons that general semanticists have tried to teach them; as a result they have persisted in using concepts which have no clear referents in administrative leader behavior.

Again, Griffiths[5] states that we need a special kind of theory for researching administrative leadership in education. He insists that a list of principles is not necessarily a theory of adequate design. A good theory exists when there has been established a set of principles upon which action may be predicted. Principles of this kind give form to observations and constitute a logical and consistent whole, particularly is this so when the principles have been organized around a single theme

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[5]Griffiths, Op. Cit., pp. 359-60.

or a small number of themes. Griffiths says that an adequate theory attempts to state in one general form the results of the observations of many different researchers. In addition to this, an adequate theory starts with observations in the form of facts which already have been made. Facts are the basis of theory as well as the result.

Researchers in the Southern States CPEA,[6] however, conclude that a theory of administrative leadership in education, reduced to its simplest terms, is no more than a collection of concepts or principles that define what administrative leadership is. These concepts and principles give direction to an individual attempting to be an educational administrator.

Melby,[7] on the other hand, maintains that specialists in educational administration need to work closely with educational administrators and community leaders if their own leadership in improving our concepts and practice of administration are to have reality and dynamism. Armchair research, as Melby labels it, will not suffice to meet current research needs. Our new concepts of administration will not be hammered out on the campus of the university but in the crucible of community life and education.

It is apparent from the views of these scholars that the construction of a comprehensive and verifiable theory of administrative leadership in

[6] Southern States Cooperative Program in Educational Administration, Better Teaching in School Administration (Nashville, Tenn.: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1955), p. 47.

[7] Ernest O. Melby, Administering Community Education (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955), p. 309.

education would help those who are interested in understanding educational administration through the vehicle of empirical research. Most of the individuals above are speaking for national organizations that have taken the initiative to stimulate research in educational administration, a fact which adds significance to comments about their need for a general theory.

If these scholars appear to be in agreement about the need for a general theory of leadership, however, they surely do not appear to agree on what such a theory is, what it should do, or how it should be constructed. Some researchers seem to believe that a theory of administration should be a logical formulation of ideas and beliefs from which testable hypotheses may be generated. A somewhat different point of view appears to maintain that a theory is a framework of laws and principles which reduces the confusion of a natural phenomenon to some sort of intelligible order, and that a good theory of this kind incorporates principles upon which administrator action may be predicted.

Another notion is that a theory merely serves as a set of rules for doing the job of administering education, providing the rules set forth connect actions taken with results achieved in educational administration.

Still another concept claims that a theory in this field is no more than a collection of principles that define what leadership is which, in turn, give direction to practicing administrators.

Halpin implies in his comments cited above that the task of theory construction is primarily the responsibility of disciplined scholars and

researchers. Moore, Griffiths, and researchers in the Southern

States CPEA, however, appear prone to employ the intelligence of prac-

ticing administrators in formulating a theory of leadership. Melby,

meanwhile, seems to advocate enlisting an even broader base of community

intelligence in the theory building task.

If these differing beliefs about the nature of theory and theory

construction are indicative of the thinking of researchers in this field,

then it seems reasonable to conclude that the nature and function of

theory in empirical research of educational administration are presently

undefined. It follows reasonably from this that an attempt to theorize

about administrative leadership at this time would probably be more

widely understood if it began with a definition of theory and a rather

explicit concept of the art of theorizing.

Before proceeding with an overview of this study, it is important

then to define and explain the term theory as it was employed in this

investigation, for within the confines of such a definition lies the key

to understanding what is to follow in subsequent chapters of this paper.

### The Nature of Theory[8]

People often think of a theory as existing in opposition to facts.

A theory, it is commonly held, is an unsubstantiated hypothesis or

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[8]In formulating a definition and explanation of theory for this
study, the investigator is indebted to Calvin S. Hall and Gardiner
Lindsey for a penetrating discussion of the subject in their recent
book, Theories of Personality (New York: Wiley Press, 1957). He has
borrowed generously here from their thinking.

speculation concerning reality which has not yet been proven so. When

a theory is confirmed it becomes a fact. As the term theory is used

in this paper, it partially embraces both of these ideas. That is to

say theories are not known to be true. On the other hand, theories

do not become true or factual when confirmed by appropriate data either.

A theory is no more than a set of conventions created by a theorist

which embody predictions about the nature of an empirical phenomenon.

It was assumed in this study that theories are never true or false,

although their implications or derivations may be either. We might

easily compare the work of the theorist with that of the poet or novelist.

Experiences or observations may lead a literary artist to create any one

of a multitude of different art forms, while the data from investigation

may be incorporated by the theorist in any number of different theoretical

schemes. The theorist, in choosing a particular set of conventions to

represent the events in which he is interested, exercises a free creative

choice that differs from the artist's only in the kinds of data upon

which it focuses and in the grounds upon which its fruitfulness will be

judged. It follows from this that we can specify how a theory should

be evaluated or appraised, but we cannot specify how a theory should be

constructed. Just as there is no formula in existence for making enduring

literary contributions, so there is no formula in existence for fruitful

theory construction.

The fact that a theory stems from conventional choice, rather than

from something that is inevitable or prescribed by known empirical

relations, leads to the assumption that attributes of truth or falsity

are inappropriately ascribed to a theory. Theories are never true or

false. Theories are only <u>useful or not useful</u>; and these qualities

are defined very largely in terms of how efficiently a given theory

can generate predictions or propositions concerning particular events

which turn out to be verified in the world of reality.

Reduced to its basic elements, a theory consists of a set of

empirical definitions regarding a specific phenomenon and a cluster of

logically-consistent, interrelated assumptions which are relevant to

the phenomenon that has been defined. The latter is used as a base for

deriving predictions which pertain to various aspects of the definition,

and which thereby give potential new knowledge about the phenomenon in

question. By means of empirical definitions of specific phenomena,

theories come into definite contact with reality or observational data

at explicit, prescribed places. That is why empirical definitions are

sometimes called <u>operational definitions</u>. They attempt to specify

operations by which relevant variables or concepts can be measured. If

a theory is eventually to make a contribution in an empirical discipline,

it must possess some means for empirical translation--it must, in short,

start from a specifically defined empirical phenomenon. The assumptions,

meanwhile, which are brought to bear upon an operational definition

within a theory must be relevant to the phenomenon in question. The

assumptions in a theory of audition, for example, must have something

to do with the process of hearing; and a theory of perception must utilize

assumptions which bear upon the perceptual process. It goes almost without

saying, that the assumptions within a theory should be stated clearly also.

Given a specifically defined empirical phenomenon, then, and a set of clearly-stated, relevant assumptions, it is possible to combine definition and assumptions together through inference to generate predictions so that empirical consequences can be extracted from a theory. This process of prediction-making through inference is defined here as the art of theory construction. The notion has been employed as a fundamental guideline at every turn in this investigation.

What does a theory do? Generally speaking, it leads to the collection or observation of relevant empirical relations which have not yet been made about a specific phenomenon. A theory also facilitates the incorporation of known empirical findings about a particular phenomenon within a logically consistent and reasonably simple framework. Thus, it imposes an organization or an order upon a universe of inquiry which in turn functions as a set of blinders; for it tells a researcher in the field with which the theory deals that it is unnecessary for him to worry about all of the aspects of the event he is studying. In this way, a theory permits the observer to go about abstracting from the natural complexity of a phenomenon in a systematic and efficient manner. Abstract and simplify he will, whether he uses a theory or not, but if he is not guided by an explicit frame of reference, it is very likely that the principles determining his view will be hidden in implicit assumptions and attitudes of which he is unaware.

Ideally, a theory leads to a systematic expansion of knowledge in a given field of inquiry, and this expansion is stimulated by deriving from a theory discrete predictions which are subject to empirical test. It is assumed here that the core of any growing science, administrative leadership in education not withstanding, lies in the discovery of stable empirical relationships between events or variables within it, and a basic function of any theory is really to further this process in a systematic manner. Think of a theory as a kind of proposition mill, grinding our related empirical statements which can later be confirmed or rejected in the light of suitably controlled empirical data. But remember, it is only the predictions derived from a theory that are open to empirical test. The theory, itself, is assumed. Acceptance or rejection of a theory must be determined by its <u>utility</u>, not by its truth or falsity.

Broken into its component parts the utility or usefulness of a theory embraces both <u>comprehensiveness</u> and <u>verifiability</u>. A theory will be useful to the extent that it deals comprehensively with a particular empirical phenomenon. In this context, comprehensiveness refers to the scope or completeness of the predictions which are derived from a theory, and this capacity, in actuality, depends upon the completeness of the empirical definition from which a theory begins and the relevancy of its assumptions. Relevancy of the assumptions, in turn, refers to the extent that explicit inferences can be drawn from the assumptions to each aspect of the phenomenon that is incorporated in the operational definition. We might have a theory which generated consequences

that were often confirmed but which dealt with only a few aspects of a certain phenomenon because both the empirical definition and the relevancy of its assumptions were limited in scope. Such a theory would not, ordinarily, be as useful for extending knowledge in a field of inquiry as a theory that generated accurate predictions,dealt very generally or inclusively with the empirical events it purported to encompass, and achieved thoroughness in drawing inferences from its assumptions to its operational definition.

Since theories are attempts to formulate or represent significant aspects of phenomena which appear in the world of reality so that human knowledge may be extended, the usefulness of theories must be judged very largely in terms of how effectively they serve as a spur to research. A theory will be useful to the extent that it generates predictions which are found accurate and true when tested in the world of reality. Perhaps the supreme test for the usefulness of any theory is its verifiability--the capacity of a theory to generate predictions which are confirmed when relevant empirical data are collected and evaluated. It is probably safe to say that any theory in any field of inquiry which does not produce verifiable predictions will eventually be rejected and discarded as thinking men pursue the task of extending human knowledge, because theories of this sort are <u>not useful</u>.

## A Chapter Outline

From this brief discussion of the nature of theory, it is possible to extract several important ideas about the art of theory construction as it was applied in this study. Beginning with these ideas as criteria, it is easy to explain the logic behind the presentation in each chapter of this paper which deals with the theory building task, proper. Knowing beforehand what each of these chapters contains, as well as why each is organized in its own peculiar fashion, will help the reader ultimately in appraising the value of this entire project. Let us begin with the premise that theories are either useful or not useful. With this point of view for a backdrop we can sketch a number of desirable characteristics to be incorporated in any theory:

1. A useful theory starts from a comprehensive operational definition of a specific empirical phenomenon.

2. A useful theory utilizes a set of assumptions which are relevant to the empirical phenomenon in question.

3. A useful theory generates predictions about the nature of this empirical phenomenon which previously were unknown, and it does so by drawing explicit inferences from the assumptions and applying them to particular aspects of the operational definition.

4. A useful theory incorporates its predictions into a logically consistent and reasonably simple framework.

5. A useful theory must be evaluated in terms of its capacity to generate a comprehensive set of predictions about an empirical phenomenon, and this capacity is dependent upon the completeness of a particular theory's operational definition and the relevancy of its assumptions--the extent to which explicit inferences can be drawn from the assumptions to each aspect of the phenomenon that is incorporated in the operational definition.

6. A useful theory must be evaluated in terms of its
   ability to stimulate research in any field of inquiry.

7. A useful theory must be evaluated in terms of its
   ability to generate predictions about a given
   empirical phenomenon which are verifiable when tested
   with appropriate empirical data from the world of
   reality.

Now, let us see how these criteria have been applied in component

parts of this paper which are actually devoted to the task of building

a theory of administrative leadership for contemporary education.

Chapter II, "A Review of the Literature," aims, primarily, to demonstrate

the reasonableness of the assumption that it is possible to construct

an operational definition of administrative leadership in education

which is more comprehensive in its inclusion of relevant aspects of this

empirical phenomenon than any of the operational definitions contained

in all of the major studies reported in this field to date. Thus, one

specific task of Chapter II is to analyze and evaluate the research

literature of educational administration which bears upon administrative

leadership in education. On the basis of such a review it is possible

to ascertain which aspects of this empirical phenomenon are dealt with

in each investigation. Then, by determining the extent to which each

study or group of studies deals with a composite of those aspects which

are included in all of the studies as a whole, we can determine whether

any existing studies cover all aspects of administrative leadership as

it is presently known by researchers in educational administration. If

not, then it seems logical to assume that a more comprehensive definition

of administrative leadership in education can be devised at the present

time. As it turns out, this study reveals that none of the investigations in this field to date have incorporated all of the known aspects of administrative leadership in the theories which lie behind them. Consequently, a second task of Chapter II is to devise a new, comprehensive, operational definition of administrative leadership for contemporary education. This, according to the concept of theory employed in the investigation, is the starting point of a useful theory. The reader will find that an operational definition for the theory reported in this paper was devised by integrating all of the aspects of administrative leadership which were explicitly or implicitly employed in previous investigations, then by explaining the function of each of these aspects in the work-a-day world of contemporary education.

A third task of Chapter II is to determine the bases upon which a relevant set of assumptions might be selected for theorizing about administrative leadership in education. Again remember, a useful theory must bring a set of relevant assumptions to bear upon its operational definition. A solution to the problem of what constitutes a set of assumptions relevant to administrative leadership has been approached in this study by seeking to isolate the major forces which appear to have motivated previous research in educational administration. It seems logical that the motivations underlying research in any field of inquiry might give clues as to what assumptions are relevant for theorizing in that field. Pursuing this approach to identify relevant assumptions, it becomes reasonably clear that a desire to understand better the implications for education of the relativity of individual

perceptions is one force motivating research. A desire to modify

education so that it functions in accordance with a philosophy which

puts positive value on human growth and development is giving direction

to research in administrative leadership as well.

These two forces then--a desire to implement through education a

philosophy which puts positive value on human growth and development,

and a desire to understand better the implications for education of the

relativity of human perceptions--are taken at the end of Chapter II as

the primary bases for selecting a set of assumptions which are relevant

to the phenomenon of administrative leadership in contemporary education.

Chapter III, "Methods of Study," is designed primarily to

demonstrate that a set of assumptions about human growth and development

abstracted from selected works of Prescott Lecky, Donald Snygg and

Arthur Combs, and Robert Bills are relevant for theorizing about adminis-

trative leadership in contemporary education.    The reader will find in

this chapter a brief history of man's concern with understanding human

perception. The historical discussion touches upon the highlights of

this topic from classical antiquity to the present time. We discover

in this discussion that when psychology broke away from moral philosophy

it pursued two general avenues of inquiry. On the one hand, some

psychologists followed earlier empiricists. Their efforts have led to

an experimental psychology which places high value upon empirical testing

and normative approaches to understanding particular aspects of human

behavior. Modern studies of human perception conducted in this vein

focus, for the most part, upon the physiological aspects of human sensation.

On the other hand, some psychologists retained a philosophical bent
in their work. They place reliance upon the assumption that human
behavior is best understood when viewed as a whole phenomenon. The
study of perception in this approach to psychological inquiry has
produced a frame of reference for theoretical explanations and empirical
investigations of human behavior known as the personal, perceptual
point of view. Individual perception is their unique frame of reference
for understanding human behavior.

Selected works of Prescott Lecky, Donald Snygg and Arthur Combs,
and Robert Bills have been singled out as a base for abstracting a
set of assumptions to be used in theory construction here because their
works put primary emphasis upon the relativity of human perception. They
employ the personal, perceptual point of view. And of all the major
studies which have employed this approach to understanding human behavior,
only in some of the works of these scholars is there a central ambition
to conceptualize broadly upon the nature of human growth and development.

An attempt has been made in Chapter III to state clearly the
assumptions which these perceptual theorists use to explain human growth
and development. The reader will find that each assumption set forth
in this part of the paper has been singled out and italicized. Many of
them are accompanied by an explanation of their meaning. At the close
of the chapter, the assumptions and their corollaries are summarized
in a single Philosophy of Human Growth and Development so that confusion
about their meaning can be avoided.

Chapter IV contains the actual theory of administrative leadership
for contemporary education derived from this investigation. The predictions

which comprise the theory are organized under three broad headings or dimensions--Research into Theoretical Foundations for Understanding Administrative Leadership, Research into Effective Practices of Administrative Leaders, and Research into Effective Instruction of Leader Trainees. These three dimensions constitute a reasonably simple framework and have been employed because national efforts to improve our understanding of administrative leadership in education through empirical research, as we saw earlier in this chapter, have advanced inquiry in the same three areas of the field--in theory, in practice, and in instruction.

The reader will also find in Chapter IV that each of the aspects of administrative leadership in education contained in its operational definition, which is presented first in Chapter II, have been placed under one of the three general dimensions in Chapter IV that seems most appropriate for it. Hence, the general dimensions with their accompanying aspects of the definition serve as a structural framework for the entire theory. It is a rather straight-forward task from there to derive inferences from the set of assumptions in Chapter III which apply to component parts of the structure in Chapter IV. These inferences have led to the construction of predictions about the nature of administrative leadership in education. The predictions are presented in the form of hypotheses and corollaries and actually comprise the content of the theory. Here and there in Chapter IV some attempt has been made to explain how the task of verifying some of these hypotheses might be approached. This is done deliberately to encourage research on them in the future.

A basic purpose of Chapter IV is to test the working hypothesis that from a set of assumptions about human growth and development abstracted from selected works of Prescott Lecky, Donald Snygg and Arthur Combs, and Robert Bills it is possible to derive at least one prediction about every aspect of administrative leadership in contemporary education that is included in its comprehensive operational definition. The reader will learn in the conclusions of this paper that the working hypothesis is substantiated.

## On Evaluating the Theory

We said earlier that a theory must be evaluated in terms of its usefulness rather than in terms of its truth or falsity. The theory of administrative leadership for contemporary education presented in Chapter IV purports to be useful. It bases its claim of usefulness on the grounds that: (a) it begins with a comprehensive operational definition of administrative leadership in education; (b) it employs a set of relevant assumptions; (c) for every aspect of administrative leadership defined, it has been possible to generate at least one explicit prediction from this set of assumptions; (d) predictions within the theory, therefore, are relevant to all of the component parts of administrative leadership in education as we presently know it through research literature; and (e) the comprehensiveness of these predictions increases the likelihood that the theory will stimulate future research in administrative leadership, particularly is this so since the text of the theory, itself, embodies some discussion of ways to approach testing many of the predictions.

The supreme test for the usefulness of a theory--its verifiability--has not been attempted in this study. Admittedly, this imposes a serious limitation on evaluating the usefulness of any theory. But theorizing and testing, as we saw earlier, are two distinct chores. Since the purpose of this project was to design a general theory of administrative leadership for contemporary education, which in itself is an imposing job, the whole domain of testing theoretical predictions has been delimited as hopelessly beyond the realm of possibility here. When the reader has finished with this paper, perhaps he will agree that an enormous amount of time, money, people, energy, and organizational resources will be required if we are to deal in adequate fashion with the problems of instrumenting empirical research to verify a general theory in this field of inquiry.

## A Final Word

Before concluding these introductory comments, it is wise to make sure that the reader and the investigator are viewing in the same perspective the phenomenon with which this study deals. Throughout this paper we should think of administrative leaders as those people who are employed in positions of high status and authority in educational systems above the faculty level--those people who are commonly called educational administrators, i.e., superintendents; principals; directors or managers of various aspects of an educational operation such as curriculum, business, transportation, housing, etc.; college presidents, deans; department heads, counselors; placement officers; and the like.

We should think of contemporary education as embracing all of the
deliberate learning activities of today that are performed by all of
our formal organizations which are established, in whole or in part,
for the purpose of performing them.  Since this study aimed to construct
a general theory of administrative leadership for contemporary education,
no attempt is made in these pages to single out schools, or colleges,
or institutes, or any other type of educational organization as the
only one to which the theory applies.  On the contrary, a general theory
of administrative leadership in education, by virtue of its general
nature, applies to all species of educational organization within the
genus of our formal educational enterprise.

And now we are ready to embark on a theory building venture.

# CHAPTER II

## REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

### The Need for a General Theory

We have said in the previous chapter that the first task in building a useful theory of administrative leadership for contemporary education is to construct an operational definition of this total empirical phenomenon, since comprehensiveness in any theory's definition is a significant measure of its ultimate usefulness. Constructing such an operational definition of administrative leadership in education is a central objective of this chapter. However, to construct an operational definition of any empirical phenomenon, and to embark on a theory building venture, presupposes that existing theories which deal with that phenomenon are inadequate in their comprehensiveness. Is this actually the case in the field of administrative leadership in education? Are the theoretical rationales which lie behind existing studies of educational leadership lacking in comprehensiveness? Are they, therefore, limited in their usefulness?

In order to answer these questions accurately, let us begin this chapter with an analysis of the research literature which deals with administrative leadership in education. From such an analysis we can

determine the scope and character of this sort of leadership as it is

presently understood by researchers, and we can pin-point with clarity

those aspects of the total phenomenon which are dealt with in each of

the individual studies reported in the field. From there we can

ascertain whether more aspects of leadership are actually known than

any one of the individual studies embraces. And if we find that this

is so, we may assume that a new, more comprehensive theory of adminis-

trative leadership in education is desirable at the present time.

At that point we can deal in earnest with the problem of constructing

an operational definition of leadership which is more comprehensive in

its inclusion of relevant aspects of that subject than are other studies

reported in the field. As a matter of fact, we will be armed by then

with an understanding of the scope of administrative leadership through

an acquaintance with its various aspects or dimensions which are

described in the research literature. Such an understanding, as we

shall see later on in this chapter, is essential for the construction

of a comprehensive operational definition.

### Trends in the Study of Administrative Leadership in Education

The Traits Approach.—-Early twentieth century studies of adminis-

trative leadership in education, like studies of the period in other

areas of administrative inquiry, focused attention upon leader traits

to explain the effectiveness of administrative leaders. Weber and

Weber[9] point out the general public belief, that leaders were born not made, was of such import due to its long historical presence in Western culture as to preclude the study of leadership per se until about the turn of the twentieth century. When the realization gradually dawned that leaders could be made, it was natural to turn to leading personalities, and an explanation of how they performed, in order to devise bases for leader training.

An analysis of 12 studies[10] related to the field of administrative leadership in education which were conducted from 1926 through 1955 revealed that administrative leadership could be explained in at least three ways using the traits approach. Traits of intelligence and knowledge were seen as one explanation. Traits of physical characteristics provided another. Traits related to sociopsychological factors comprised the third.

A main virtue of the early studies of administrative leadership which employed the traits approach lies in the fact that they did call attention to the possibility that leaders could be made. There are, however, several weaknesses to the traits approach as a satisfactory explanation of administrative leader phenomena. For example, after making an extensive study of the research pertaining to leadership traits,

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[9]C. A. Weber and Mary E. Weber, Fundamentals of Educational Leadership (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1955), pp. 34, 37-38, 45, 48.

[10]A specific citation of these sources is included in the Appendix of this paper under the heading, "The Traits Approach."

Bird[11] concluded that only 5 per cent of the discovered characteristics were actually common to the research he examined. Gouldner[12] presents five important criticisms of the traits concept of leadership as follows:  (1) lists of personal qualities or traits which have been suggested by writers are not accompanied by any suggestion with respect to the relative importance of any one trait; (2) in lists of personal qualities or traits, some qualities or traits are not mutually exclusive; (3) lists of traits of leadership usually do not present any intimation concerning whether traits are essential to ascend to positions of leadership, essential to maintenance of leadership, or essential to maintaining status without furnishing leadership; (4) lists of traits or characteristics are largely descriptive; there is little or no attention given to how such traits were acquired, and it is, therefore, assumed that they are inherent in the particular individual, while actually they may have been acquired; and (5) the traits assigned to leadership have been developed, to a large extent, in terms of particular leaders.

The Situational Approach.--Limitations of the traits approach to understanding leadership led some investigators back to the situation in educational systems for further clues to leader effectiveness. Hence the second wave of administrative leadership research in education is characterized by a situational approach to leader phenomena. An analysis

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[11]Charles Bird, Social Psychology (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1940).

[12]Alvin W. Gouldner (ed.), Studies in Leadership (New York: Harper & Bros., 1950), pp. 23-45.

of 55 studies[13] conducted from 1942 through 1956 into the situational factors affecting administrative leadership in education revealed that four critical areas of concern existed. The uniqueness of communities was a factor affecting administrative leadership, as were differences in boards of education and in school organization. A fourth situational factor was that conflicting expectations are faced by administrative leaders in educational enterprises.

On the basis of his analysis of literature relating to situational factors in educational administration, Campbell[14] is able to derive a number of generalizations. He concludes that there are many complex variables in each school-community situation as follows:

1. Communities, boards, faculties, and the profession often see the administrator in quite different perspective.

2. Within each of these groups there are also complex varieties of perspective.

3. Each school community situation would appear to be in some ways unique.

4. In each schools community major decisions are made by a few top policy makers.

5. The leadership group tends to reflect community values in their basic decisions.

6. Citizens generally have but little information and tend to be apathetic about school matters.

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[13]A specific citation of these sources is included in the Appendix of this paper under the heading, "The Situational Approach."

[14]Roald F. Campbell, "Situational Factors in Educational Administration," Administrative Behavior in Education, ed., Roald F. Campbell and Russell T. Gregg (New York: Harper & Bros., 1957), pp. 261-263.

7. Administrators are faced with multiple and con-
   flicting expectations.

8. Morale or job satisfaction in a school organization
   depends to a large extent upon similar role expecta-
   tions of teachers and administrators.

9. High morale may or may not be related to productivity
   or effective teaching.

10. Similarity in role expectations between citizens and
    administrators, and school board members and adminis-
    trators is necessary to the success of administrators.

11. For the most part, exact ways by which situational
    variables affect administrative behavior have yet to
    be documented.

The strength of the _situational_ approach to understanding adminis-

trative leadership in education appears to reside in the fact that these

studies have called attention to many important factors in addition to

leader traits which affect administrator performance. Thus, students

of educational administration, through their acquaintance with studies

of this kind, have become aware of other ways to view, and perhaps to

better understand, administrative leader phenomena.

The Organismic Approach.--Discontented with the limitations of

the _situational_ and _traits_ approaches to leader inquiry, and influenced

by Gestault, field, and perceptual psychology, many scholars have sought

to devise an organismic or "holistic" approach to understanding adminis-

trative leadership in education.[15] Paul Mort[16] was one of the first to

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[15]Cf. Truman M. Pierce and E. C. Merrill, Jr., "The Individual
and Administrator Behavior," Administrative Behavior in Education, ed.,
Roald F. Campbell and Russell T. Gregg (New York: Harper & Bros., 1957),
p. 334.

[16]Paul Mort, Principles of School Administration (New York:
McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1946).

use this approach to explain effective administrator performance. He constructed a philosophy of administration—a value theory—which sought to square effective leader performance with concepts of growth and development enunciated by John Dewey and others. Mort's philosophy was organized around three fundamental principles. One of these principles was adaptability—the ability of the educational administrator to adjust to new and developing needs or to new insights into methods of meeting old needs. A second principle was flexibility—the ability to achieve recognized ends with due regard to differences in situations and the individuals involved. The third principle was stability—the ability to look to the good in the old. In this context stability connoted freedom from upsetting change within the educational system; it did not oppose change. Stability counseled evolution as opposed to revolution. A great many individual studies which were conducted from about 1940 to 1950 went into the making of the Mort philosophy of school administration. These studies are reported elsewhere in this paper.[17]

The strength of the Mort philosophy lies in the fact that it sought to explain educational leadership as arising from administrators with unique personal qualities who perform in unique social situations. This work was clearly an attempt to conceptualize upon the task of educational administration as a "whole" phenomenon. In a way it served to broach the gap between the traits and situational approaches to leader inquiry mentioned above. The Mort philosophy also sought to explain the function

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[17]A specific citation of these sources is included in the Appendix of this paper under the heading, "A Value Theory."

of the administrative leader in terms of his responsibilities to his

educational system and to society as a whole.

Another early use of the <u>organismic</u> approach to the study of

administrative leadership in education is to be found in the Denver

study which was conducted from 1949 to 1952 and reported in several

studies over the course of these four years.[18] This study, involving

members of the Denver, Colorado, public school staff and two consultants

from the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation of

Teachers College, Columbia University, was one of the first to develop

a rationale for administrative leader performance which could be

tested in action.[19] The Denver study employed an inductive approach

to the problem of educational leadership, and since time was limited,

only preliminary results were achieved. However, the study did show

that most administrative behavior can be explained as an attempt on the

part of the administrator to achieve or preserve integrity and maintain

or enhance self-esteem, particularly as this behavior involves relations

with others. The study showed also that administrative performance is

determined by the individual administrator's perceptions of the total

educational situation and its requirements upon him at any given point

in time. At the time of action, the administrator does what seems

justified by his view of the situation. In general, people react

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[18]A specific citation of these sources is included in the <u>Appendix</u>
of this paper under the heading, "The Denver Study."

[19]Gordon N. Mackenzie, Stephen M. Corey, and Associates, <u>Instruc-
tional Leadership</u> (New York: Teachers College, Columbia Univ., 1954),
pp. 48-51.

differently to the same situation because each person's perception of

the situation differs from that of the others. However, most people

feel satisfaction when they realize that their perceptions and

consequent behavior are considered correct by other members of the

group or groups to which they want to belong. Finally,this study

attempted to show that changed perceptions lead to changed behavior.

At the outset, the Denver study focused on leader performance

rather than on administrative structure and processes in an effort to

determine what makes a good school system function the way it does.

This point of view was sustained throughout the study. The approach

used in the Denver project may have set a pattern for much of the

leadership research that has followed, for there has been an increasing

tendency to focus on leader performance rather than on the structural

aspects of administration in this problem area ever since.

A unified conception or frame of reference for viewing adminis-

trative leadership in education was developed about 1954 in the CPEA

project conducted by the Middle Atlantic region.[20] This organismic

approach to the problem of leadership sought to encompass all essential

elements of educational administration into a three-dimensional concept--

the Job, the Man and the Social Setting. The Job included tasks and

responsibilities, varying in importance and emphasis as time passed, and

encompassed all that was relevant to the administration of schools. The

[20]Resource Manual 1, revised, A Developing Concept of the Super-intendency of Education (Albany, N.Y.: Cooperative Development of Public School Administration, 1954). This source is included in the Appendix of this paper under the heading, "A Field Theory."

Man brought to the Job his beliefs, value expectations, behavior patterns, energy reserves and skills. These served to shape the job while the job was shaping these things in him. The Social Setting encompassed the pressures and compulsions of society which establish and set limits for the Job. The Social Setting influenced the thinking of the Man and set values by which he adjusted himself and was judged.

Criterion Measures.--There have been a number of recent efforts to devise ways of measuring leader performance through checklists of agreed upon effective leader practices. One such instrument has been constructed by the Southern States CPEA project and is known as the Competency Pattern.[21] This criterion measure of successful practice is comprised of three basic elements--the Job, the Theory, and the Know-how. It was developed through the use of empirical methods, was tested in group discussions and substantiated by the judgments of numerous competent individuals. On the Competency Pattern, the Job is broken into critical task areas. The instrument then deals with the problem of what constitutes effective job performance on the basis of an acceptable Theory of educational administration. Know-how consists of the operational beliefs, skills, and knowledges needed to perform the critical tasks in accordance with directions growing out of the Theory of educational administration.

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[21]Southern States Cooperative Program in Educational Administration, Better Teaching in School Administration (Nashville, Tenn.: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1955), pp. 124-249.

The University of Tennessee has developed a Rating Guide[22] to measure effective leader performance in educational administration. Six major characteristics with appropriate sub-questions relating to administrator performance are rated on a 1 through 5 scale on this instrument. The major characteristics are Interpersonal Relations, Intelligent Operation, Condition of Health, Ethical and Moral Strength, Adequacy of Communication, and Operation as a Citizen.

The University of Georgia has devised a Profile of Administrator Behavior[23] which is designed to study the performance of school principals. The Profile is divided into three major sections with specific leader practices classified under each of these headings. The headings, themselves, are Carrying Out the Role of Democratic Leadership, Working Effectively with School Personnel, and Working Effectively with the Community and Its Organizations. Rating on the Profile consists first of indicating whether or not a particular behavior or practice is present in the principal's over-all performance; then, if it is present, its presence is weighted in terms of quantitative measures on a six-point scale.

The Ohio State University School-Community Development Study has also produced a check-list for measuring the effectiveness of administrator

[22]Mimeographed document by Orin B. Graff and Associates (Knoxville, Tenn.: College of Education, University of Tennessee, 1955).

[23]Lee Sprowles and Doyne M. Smith, The Principal's Profile (Athens, Ga.: The University of Georgia, 1956) (Mimeographed).

performance in education.[24] Leaders of this project, after observing,

studying, and thinking about the problem of administrative leadership

measurement, hypothesized that areas of administrator performance could

be described. Accordingly, nine areas of practice were delineated as

Setting Goals, Making Policy, Determining Roles, Communicating, Using

Resources of the Community, Involving People, Coordinating Administrative

Function and Structure, and Appraising Effectiveness. Two empirical

studies have sought validation of the following hypotheses developed

from the above description of administrative practices:

1. One hypothesis was that administrative behavior of
   selected elementary school principals could be
   described adequately within the framework of the
   nine critical areas which had been hypothesized.[25]

2. Another hypothesis stated that administrative behavior
   of generally effective elementary school principals
   and relatively ineffective principals would differ
   significantly within the framework of critical areas.[26]

3. A third stated that the given set of categories included
   all of the administrative practices of high school
   principals.[27]

4. A fourth hypothesized that these categories of behavior
   were useful in discriminating between effective and

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[24]John A. Ramseyer, et. al., Factors Affecting Educational Administration, SCDS Series (Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, Ohio State University, 1955).

[25]Odean Lott Hess, Administrative Behavior of Elementary Principals, unpublished doctoral dissertation (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1955).

[26]Ibid.

[27]Dean O. Clark, Critical Areas in the Administrative Behavior of High School Principals, unpublished doctoral dissertation (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1956).

ineffective high school principals.[28]

Work is still in progress on these studies which are attempting to describe areas of administrative performance.

Research connected with the Ohio State University School-Community Development Study has also given rise to the development of another criterion measure of educational administrator effectiveness. This instrument, designed by Andrew Halpin,[29] classifies administrator performance according to two dimensions--Initiating Structure and Consideration. These two dimensions are the basis for a leader behavior description questionnaire. Halpin has used his questionnaire with 50 Ohio school superintendents and found the following:

1. Effective or desirable leader behavior is characterized by high scores on both initiating structure and consideration. Conversely, ineffective or undesirable leader behavior is marked by low scores on both dimensions.

2. The effective leader is one who delineates clearly the relationships between himself and the members of the group, and establishes well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting the job done, and whose behavior at the same time reflects friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth in the relationships between himself and the members of the groups with which he deals.

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[28]Ibid.

[29]Andrew W. Halpin, The Leader Behavior of School Superintendents, SCDS Series (Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, Ohio State University, 1956).

Halpin[30] has more recently designed a model for research into

Administrator Behavior called the "Paradigm." Within this model are

four basic elements: (1) The Organization Task, (2) Administrator

Behavior, (3) Variables Associated with Administrator Behavior, (4) and

Criteria of Administrator Effectiveness. Halpin has premised his

Paradigm on these three assumptions:

1. The public school organization is constituted for
   a "purpose," and this "purpose" can be stated in
   terms of desired outcomes. Furthermore, these
   outcomes may be defined either in terms of "desirable"
   behaviors or of "desirable" products of behavior.
   These "desired" outcomes constitute the Organizational
   Task.

2. The individuals who compose the organization are
   engaged in continuous problem-solving behavior in
   their effort to accomplish this Task.

3. The Administrator, as the formally designated
   leader of the Organization, has a key role in
   this problem-solving behavior; and three areas
   of his behavior are of special importance:

   a. His perceptions of the organization's task.
   b. His behavior as a decision maker.
   c. His behavior as a group leader, vis-a-vis
      his own immediate work group.

Halpin goes on to describe, define and explain the function of elements

within the Paradigm by explaining how the results of interaction between

the administrator and people with whom he works can be identified and

evaluated.

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[30]Andrew W. Halpin, "A Paradigm for Research on Administrator
Behavior," Administrative Behavior in Education, ed. Roald F. Campbell
and R. T. Gregg (New York: Harper & Bros., 1957), pp. 155-194.

Role Theory.—Another approach to understanding administrative

leadership in education, which seems to stem from earlier studies of

the situational variables that affect administrator performance, is

known as role theory. Campbell[31] sets forth in broad outlines the

nature of this theory of leadership by tracing a number of implications

for administrator performance from studies of situational factors in

different educational systems. He maintains that the administrator

needs to develop a concept of his job a part of which deals with the

place of situational variables. By the very nature of his position, the

administrator is required to work with many reference groups. Thus,

assessment of situational characteristics and expectations is a first

requirement of the administrator. Since the administrator needs to

maintain contacts with the power structure in a school community, he

must also be conversant with the specific nature of this variable. There

is need, on the other hand, to clarify the roles of citizens, board

members, teachers, and administrators because the role expectations of

citizens, board members, and teachers must be understood and dealt with

by administrators. Disturbing as it may seem, administrators cannot be

satisfied to meet the expectations of one reference group, hence the

administrator must learn to face and work with conflict. Campbell goes

on to say that the situational variables seem to establish at any one

time, an "area of tolerance" within which school community action may

take place. The limits implied by the "area of tolerance" may suggest

the real challenge to the administrator. Campbell concludes that the

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[31]Campbell, Op. Cit., pp. 264-68.

educational administrator, despite his involvement, should do his best to remain a student of how situational variables affect his administrative performance. The administrator must find some way of establishing more unity among the perceptions of the various individuals and groups of individuals involved in each educational situation. Some criterion of effectiveness in administration acceptable to the various reference groups must be derived.

Colardarci and Getzels[32] have sought to advance role theory in a somewhat different manner. Their conclusions, however, are very similar to Campbell's, above. Interpersonal relationships have been taken as a basic unity upon which these scholars have built a theory of administrative performance. They conceive of administration, structurally, as the hierarchy of subordinate-superordinate relationships within an institution, and, functionally, the hierarchy of administration is conceived as the locus of allocating and integrating roles and facilities in order to attain institutional goals. Colardarci and Getzels postulate three dimensions for administration--the authority dimension, the scope of roles and facilities dimension, and the affectivity dimension. They advance the following hypotheses concerning them:

1. Administrative effectiveness in the educational enterprise is a function of the extent to which the superordinate-subordinate interaction, with respect to the authority dimension, approaches ideal-type rationality.

2. Administrative effectiveness in the educational enterprise is a function of the extent to which

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[32]Arthur P. Colardarci and Jacob W. Getzels, The Use of Theory in Educational Administration (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1955), pp. 19-26.

the superordinate-subordinate interaction with respect to the scope of roles and facilities dimension approaches ideal-type functional specificity.

3. Administrative effectiveness in education is a function of the extent to which the superintendent interaction, with respect to the affectivity dimension approaches ideal-type universalism.

The Midwest Administration Center at the University of Chicago, one of the CPEA regional centers, has sought to advance role theory by contributing to a definition of the problem of role conflict as a crucial factor in effective administrative leader performance.[33] These people believe that various groups within educational systems--teachers, boards of education, pupils, and community patrons--may feel that they have a legitimate right to hold certain expectations about how the role of the educational administrator should be played. By focusing research on the expectations of administrative behavior held by teachers, they have found: (1) that teachers rate themselves as more effective and more satisfied when administrator behavior, as they perceive it, approaches the expectations they posit as ideal, and (2) that role conflict exists when the expected administrator behavior as defined by one group is different from the role as perceived by the administrator, himself, or by other groups. Role theorists maintain that educational administrators are caught in a dilemma of leadership and that any effort on their part to meet the divergent expectations of all groups, and still maintain their own integrity, is virtually impossible. They advocate,

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[33] Francis S. Chase and Egon G. Guba, "Administrative Roles and Behavior," Review of Educational Research, XXXV (October, 1955), 281-298.

instead, that administrators exercise leadership with the various

interest groups to develop an operational philosophy in each educational

system which is sufficiently consistent to permit new, and tenable,

working relationships between administrators and the groups and among

the various groups themselves. There are a number of studies associated

with role theory which are included elsewhere in this paper.[34]

Personality Theories.--Another approach to understanding adminis-

trative leadership in education, which appears to stem from earlier

studies of leadership traits, focuses on personality theory. Bills

and Hopper[35] have advanced one personality theory of administrative

leadership in education through their work in the Southern States CPEA

at the University of Kentucky. These theorists generalize that the

successful educational administrator, because of his attitudes toward

people and toward himself, is able to maintain adequate and satisfying

relationships with people; is a person who makes few value judgments;

thinks in cooperative terms; makes few comparisons; and gives sufficient

thought to the things he does. Bills and Hopper classify practicing

educational administrators according to behavior into three broad per-

sonality groups, differentiating in terms of the attitudes which the

administrator holds toward himself and toward other people. Some

administrators accept their own worth and believe that other people are

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[34]A specific citation of these sources is included in the Appendix
of this paper under the heading, "Role Theory."

[35]Robert L. Hopper and Robert E. Bills, "What's a Good Adminis-
trator Made Of?" The School Executive, LXXIV (March, 1955), pp. 93-
95.

equally or more accepting of their worth. Some administrators reject themselves but believe that other people are more accepting of themselves. Some administrators accept themselves and believe that other people are less accepting of themselves. The first type of personality is said to be the most successful administrator in the judgment of educational authorities, superintendents of schools, principals, and of group members. The second type of personality is judged to be less desirable, and the third type is believed to be least desirable of all. Researchers at Kentucky have set forth the following list of factors which partially determine the nature of administrative leader performance in education--physical needs of the leader, values, concepts of self, concepts of others, leadership, and group membership. Importance is given to considering these conceptions in terms of the meaning they hold for the individual; they are personal meanings which represent the individual's own particular opinions and beliefs and serve to energize his behavior. Probably the most fundamental of any concept held by an administrator is the one which he holds about himself and other people, since this determines in large measure his "human relations" behavior.

Research at Kentucky has been premised upon the following assumptions regarding educational leadership: (1) behavior grows out of perception; (2) if a knowledge of a person's perceptions is available, it is possible to predict his behavior; (3) when he behaves and we study his behavior, it is possible to infer certain of his perceptions; (4) it is not possible for a person to perform in a manner inconsistent

with his perceptions; (5) the individual is what he performs and what
he performs is what he is; (6) the starting point in analyzing and
describing behavior of an administrator is the determination of his
perceptions as related to himself and to his job; (7) and changing
perceptions would be expected to change behavior.

Another study into leadership personality has been conducted in
Florida as a part of the Southern States CPEA project. A group at
the University of Florida, under the leadership of Hines,[36] has been
experimenting for five years to develop more effective leadership
training programs. Extensive research reported in approximately a
dozen dissertations has revealed some rather interesting facts. For
instance, it has been shown that there is a positive relationship
between administrator personality and the frequency of democratic
practices; administrator personality and best practices; administrator
personality and human relations; administrator personality and program
development; and administrator personality and parent feeling toward
the school. Thus, the pattern of performance demonstrated by an adminis-
trator does appear to make a difference in the effective operations of
an educational system. The Florida studies have also shown that such
variables as conventionalism, authoritarianism, substitution, power,
cynicism, and projectivity are not necessarily related to democratic
leadership. No relationships were found between the criterion of
democratic leadership behavior and such personal factors as age, training,

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[36] Pierce, Op. Cit., pp. 342-43.

and experience. Women, curiously enough, were found to be more demo-
cratic than men. Finally, principals were not consistently democratic
or autocratic toward different groups, as researchers at Florida see
it. That is to say, a principal might be democratic with one group and
autocratic toward another. A study of four principals, however,
revealed internal consistency in principals' performance as this con-
sistency was indicated by relationships among values, self-concepts,
role concepts, background experiences, and ways of working. The Florida
studies have not yet resulted in any conceptualization of these findings.

An interesting notion is emerging from studies of leader _personality_
in education. Implicit in this research is the idea that to control the
effectiveness of an educational enterprise we need only control the
effectiveness of the administrative leader's personality. Or to state
the idea another way, if there exists an effective leader personality
in an educational enterprise, the resultant interaction of the various
groups, individuals and factors will ordinarily evolve to produce an
effective educational operation. At the present time this notion is a
rather nebulous one, as it is found in the research literature dealing
with educational administration. The emphasis upon leader _personality_
in some recent studies, however, appears to mark a significant new
development of research in this problem area.[37]

General References:--There are two reference works pertaining to
administrative leadership in education which are of general value for

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[37]A specific citation of these sources is included in the Appendix
of this paper under the heading, "Personality Theories."

orientation to the literature and problems of research in this field. One of them, Hollis A. Moore's, Studies in School Administration, gives an authoritative account of the birth, growth, and present magnitude of cooperative research efforts in the area of administrative leadership for education which are presently going on through the joint efforts of the American Association of School Administrators, the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration, the Kellogg Foundation, and various researchers in the 8 CPEA regions across the United States. This work also contains an elaborate annotated bibliography of those studies in administrative leadership in education which have been conducted under the auspices of the various CPEA regional centers. Another useful reference work is Campbell and Gregg's book, Administrative Behavior in Education. As a resource work, sponsored by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration, this text has drawn together the views of many leading researchers concerned with the problem of understanding and improving administrative leadership in education. These people seek to present a thorough picture of the birth, growth, and present status of research in this field. They also seek to evaluate the research efforts to date and discuss various ways in which future studies may improve our understanding of leadership. Although certain portions of the book appear to be slanted toward role theory as a most fruitful approach to understanding leadership, the text does represent the most comprehensive treatment of the subject that has been compiled to date.[38]

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[38]A specific citation of these sources is included in the Appendix of this paper under the heading, "General References."

## An Analysis of Research Trends

It is obvious from the description of various study approaches to administrative leadership in education that knowledge in this field has been pursued down many, diverse avenues. The reader has probably sensed the episodic and disconnected, rather than programmatic, character of all these investigations. Thus the assertion that none of these individual studies deals comprehensively with the total phenomenon of administrative leadership as it is presently known through the research literature does not come as a startling revelation. For the sake of documenting this point more precisely, however, let us push the analysis of leadership research literature even further.

From what we have seen so far, it is possible to identify a composite picture of those aspects of administrative leadership in education which comprise this phenomenon in its totality as researchers presently know it. And from this composite view, we can evaluate the extent to which each of the study approaches discussed above incorporates component parts of the whole phenomenon in the theoretical rationales which lie behind them. For example, studies of leader traits deal almost exclusively with the identification of attributes of effective administrative leaders. Studies of situational factors in educational administration, on the other hand, focus upon the identification of sources of human conflict in American educational systems. These studies are vitally concerned with the relationship of education to our social order. They also deal explicitly, and at some length with the problem

of understanding the specific environment surrounding educational

systems.

Paul Mort's philosophy of administration, like studies of leader

traits, is concerned with attributes of effective administrative leaders.

Beyond this rather secondary aim, the Mort studies come to grips with

the philosophy and purposes of administrative leadership in American

education. The Denver study, meanwhile, reemphasizes the need to identify

sources of human conflict in educational systems enunciated in studies

of situational factors in education. This study, like leader traits

investigations, seeks to identify attributes of effective administrative

leaders as well.

The Field Theory, advanced by the Middle Atlantic CPEA, introduces

a different aspect of administrative leadership in education, the need

to comprehend an administrative process which goes on within all

purposive human organizations. This study also recognizes the importance

of the relationship of education to the social order; is concerned with

understanding the specific environment of educational systems; and seeks

to identify attributes of effective administrative leaders.

The Competency Pattern, like other criterion measures of adminis-

trative leader effectiveness, focuses upon the measurement of effective-

ness in the practice of educational administration; while the University

of Tennessee's Rating Guide exhibits a concern for instructing prospec-

tive administrators and predicting their success on the job. The Univer-

sity of Georgia's Profile of Administrator Behavior, the Ohio State

University Checklist, and Halpin's Leader Description Questionnaire all

deal in a primary way with the measurement of effective administrative leader practices, performance, or behavior as the administrator's activities are variously called.

Role theory appears to embrace the tasks of identifying sources of conflict in educational systems; understanding the relationship of education to the social order; comprehending the administrative process; and identifying specific factors in the environment surrounding educational systems. The Personality Theory of Bills and Hopper focuses on a different combination of aspects of leadership that were previously mentioned. This rationale concerns itself with the measurement of effective leader practices; is concerned with identifying sources of conflict in education; probes for a better understanding of the specific environment of educational systems, and is concerned with identifying the attributes of effective administrative leaders.

Hine's Personality studies introduce another aspect of the leader phenomenon, the measurement of administrative leadership as distinct from administrative leader practice, performance, or behavior. Leadership in this context is seen as a climate of interpersonal exchange between super- and sub-ordinates in educational systems which stems largely from the kind of behavior super-ordinates demonstrate.

The general reference works of Moore and Campbell emphasize the need for programmatic attacks on the problem of improving the effectiveness of American education through the improvement of administrative leadership. These studies also plead for the construction of a general

theory of administrative leadership in education as a <u>specific means</u>
of improving American education.

From this array of aspects of administrative leadership in
education, we can now sketch the broad outlines of the total phenomenon.
It is comprised of:

1. Philosophy and purposes.

2. Identification of personal attributes of effective
   administrative leaders.

3. Measurement of effective administrative leader
   practices.

4. Measurement of effective administrative leadership.

5. Programs for improving the effectiveness of
   American education through administrative leadership.

6. Identification of the sources of human conflict
   in educational systems.

7. Development of specific means for improving the
   effectiveness of American education through
   administrative leadership.

8. Relationships of educational systems to the
   social order.

9. An administrative process.

10. A specific environment which surrounds educational
    systems.

11. Programs of instruction for training new adminis-
    trative leaders.

Now, to what extent do each of the individual studies or groups of studies
discussed above endeavor to incorporate all of these aspects of adminis-
trative leadership in the theoretical rationales which lie behind them?

In Table 1, below, you will notice that an effort has been made
to codify the answer to this question. Each of the studies, or approaches

TABLE 1

COMPREHENSIVENESS OF MAJOR STUDIES IN

ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP FOR CONTEMPORARY EDUCATION

| | Philosophy and Purpose | Identifying Attributes of Effective Leaders | Measuring Effective Administrator Practices | Measuring Effective Administrative Leadership | Programs for Improving Administrative Leadership | Identifying Conflict in Educational Systems | Devising Specific Means of Improving Leadership | Relationship of Education to the Social Order | An Administrative Process | Understanding Environment of Educational Systems | Instructing Administrative Leader Trainees |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Studies Using the Traits Approach | I | E | I | I | | | I | | | | I |
| Studies Using the Situational Approach | I | | I | I | | E | | E | | E | |
| Paul Mort's Philosophy | E | E | I | I | | | I | I | | I | |
| The Denver Study | | E | I | I | | E | | I | | I | |
| The Field Theory | I | E | I | I | I | I | | E | E | E | |
| The Competency Pattern | E | E | E | I | I | | I | | E | | I |
| Tennessee Rating Guide | I | E | E | I | | E | I | E | E | E | E |
| Georgia Profile of Administrator Behavior | I | E | E | I | | E | I | E | E | E | |
| Ohio State Checklist | I | E | E | I | | I | I | E | E | E | |
| Halpin's Description Questionnaire | I | E | E | I | | E | I | | E | E | |
| Halpin's Paradigm | E | I | E | E | | I | E | E | I | I | |
| Role Theory | I | I | I | I | | E | I | E | E | E | |
| Bills' and Hopper's Personality Theory | I | E | E | I | | E | I | I | | E | |
| Hines' Florida Studies | I | E | E | E | | I | I | E | I | I | E |
| Moore's Studies in Administration | I | | I | I | E | | E | | | | E |
| Campbell's Administrative Behavior | E | E | E | I | E | E | E | E | E | E | E |

A ranking of "E" indicates an explicit concern of each study.
A ranking of "I" indicates an implicit concern of each study.

to the study, of leadership appear in this table as do all of the
known aspects of administrative leadership in education. An estimate
is made of those aspects of the total phenomenon in question which are
dealt with explicitly in each study. These are indicated in the table
by the letter "E". Other aspects of administrative leadership in
education with which these studies deal implicitly are indicated in the
table with the letter "I". A special effort has been made in constructing
TABLE 1 to assign "I" rankings generously in order to give each study
or each approach to the study of leadership its full measure of compre-
hensiveness.

It is quite clear from this table that not one existing study of
administrative leadership in education is based upon a comprehensive
and explicit definition of all aspects of this phenomenon known to
researchers. Few approach comprehensiveness when their implicit con-
cerns are included with their explicit ones. Campbell's, Administrative
Behavior in Education, which comes the closest to covering the phenomenon
of administrative leadership comprehensively, is really a general refer-
ence source in this field. Consequently, it summarizes many of the
other studies; and its comprehensiveness is greatly increased because
of this.

The most obvious omissions in these studies are: (a) a failure
to deal with programs for improving the effectiveness of American educa-
tion through administrative leadership, and (b) a paucity of concern
with programs of instruction for developing new administrative leaders.
Several of the studies also show an implicit concern with devising

specific means of improving leadership, but only the general reference

works in this field treat this aspect of leadership explicitly. Para-

doxical as it seems, only two study approaches have dealt explicitly with

measuring the effectiveness of administrative leadership. Others dwell

upon the measurement of effective administrative leader performance,

practice, or behavior, implying that effective leadership follows

automatically from an effective control of what the administrator does.

Most important to us here is the fact that existing studies of

educational administration are not comprehensive in their explicit

inclusion of all aspects of administrative leadership. Or, to say this

another way, the total phenomenon of administrative leadership for

contemporary education as found in the research literature includes more

aspects than any of the individual studies in this field embrace. We

may assume, therefore, that at the present time there is a need for a

new, more comprehensive theory of administrative leadership in education

which starts from a new, more comprehensive operational definition of

this empirical phenomenon.

## An Operational Definition of

## Administrative Leadership for Contemporary Education

Administrative leadership in education is a _purposive_ endeavor.

That is to say, the administration of our educational enterprise by

designated professional practictioners is deliberately designed to serve

some function in the day-to-day operation of our social order. Proof

of this is to be found in the fact that as a society, we have, over the

years, formally organized an enterprise of education. We have also

constructed a body of laws and extra-legal criteria to control the

nature of educational activity in America. Education, therefore, must

serve at least one common purpose.[39] Administrative leaders in education

assume the responsibility for guiding the destiny of our educational

enterprise toward the accomplishment of this purpose when they accept

the challenge of administrative practice. The purpose of American

education, hence of administrative leadership in education, stems from

a philosophy or ethical system of beliefs, values, and human expectations

which are held in common by our citizenry. One purpose, then, of adminis-

trative leadership in education is really to further the attainment of

the common purpose which society avows for our educational enterprise.

Since administrative leadership in education arises out of purposive

human activity on the part of educational administrators, it is possible

to evaluate leadership in terms of its effectiveness or ineffectiveness.

But to do so we must look, in part, at the person--or personality--of

each administrative leader. By observing, and eventually coming to

understand that totality which he is, we can improve upon our ability

to select and retain effective leaders who will, in turn, make the

educational enterprise move toward the accomplishment of the common purpose

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[39]At this point in the theory building venture no reference is
being made to what the common purpose of education should be. It is
merely noted here that as a purposive social endeavor legally sanctioned
by society education in all its forms has at least one common purpose.
In Chapter IV the reader will see that it is essential to begin a theory
of this kind by hypothesizing what the common purpose of education is,
then ordering all other predictions under this basic one in a subordinate
but logically consistent fashion. Prediction making, however, cannot
commence until administrative leadership has been defined; and we are
defining here.

our society has avowed for it. An integral part of success here,
however, is the expertesse we demonstrate in verifying relevant
variables which bear upon attributes of effective leader personality.
If we are to move American education toward a common goal through the
selection and retention of educational administrators who demonstrate
specified, desirable characteristics in their professional endeavor,
then we must create and verify at least one Standard Measure of Effective
Administrative Leader Practices.

The things that an administrator does, his professional practice,
is but a stimulus for administrative leadership. The true locus of
leadership resides in the total situation of the administrator and those
individuals in educational organization with whom he works. Leadership
is really a climate of interpersonal exchange generated by the interaction
of administrators and other people. Leadership is a result of adminis-
trator practice in any purposive human organization, and it does not
reside within administrative leaders, themselves. Just as horsemanship
is the result of human behavior and resides somewhere in the total situa-
tion of the man and the horse; just as craftsmanship is a result of the
artisan's activity and resides somewhere in the total situation of the
man and his creation; or just as sportsmanship is a result of behavior
which resides somewhere in the total situation of the athlete and other
players on the field--so leadership may be observed as a derivation of
leader behavior which resides in the total situation of the administrator
and the people with whom he works.

Think of administrative leadership as the climate surrounding interpersonal exchange in educational systems, the specific nature of which is largely determined by the practices of those in positions of administrative authority. Within this climate other people are either encouraged to, or discouraged from, implementing those practices which will help to accomplish the common purpose of education. And since administrative leadership is somewhat distinct from leader practice, we must also learn how to evaluate and control it if we are to accomplish the common objective of education in an intelligent manner. It follows that a fundamental part of the administration of contemporary education is the creation and verification of at least one Standard Measure of Administrative Leadership.

By focusing evaluation and control of education upon effective administrative leader practices and effective administrative leadership-- as effectiveness is defined by the common purpose--it is possible to utilize administrative officers in educational systems as a vehicle for improving the effectiveness of the total enterprise of education. To say the same thing another way, given a common purpose for American education, given a verified criteria for evaluating leader practice and leadership in the light of this purpose, it is possible and logical to focus upon the pinnacle of authority in educational systems to energize educational improvement in a programmatic and efficient manner. Thus administrative leadership for contemporary education involves at least one Standard Program for Improving the Effectiveness of Administrative Leadership.

America's educational enterprise has a common purpose, but individual educational systems within it interpret this purpose in various ways. That is why each educational system has, in part, structured a special purpose for itself. When we speak of programs for improving the effectiveness of American education through improved administrative leadership, we subsume the notion that some educational systems in America are presently ineffective as is their administrative leadership. A part of the ineffectiveness stems from the fact that the educational systems have specific purposes which are to a degree out of harmony with the common purpose of the educational enterprise as a whole. They also employ administrative leaders who have assumed the responsibility for attaining goals which are in some ways inconsistent with the common purpose of American education. To accomplish the common goal of education, direct and intelligent action must be taken to insure the alignment of all that educational endeavor in each system which bears upon the attainment of the common educational purpose which our society avows. This involves changing people and the purposes of human organizations. Change never comes easy,hence it goes almost without saying that programs for improving the effectiveness of education will generate ideological conflicts in educational systems. Conflict will engender threat, and threat, left uncontrolled, will tend to compound itself. Eventually ideological conflicts could lead to open hostility and to the eventual dissolution of the educational enterprise, itself. This, of course, would defeat rather than accomplish the common purpose of education. So in the administration of education we must

learn to identify the sources of human conflict or threat and deal with them intelligently. We must have, in fact, at least one verified instrument which can be used as a Standard Threat Analysis in any American educational system.

Programs for improving the effectiveness of education through leadership, however, do not stop with an analysis of the sources of human conflict in educational systems. Coupled with this task is the need to specify particular and explicit means of implementing improvements in administrative leadership, once the sources of threat have been identified. Administrative leadership for contemporary education must be seen as embracing a specific Standard Leadership Improvement Criteria.

From what has been said above, it is easy to understand that particular educational systems do not operate in a vacuum. In many ways they are related to the broader domain of our social order and are, therefore, committed to a common purpose as a part of a total social enterprise. Each educational system affects and is affected by the temper of belief in our society. To get students, to get money, to get buildings, to get staff, to get equipment, to get supplies, to determine purposes, to make policy, to implement practices, and to obtain a charter or enabling legislation, every educational system in America must relate with the outside world of our society. Since administrative leaders are charged with the responsibility of guiding the destiny of their educational systems, it follows that administrative leadership for contemporary education must encompass the General Considerations that each educational system faces in relating with the society outside its premises.

When administrative leaders and subordinates in education set about the performance of their tasks to attain the purposes of their educational systems, they act in discrete and definable ways. There is a process through which administration goes on in any human endeavor where at least two people seek to attain at least one common objective together. Educational systems are not exceptions in this regard. In every educational system the interpersonal exchange between administrators and subordinates goes on through the processes of planning, organizing, staffing and directing.

Planning involves those activities of administrators and other people in educational systems which deal with determining aims, goals, and objectives--the purposes of education and ways of accomplishing them. Planning goes on through the medium of decision-making. It involves sensing and defining problems; exploring problems through collecting relevant data, making inferences, and relating problems to people; formulating possible courses of action; predicting outcomes; deciding; and evaluating progress toward agreed upon purposes.

Organizing is defined as that administrative operation which is concerned with designating specific jobs to be performed in educational systems; relating these jobs one to the other in such a way as to provide for a coordinated flow of resources, both material and human, and a coordinated flow of communication throughout the educational system which make it possible to discharge the responsibilities associated with each job.

Staffing deals with assigning particular people to specific tasks within educational systems. Staffing involves recruiting; transfer to one or more different jobs within education at the same level of authority; promotion to duties and responsibilities at a higher level of authority; demotion to duties and responsibilities at a lower level of authority; and expulsion from the enterprise.

Directing means energizing an educational system toward the accomplishment of its purposes. Directing involves the application of controls to human activities within the enterprise; the arbitration of interpersonal disputes in educational systems and among systems; as well as the exercise of authority or command in education and the delegation of authority and responsibility to others.

We should not think of the administrative process as being comprised of four discrete operations. Each operation is dependent upon the others for its fruition in any educational system. For example, it is not feasible to plan without first organizing, at least in some minimal way, for planning. Getting a staff together and giving some direction to the planning are necessary parts of the planning venture, also. Nor can directing take place meaningfully without a staff who is organized and who has planned beforehand what must be done.

We should not think either that these administrative operations go on in educational systems only in a neat sequence as they are described above. For these operations actually comprise an administrative milieu which arises at any given point in time out of the give and take of social intercourse within educational systems. Consequently,

planning, organizing, staffing, and directing occur in all kinds of different sequences and in myriads of different ways in the day-to-day operation of our educational enterprise.

Be that as it may, the fact remains that formal educational endeavor can be classified under the terms of the administrative process. Hence, administrative leadership for contemporary education encompasses what we may call Standard Administrative Operations.

Though formal human endeavor within educational systems goes on through the processes of planning, organizing, staffing, and directing, it does not do so in the abstract. That is to say, administrators and those people who work with them in education do not merely plan, organize, staff, and direct; they activate these operations in relation to specific, discrete and definable things that exist in the general environment which surrounds education. Some of the more obvious things from the educational environment in relation to which super- and subordinates plan, organize, staff and direct are:

I. With reference to the Educational Plant--

    A. Building
    B. Equipment
    C. Materials and Supplies
    D. Facilities

II. With reference to the Educational Program--

    A. Admissions
    B. Curriculum
    C. Instruction
    D. Evaluation
    E. Governance
    F. Articulation with Higher and Lower Schools

III. With reference to Educational Finance--

    A. Capital Funds
    B. Operational Funds
    C. Endowment Funds
    D. Gifts and Bequests
    E. Bond Drives
    F. Fund Drives
    G. Governmental Aid
    H. Purchasing
    I. Disbursing
    J. Accounting
    K. Budgeting

IV. With reference to Educational Personnel--

    A. Salaries
    B. Housing
    C. Pensions
    D. Insurance
    E. Credit Unions
    F. Sick Leaves
    G. Leaves of Absence
    H. In-Service Training
    I. Teaching Assignments
    J. Research Assignments
    K. Service Assignments

V. With reference to Educational Auxiliary Agencies--

    A. Student Activities
    B. Student Government
    C. Student Counseling
    D. Student Housing
    E. Student Health
    F. Student Welfare
    G. Student Employment
    H. Student Placement
    I. Student Loans
    J. Student Scholarships
    K. Maintenance of Buildings and Grounds
    L. Storage of Supplies and Materials
    M. Transportation
    N. Institutional Study
    O. Institutional Promotion
    P. Auxiliary Personnel

VI. With reference to Educational Governance--

    A. Legal Governing Agencies
    B. Extra-legal Governing Agencies
    C. Constituencies and Clientele
    D. Local Communities
    E. Controlling Boards
    F. Administrative Officers
    G. Faculty

Administrative leadership for contemporary education involves at least these many specific items from the educational environment. They are the factors which give form and color to human behavior in all educational systems when super- and subordinates interact in formal educational endeavor. Thus, we may think of these things as Standard Behavior Factors for Education.

The American enterprise of education has endured through several generations. It probably shall endure for many, many more. Individual administrative leaders in education, however, appear and disappear incessantly as the educational enterprise continues on in operation. It follows from this that, if our society seeks to accomplish a common purpose for education through the on-going selection and retention of effective educational administrators, then some means must be found for supplying the ever present demand for new, adequately-trained, administrative personnel. In short, a part of administrative leadership for contemporary education involves a Standard Program of Instruction for Developing Administrative Leader Trainees who eventually will become practioners in the enterprise of education. Programs for training leaders, like any other instructional endeavor, must take into account

at least five things—the Purposes, Curriculum, Instructional Methodology, Evaluation of Instructional Effectiveness, and the Governance of all of these.

To sum up, administrative leadership for contemporary education is a purposive endeavor. All educational systems within our total educational enterprise have at least one purpose in common. Educational administrators assume the responsibility of guiding the destiny of American education toward the accomplishment of that purpose when they accept the challenge of administrative practice. The effective administration of our educational enterprise—as effectiveness is defined by the common purpose—depends upon at least one Standard Measure of Administrative Leader Practices and at least one Standard Measure of Administrative Leadership. The common purpose of all educational systems in the enterprise of American education can best be attained through at least one Standard Program for Improving the Effectiveness of Administrative Leadership. Such a program aims to improve education through the improvement of leader practices which, in turn, will improve administrative leadership.

Any programmatic improvement of the effectiveness of American education is likely to generate conflict which stems from threat and will need to apply specific means for implementing improvements. Hence administrative leadership for contemporary education must encompass at least one Standard Threat Analysis and must include at least one Standard Leadership Improvement Criteria.

The phenomenon of administrative leadership in any contemporary educational system must be seen as embracing relationships with the general social order. Each system must, first of all, act in accordance with regulatory criteria set forth by legal and extra-legal organizations. And each must succumb to the influences of other parts of society in a variety of ways. We view administrative leadership, then, as including some General Considerations which pertain to the relationships of education with the outside world of our social order.

Administrative leadership also subsumes an administrative process comprised of four Standard Administrative Operations--planning, organizing, staffing, and directing. It embodies, as well, a host of specific factors in the educational environment--with reference to Plant, Program, Finance, Personnel, Auxiliary Agencies, and Governance--in relation to which administrators and other people in educational systems activate the administrative process. These things in the educational environment we can call Standard Behavior Factors for Education.

Finally, in order to ensure the accomplishment of the common purpose of education, it is necessary to replenish our supply of competent administrative leaders. Thus, administrative leadership for contemporary education also involves at least one Standard Program of Instruction for Developing Administrative Leader Trainees. Such a program must take into account the Purpose, Curriculum, Instruction, and Evaluation, and its own internal Governance.

## Two Bases for Selecting Relevant Assumptions

The second task in building a useful theory, after the phenomenon with which it deals has been defined, is to select a set of relevant assumptions which can be brought to bear upon the definition in order to generate predictions about it. The selection of such a set of assumptions for the theory with which this study deals is the special job of the next chapter. Before we leave a review of the literature, however, we need to analyze it once more in an effort to uncover some bases upon which relevant assumptions for a new theory may be selected.

Acknowledging that there are probably many bases for selecting a relevant set of assumptions in a theory dealing with such an expansive phenomenon as administrative leadership in education, let us look once more at the literature in this field to determine what force or forces appear to be motivating empirical inquiry here. It is logical to assume that the forces motivating research in educational administration will give us some clues as to what constitutes a relevant set of assumptions for theorizing about administrative leadership. This is not to imply, of course, that such an approach will uncover the only bases for selecting relevant assumptions, nor does it mean necessarily that the best bases for determining relevance will come to light. We are interested here merely in uncovering some bases for selecting a relevant set of assumptions for a theory. The degree of relevancy of the assumptions is not directly in question.

From our acquaintance with the literature of administrative leadership so far, one factor stands out at once as a force motivating inquiry.

This is the desire among leadership researchers to understand the
implications for education of the relativity of human perceptions. We
found in studies of situational factors in educational administration,
for example, that researchers were aware of and concerned with the fact
that communities, boards, faculties, and the profession often see the
administrator in quite different perspective. Even within these groups
there were found complex varieties of perspective. Administrators are
faced with multiple and conflicting expectations which they must become
sensitive to through their own perceptions.

Paul Mort, in his philosophy of administration, aluded to the
principle of leader flexibility which he defined as the ability to
achieve recognized ends with regard to differences in situations and
the individuals involved. This definition appears to acknowledge that
perceptions, hence beliefs, hence concepts of truth differ significantly
among individuals and administrators must adapt themselves to the unique
perceptions of others.

The Denver Study sought to establish the fact that administrative
performance is determined by an individual administrator's perception
of the total educational situation and its requirements upon him at
any given point in time. At the time of action, the Denver group main-
tained, the administrator does what seems justified by his view of the
situation. In general, they said, people react differently to the same
situation because each person's perception of the situation differs from
that of others. The Denver group went on to say that most people feel

satisfaction when they realize that their perceptions and consequent

behavior are considered correct by other members of the group or groups

to which they want to belong. This study also pointed out that changed

perceptions lead to changed behavior.

The Field Theory, advanced by the Middle Atlantic CPEA, deals

implicitly with the relativity of individual perceptions when it sets

forth a three-dimensional concept of administration, comprised of the

Job, the Man, and the Social Setting as basic elements. The fact that

within this rationale the element, Social Setting, is seen as influencing

the thinking of the Man (administrator) and sets values by which he

adjusts himself and is judged appears to acknowledge the fact that

people perceive things differently and that administrative people must

not only sense differences in perception among people with respect to

each educational situation; they must adjust themselves and their work

routines in accordance with the perceptions of others with whom they work.

All of the Criterion Measures which seek to identify characteristics

of effective administrative leaders stem from an implicit assumption that

administrators are both effective and ineffective in kind. Each measure

also is premised upon a unique ethical base. Both of these factors

comprise an admission of the fact that there are many different ways

for administrators to perceive, to believe, and to behave in their

professional endeavor.

Role Theorists use the uniqueness of individual perception as a

fundamental concept in their rationales about leadership. For example,

they maintain (1) that teachers rate themselves as more effective and

more satisfied when administrator behavior, as they perceive it,

approaches the expectations they posit as ideal, and (2) that role

conflict exists when the expected administrator behavior as defined

by one group is different from the role as perceived by the administrator,

himself, or by other groups.

Personality Theories, as well, are grounded upon psychological

principles governing human perception. Bills and Hopper have structured

three types of leader personalities on the basis of various attitudes

that people hold about themselves and others. These attitudes stem

from their unique perceptions. As a matter-of-fact, Bills and Hopper

have premised their work on these seven basic assumptions from perceptual

psychology:

1. Behavior grows out of perception.

2. If a knowledge of a person's perceptions is
   available, it is possible to predict his behavior.

3. When he behaves and we study his behavior, it is
   possible to infer certain of his perceptions.

4. It is not possible for a person to perform in a
   manner inconsistent with his perceptions.

5. The individual is what he performs, and what he
   performs is what he is.

6. The starting point in analyzing and describing
   behavior of an administrator is the determination
   of his perceptions as related to himself and to
   his job.

7. Changing perceptions would be expected to change
   behavior.

In the light of these research concerns, it seems reasonable and fair to assume that one of the important forces energizing studies of administrative leadership in education is a desire to understand the implications for education of the uniqueness of individual perceptions. Thus we may take the relativity and uniqueness of individual perception as one basis for selecting a set of assumptions which are relevant to a theory of administrative leadership in education.

Another force which appears to be motivating research in administrative leadership stems from a desire to improve education by upgrading educational administration so that our educational enterprise will be more effective in preparing people to live in accordance with a philosophy which puts positive value on human growth and development. We caught a glimse of this force in action at various points in the review of the literature of educational administration. It emerged again in the definition of administrative leadership. One reason why the tools of systematic inquiry are being applied to the phenomenon of educational leadership is so that the educational enterprise can be changed in a programmatic fashion to impart more effectively a kind of training that will better prepare our citizenry for life in a growing, changing, adapting society.

A more explicit documentation of this point is to be found in a published philosophy which scholars in the field of educational administration are presumably seeking to endorse through their research. The National Council of Professors of Educational Administration[40] has

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[40] Orin B. Graff and Calvin M. Street, "Developing a Value Framework for Educational Administration," _Administrative Behavior in Education_, ed. Roald F. Campbell and Russell T. Gregg (New York: Harper & Bros., 1957), pp. 131-134.

gone on record as postulating the following fundamental beliefs upon

which the study of educational administration in America should be

based. These beliefs constitute a rather convincing body of evidence

to show that research in administrative leadership in education is

motivated by a desire to improve the effectiveness of American education

in growing and developing our citizenry to the outer limits of its

capacity.

## Declarations of Fundamental Beliefs

The dedication of ourselves to public education and to
the preparation of school administrators in particular
requires, in proper concern for the ordering of our efforts,
the acceptance, in full understanding, of a comprehensive
structure of fundamental beliefs. Out of these beliefs,
should our efforts be well-directed,may be expected to
be developed principles and postulates guiding the further
efforts toward the preparation of school administrators.
Lacking such grounding, our efforts must be ill-directed
and become productive of good only by happenstance and
not intention.

Application of intelligence to life problems. One,
we assert man's ability to improve his status through the
application of intelligence to his life problems of what-
ever kind. As a corrolary, we affirm that all men share
in this ability.

> This faith is basic to our support of univer-
> sal education and to universal public education
> in particular.

Necessity of social group action. Two, we affirm,
supported by research and experimentation, that the
improvement of living is best to be secured through
people working together, that individual thinking and
action while necessary to be done and necessarily
precursive of group thinking and action is, in that it
is partial, to that degree untrustworthy in itself.

This affirmation is basic to our holding that
(within the limits of a democratic society)
group discipline over individual is desirable
and proper, and that the governing are respon-
sible to the governed. We recognize, likewise,
that determination of ends in the interest of
social good is to be secured most likely in
particular and always in general through group
communication and action.

Respect for the individual. Three, we declare that
essential to one and two above is the coming into full
being of each individual according to his nature and
potentialities.

This is the basis of respect for the individual
human personality and the dedication of the educa-
tor, whether teacher or administrator, to the
individual concerns of each person whom the school
touches in its programs. It is the basis for the
provision in schools of special services of many
kinds, for cooperative supervision, for example,
and for democratic relationships through the
school organization and activity.

Functional social organization. Four, we recognize
that fundamental to the life of man as a social being is
organization for collective achievement. We recognize
further that organization in itself has no reality but
is to be understood only in terms of the ends, immediate
and remote, for which the organization was created.

This means that as the ends of education change
so educational organization must change and that
educational leadership must promote the continu-
ous study of organization and the maintenance of
fluidity in each organizational structure.

Administrator a group instrument. Five, we assert a
corollary to number four above, that school administration
stimulated by the group needs, interest, and desires is
a process for which particular organization was created
and that the individual administrator is an agent of the
group or group which are to be served.

This is the basis for holding that the adminis-
trator is a facilitating and serving agent to

the learning situation in being when pupil and
teacher come together in common educational
purpose.

Freedom of communication. Six, we believe that adminis-
tration has always as its immediate task the maintenance of
constant, multiple-way communication through the organiza-
tional structure, that in public education this means the
ready flow of ideas among all persons in the school-community,
understood as groups within a single school, a system of
schools, and the community apart from the school.

This is the basis for our contention for
multiple-way obligations and privileges in
school public relations in an idealized
community school.

Administrator as leader. Seven, we believe that as
administration is the stimulating force to the process
for which a social organization is created and that as
the administrator is the agent of the group or groups in
the administering of schools, the administrator shares
importantly in the group-given charge to administration
to work toward the ends for which the organization was
setup.

This is the basis for our holding that school
administration is educational leadership and
that the administrator needs to have a "super-
vision" of the distant ends being sought. It
is likewise the basis for our declaration that
educational leadership is group-assigned and
not seized from the group. It supports also
the contention that leadership does not remove
the leader from the group and that, for example,
the school administrator as a leader of teachers
is a teacher among teachers.

Administrator as educator. Eight, in keeping with
number seven above, and in keeping with the belief that
the ends of education are the significant objects of
administration, we hold that the primary task of the
educational administrator is leadership toward curricular
accomplishment.

This is the basis for our contention that the
education of the prospective administrator should

be strongly purposed toward his gaining under-
standing of education generally together with
competence as a fine teacher, and secondarily
toward the "kitchen" details of administration.

Dedication of public education to community betterment.
Nine, we hold further that the school administrator shares
largely in the responsibility of public education to serve
importantly in the bettering of democratic society.

This is the basis for our thinking of educational
leadership as of greater scope than that afforded
by the physical limits of the school plant or the
limits of usual school attendance. It is the basis
for our contention that schools should make a dif-
ference in the community.

School-community integration in education. Ten, as
a corollary to number nine above, we believe that public
education, formally organized, is part only of the educa-
tional processes of social living and that the public
school in the interest of greater accomplishment through
common effort, desirably should share its activity with
other social institutions and should encourage other
institutions to join in a common educational undertaking.

This is the basis for our school-and-community
interest and the development of such aspects of
the extended use of resources of both school and
community, and the community-identified curriculum.

Twofold evaluation of administration. Eleven, we
believe that appraisal of administration, as of the whole
educational activity, must lie in the terms of process
and of outcomes.

Means and ends cannot be evaluated separately.
How we do what we do conditions the ends which
will be secured and, since the ends of the educa-
tional effort are often far removed and subtle
in character, appraisal of administration through
study of outcome alone is not practicable.

Professional integrity and responsibility. Twelve,
we believe that the school administrator desirably should
be agent in the shaping of administration as a professional
activity and personally and collectively responsible for
the discipline of administrators in the larger social interest.

> This founded upon our conviction that the
> tasks of school administration are to be
> developed cooperatively by lay and professional
> people and by both preparing institutions and
> practicing administrators whose concern is the
> greater serving of society through professional
> activity dedicated to the public interest.

Necessity for professional growth. Thirteen, we
believe that, as the tasks of public education multiply
in a more and more complex world, the administrator must
develop, in preservice and in-service experience, as a
master educator.

> This is the basis for our program of preparation
> and development of school administrators and for
> our feeling that in working in the field of public
> school administration we have an occupation of
> enormous social significance.[41]

Most important to us here is the fact that a concept of human growth

and development can be taken as a second basis for selecting a set of

assumptions relevant to the phenomenon of administrative leadership

for contemporary education, since it is a major force motivating research

in this field.

Now, we have selected the uniqueness of individual perceptions and

a concept of human growth and development as the bases for determining

the relevancy of assumptions in a theory of leadership. The next step

in building is to find some assumptions which conform to these bases.

Somewhere in organized knowledge we must find some works which deal in

a major way with the uniqueness of individual human perceptions and

the phenomenon of human growth and development. This is the job of

Chapter III.

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[41]Harlan L. Hagman and Alfred Schwartz, Administration in Profile
for School Executives (New York: Harper Brothers, 1955), pp. 301-305.

# CHAPTER III

## METHODS OF STUDY

One day a science teacher in a junior high school presented his class with an interesting problem. He first held up a pencil for all of the youngsters to see, then he asked them whether the pencil was straight or bent. They agreed immediately that the pencil was straight. The teacher then emersed the pencil halfway into a beaker of water. "Now," he said, "Is the pencil bent or straight?" The class agreed that the pencil looked bent. "Well what is the pencil really," asked the teacher, "Is it straight or is it bent?" After a series of murmurs and giggles and an exchange of ideas, the class announced that the pencil was really straight, that it merely appeared bent when it was half emersed in water. "Oh," said the teacher, "but isn't it possible that the pencil may only appear straight when we look at it through the atmosphere that exists near the fact of the earth?" He was pressing for an answer now. Reluctantly, the class acknowledged that this might be true; but they argued energetically that most people would call the pencil straight. "Well, what is this pencil, then, is it really straight or is it really bent, or what?" the teacher insisted. The youngsters decided that they couldn't really tell.

What is reality? The three-pronged dilemma, What is? How do we know what is? What should we do about what is? is probably as old as man himself and has always been complicated by the differing ways in which people perceive the world in which they live and, consequently, by their differences of belief and of behavior. There is no record in archaeology, tradition, or history of when man may have first turned his attention and thought to the topic of human perception. Sketchy records of his attempts to understand this phenomenon date back to Classical antiquity. For a problem of its magnitude with profound implications for communication and human understanding, it is surprising to find that contemporary scholars have not done very much to reconstruct our history of perceptual thought.

Let us begin this chapter, nevertheless, with a discussion of the history of perceptual theory. For even a fragmentary discussion of this topic, which we must necessarily confine ourselves to here, will prove to be important to us in selecting a relevant set of assumptions in a theory of administrative leadership for contemporary education.

### The Rise of Perceptual Theory in Formal Research

Edwin G. Boring[42] notes that it was Heraclitos (in the Fifth Century B. C.) who said knowledge comes to man through the door of the senses. Protagoras (485-411 B.C.) maintained that the psychic life of people consists only of sensations. It was the Stoics who first used

[42] Edwin G. Boring, Sensation and Perception in the History of Experimental Psychology (New York: Appleton, Century, Crofts, Inc., 1942), pp. 3-45.

the figure of the tabula rasa, the blank wax-tablet of the mind upon which experience writes. Empedocles (490-435 B. C.) supposed that objects give off from their surfaces or pores, effluvia, which act upon the senses to furnish knowledge of the outer world to people. Democrites (460-370 B. C.) and Epicuros (341-270 B. C.) described these projections as faint images, simulacra or eidola of the objects which, being conducted to the mind, give it acquaintance with the objects which they represent.[43]

Such ideas as these, however, appear to have been of minor importance in the history of organized knowledge in Western culture until after the Renaissance. Boring believes that the concept of sensation became important in human thought by way of philosophical empiricism. He says, "knowledge comes to the mind through the avenues of the senses. For this reason empiricism has always been allied to sensationism. . ."[44]

Boring goes on to point out that problems of human perception were clearly a part of intellectual endeavor in Western Culture from the middle of the Sixteenth Century on. It was Thomas Hobbes (1651) who said that there is no conception in man's mind which hath not at first, totally or by parts, been begotten upon the organs of sense. John Locke (1690) depicted the mind as a piece of paper upon which experience writes. The mental element in this context was the idea which came from experience by sensation or reflection--reflections being the mind's knowledge of its own operations. Bishop Berkeley (1709, 1710) held that

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[43]Ibid.   [44]Ibid., p. 3.

the human mind is the ultimate reality and that ideas are primary in the determination of reality. Ideas were classified by Berkeley according to Aristotle's five senses—sight, touch, taste, sound, and smell—and became associated in the mind through experience. David Hume (1739-1740) called the sensory and perceptual data of the human mind impressions, using the word idea for the "faint copies" of impressions which occur in memory and imagination. Hume believed that complex ideas were synthesized in the mind by association. Hartley (1749) picked up the notion from Newton that physical action in the nervous system must be vibratory. He then paralleled vibrations in the nervous system with sensations and ideas in the mind. Hartley maintained that sensations depend upon gross vibrations in peripheral nerves and ideas, their copies, upon diminutive vibrations in the brain. Both diminutive vibrations and ideas combined according to laws of association which Hartley had worked out.[45]

An intellectual concern with understanding human sensation and perception was not limited to early British empiricists, however. Other schools of thought in several European nations were actively building a fund of knowledge regarding how people became aware of the world in which they live. As early as 1662 in France, Descartes referred to the human body as a machine which can be encited by the external objects which strike upon its organs of sense to move it in a thousand different ways. Condillac (1754) used the analogy of a statue to explain sensation, perception, and behavior. With his statue, Condillac unlocked, one by

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[45]Ibid., pp. 3-45.

one, the senses—first smell, then touch, and so on—showing how its

mind would be generated through this constant addition of more and

more sense-experience. La Mettrie (1748) and Bonnet (1760) wrote in

a similar vein.[46]

It was Thomas Reid (1765, 1784) in Scotland who founded the school

of faculty psychology and thereby helped to establish the primacy of

sensation in psychology. As a matter of fact, Reid was the first to

insist upon a distinction between sensation and perception. Dugal

Stewart (1792, 1827) reinforced Reid with less to say about perception

and more to say about the intellectual powers of the mind. Thomas Brown

(1820) brought Scottish psychology into relation with British associa-

tionism—a school of thought generated by early empiricism.[47]

James Mill (1829) began an English school of psychology which is

often regarded as the culmination of associationism. Mill pictured

simple ideas as compounded by association into complex, and complex

into more complex, up to "the idea called everything," that might somehow

be an associative compound of every idea of a thing. For a time, from

about the last quarter of the Eighteenth through the first quarter of

the Nineteenth Centuries, philosophy with its infant field of psychology

and its theories of sensation and perception appears to have grown

apart from the thinking in the field of physiology. Charles Bell's

discovery in 1811 and Magendies confirmation in 1822 of a "muscular

sense," however, tended to bring physiology closer to philosophy,

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[46]Ibid.    [47]Ibid.

psychology, and perceptual thought. These men found that nerves are of two kinds, sensory and motor. This dichotomy of nervous action into sensory and motor types reminded physiologists that the minds sensations were as much their business as the muscle's movements. Johannes Müller (1826) divided the sensory field into five--sight, touch, taste, sound, smell--by his doctrine of specific energies of nerves. He gave physiological meaning to the difference by asserting that each sense has its own specific energy and can respond only with its own peculiar quality. By the middle of the Nineteenth Century the sense physiology of physiologists and sensationists psychology of the philosophers were ready for synthesis.[48]

Lotze (1852) wrote the first physiological psychology. Wundt (1858) first conceived the notion of a physiological psychology as a new and experimental psychology that should apply the methods of science to the problems of the mind. For systematic structure in his work Wundt drew upon associationists. His book takes up in order the nervous system, the psychic elements (sensations and feelings), formation of sensory perceptions of space, time and intensity, movement and will, and finally the connection of mental processes through association, apperception, and consciousness. Wundt's psychology is an associa-tionistic sensationism. Fechner's experiments in psychophysics (1860), Helmholtz's researches in physiological acoustics (1863) and physiological optics (1856, 1866) reinforced Wundt's theory as did all the other sensory researches before 1870. Kulpe (1893) and Titchener (1896)

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[48] Ibid.

continued research in this vein. They were concerned with counting the variety of sensations within a given sense, such as discriminately different visual brightnesses, range of hues, tones, kinds of touches, etc.[49]

For some psychologists who followed Wundt and Titchener's tradition, experimental psychology emerged with a strong physiological bent. It disintegrated, in part, into researches on attributes of sensation, their number and the nature of an attribute. Today,however, there is still considerable concern with the physiological aspects of human perception. For other psychologists, early conceptions of human sensation in empiricism and associationism were taken up--particularly those which dealt with the static, observable qualities of reality-- and were employed in a new way through experimental psychology in what has been called behaviorism. Since the turn of the Twentieth Century American scholars have emphasized the behavioral approach to psycholotical inquiry. It was John B. Watson (1913) who invented behaviorism. Behaviorism became accepted as psychology in the 1930's and has been subsumed by modern positivism. The similarity between positivism--the view that an entity derives its meaning from an understanding of the operations by which it is observed and any term its meaning by an analysis of the language which gives it significance--and stimulus-response psychology as well as normative approaches to understanding human behavior is apparent. In this view sensation and perception are considered as physiological characteristics of living things, for the most part, and

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[49]Ibid.

emphasis is upon the observation of the externalities of behavior demonstrated by people and other animals.[50]

The view that human perception should be the focal point for understanding human behavior appears to have been a minority conception down through the ages. This notion was implicit in the thoughts about sensation and perception handed down in Western culture from Classical antiquity. It may have received a faint and rudimentary expression early in the empirical movement. Not until Gestalt psychology appeared, however, did the uniqueness of individual perceptions as a frame of reference for explaining human behavior receive a place of prominence in the field of psychology. With the advent of newer conceptions of relativity in physical science, the relativity of human perceptions rose in importance in psychological inquiry as a discrete orientation for explaining human behavior. Within this orientation, attention is focused on what goes on inside the individual—upon the internal dimensions of human behavior—and explanations of what people are, how we know what they are, and what we should do about it, are derived on this basis.[51]

## Modern Studies Premised Upon the Personal, Perceptual Point of View

Eventually the personal, perceptual frame of reference for understanding human behavior was taken over and applied in many fields of inquiry. Evidence of the rising popularity in America of the personal,

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[50]Ibid.    [51]Ibid.

perceptual point of view as a research approach to explain how people

behave is to be found in the following scholarly works which have

appeared on the academic scene during the last quarter of a century.

Such men as Angyal,[52] Maslow,[53] Mowrer and Kluckhorn,[54] Lecky,[55]

Masserman,[56] Murphy,[57] and Rogers[58] have all approached the problem of

explaining human personality from this general point of view. Krechevsky,[59]

Leeper,[60] and Snygg[61] have used this approach to an understanding of the

psychology of learning, as has Hilgard[62] in a recent analysis of the

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[52]A. Angyal, Foundations for a Science of Personality (New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1941).

[53]A. H. Maslow, "Dynamics of Personality Organization," Psychological Review, L (1943), 514-558.

[54]O. H. Mowrer and C. Kluckhorn, "Dynamic Theory of Personality," ed. J. McV. Hunt, Personality and the Behavior Disorders (New York: Ronald, 1944).

[55]Prescott Lecky, Self Consistency: A Theory of Personality (New York: Island Press, 1945).

[56]J. H. Masserman, Principles of Dynamic Psychiatry (Philadelphia: Saunders, 1946).

[57]G. Murphy, Personality: A Biosocial Approach to Origins and Structure (New York: Harper & Bros., 1947).

[58]C. R. Rogers, "The Organization of Personality," American Psychologist, II (1947), 358-368.

[59]I. Krechevsky, "'Hypothesis' versus 'chance' in the Pre-solution Period in Sensory Discrimination Learning," University of California Publications in Psychology, VI (1932), 27-44.

[60]R. A. Leeper, "A Study of a Neglected Portion of the Field of Learning--the Development of Sensory Organization," Journal of Genetical Psychology, XLVI (1935), 41-75.

[61]D. Snygg, "The Need for a Phenomenological System of Psychology," Psychological Review, XLVIII (1941), 404-424.

[62]E. R. Hilgard, Theories of Learning (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1948).

subject. Bartlett's[63] classic on remembering and a less-known but important research on the same topic by Wees and Line[64] both employ the personal, perceptual point of view. Lewin and his colleagues[65] as well as Sherif and Cantril[66] have demonstrated the usefulness of this approach to social psychology. Clinical psychologists like Combs,[67] Raimy,[68] Rogers,[69] Rosenzweig,[70] and many others base their theory and practice upon the client's personal field. Gordon Allport[71] with his personalistic psychology and L. K. Frank[72] with his "private worlds"

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[63]F. C. Bartlett, Remembering (New York: Macmillan, 1932).

[64]W. Wees and W. Line, "The Influence of the Form of Presentation Upon Reproduction: The Principle of Determination," British Journal of Psychology, XXVIII (1937), 167-189.

[65]K. Lewin, et. al., "Patterns of Aggressive Behavior in Experimentally Created 'Social Climates,'" Journal of Social Psychology, X (1939), 271-299.

[66]M. Sherif and H. Cantril, The Psychology of Ego Involvements (New York: Wiley, 1947).

[67]A. W. Combs, "Phenomenological Concepts in Non-Directive Therapy," Journal of Consulting Psychology, XII (1948), 197-208.

[68]V. C. Raimy, "The Self-Concept as a Factor in Counseling and Personality Organization" (unpublished Doctoral thesis, Ohio State University, 1943).

[69]Rogers, Op. Cit.

[70]S. Rosenzweig, "An Outline of Frustration Theory," ed. J. McV. Hunt, Personality and the Behavior Disorders (New York: Ronald, 1944), 379-388.

[71]G. W. Allport, "The Psychologist's Frame of Reference," Psychological Bulletin, XXXVII (1940), 1-28.

[72]L. K. Frank, "Projective Methods for the Study of Personality," Journal of Psychology, VIII (1939), 389-413.

have been using the same frame of reference for quite some time. In

the field of industrial psychology Elton Mayo[73] and F. J. Roethlisberger[74]

have discovered the principle that the most potent factor in the produc-

tion rate of a worker is not the physical conditions in his environment

but the meanings which he ascribes to them. Snygg and Combs[75] have

utilized the personal frame of reference in constructing a general

theory of human behavior. And the field analysis of automobile driving

by Gibson and Crooks,[76] an outstanding classic in the field of driver

psychology, also is premised on the personal, perceptual point of view.

In the area of teaching psychology, Robert Bills[77] has employed the

same approach for understanding the teaching process.

All of these studies appear potentially useful to us in selecting

a set of relevant assumptions for a theory of administrative leadership

in education. Each assumes the uniqueness of individual perceptions as

a basic frame of reference from which other phenomena are observed. And

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[73]Elton Mayo, The Human Problems of an Industrial Civilization
(Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press, 1945).

[74]F. J. Roethlisberger and W. J. Dickson, Management and the
Worker (Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press, 1939).

[75]Donald Snygg and Arthur W. Combs, Individual Behavior: A
New Frame of Reference for Psychology (New York: Harper & Bros., 1949).

[76]J. J. Gibson and L. E. A. Crooks, "A Theoretical Field-Analysis
of Automobile Driving," American Journal of Psychology, LI (1938), 453-
471.

[77]Robert Bills, About People and Teaching (College of Education,
Bureau of School Service Bulletin," Vol. XXVIII, No. 2: Lexington, Ky.:
University of Kentucky Press, 1955).

the uniqueness of human perceptions was found in Chapter II to be one

of the bases upon which relevant assumptions should be selected. However,

upon closer analysis, it becomes apparent that many of these studies

are not relevant to administrative leadership in education after all,

even though they deal in a primary way with the relativity of human

perception. At the close of Chapter II we set out in search of a set

of assumptions which not only dealt with the uniqueness of individual

perception, but which also dealt with the phenomenon of human growth and

development in a major way.

Most of these works are not useful in this theory building venture

because they do not deal in general with structuring principles which

govern human development. For example, Krechevsky's, "Hypothesis'

versus 'chance' in the Presolution Period of Sensory Discrimination

Learning," and Leeper's, "A Study of A Neglected Portion of the Field of

Learning—the Development of Sensory Organization," are extremely

limited in those facets of human growth with which they deal. The aim

of these studies is specific not general understanding.

Angyal's, Foundations for a Science of Personality, Maslow's,

"Dynamics of Personality Organization," Mowrer and Kluckhorn's, "Dynamic

Theory of Personality," Roger's "The Organization of Personality,"

Snygg's, "The Need for a Phenomenological System of Psychology,"

Allport's, "The Psychologist's Frame of Reference," and Frank's,

"Projective Methods for the Study of Personality," are all concerned

in one way or another with legitimizing the personal, perceptual point of

view as a useful frame of reference for psychological inquiry. While

these studies deal thoroughly with the uniqueness of human perception, their main concern is not to conceptualize broadly upon what is involved in the process of human growth.[78]

Several of the studies focus upon the techniques of psychiatry and the identification of forms of mental illness. Their primary concern is to improve upon the ways in which mental illness can be cured or obviated. These studies include Masserman's, "Principles of Dynamic Psychiatry," Combs, "Phenomenological Concepts in Non-Directive Therapy," Rainy's, "The Self-Concept as a Factor in Counseling and Personality Organization," and Rosenweig's, "An Outline of Frustration Theory."

Bartlett's, Remembering, Wees and Line's, "The Influence of the Form of Presentation Upon Reproduction," and Crook's, "A Theoretical Field Analysis of Automobile Driving," all dwell upon special concerns which are far afield from the task of explaining the general principles which lie behind human growth and development. Mayo's, The Human Problems of an Industrial Civilization, and Roethlisberger and Dickson's, Management and the Worker, are examples of a psycho-therapeutic approach to solving the problems of industrial administration.

Murphy's, Personality: A Biosocial Approach to Origins and Structure is an ecclectic theory of personality which employs, but fails to emphasize either the uniqueness of human perceptions or concepts of human growth. And Lewin's, "Patterns of Aggressive Behavior

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[78]For a more thorough analysis of some of these studies the reader may wish to refer to Calvin S. Hall and Gardner Lindsey, Theories of Personality (New York: Wiley Press, 1957). Note particularly the table of analysis on page 548 in this text.

in Experimentally Created 'Social Climates,'" as well as Sherif and

Cantril's, "The Psychology of Ego Involvements," are, as their titles

imply, aimed at solving specific problems within the broader domain of

the growth phenomenon.[79] Hilgard's, Theories of Learning, meanwhile,

takes at its special task the analysis of several existing theories

of learning. It is not the primary purpose of this work to conceptualize

a new explanation of how people grow and develop.

On the basis of this analysis, it is clear that many of the studies

which employ the personal, perceptual point of view as a frame of refer-

ence for research observation do not concern themselves in a primary

way with formulating principles of human growth and development. There

are, however, three modern studies among those mentioned above which do

conform to the bases of relevancy cited in Chapter II for a set of

assumptions in a theory of administrative leadership for contemporary

education. These are Prescott Lecky's, Self-Consistency: A Theory of

Personality; Donald Snygg and Arthur Comb's, Individual Behavior: A

New Frame of Reference for Psychology; and Robert Bill's, About People

and Teaching. Each of these extensive explanations of human behavior

assumes that the uniqueness of human perceptions is the appropriate

starting place for understanding the complexity of man in action. And

each of these studies is devoted, almost entirely, to formulating the

details of how people grow.

Lecky's work, for example, is premised upon the following definition

of personality:

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[79]Ibid., pp. 532-36, 548.

> The individual must define for himself the nature
> of that totality which he is. He must throughout life
> assimilate new experiences in such fashion as both to
> be and to appear a living unit. The practical consequence
> is that new habits are made, and old ones lost, not in
> terms of sheer conditioning or habit formation, not in
> terms of isolated neural bonds,but in terms of assimi-
> lation, as the individual conceives the forward step to
> be a continuation and fulfillment of himself.[80]

With this concept as a starting point Lecky goes on to weave the details

of how we grow.

Snygg and Combs start from a similar reference point. They call

self-consistency by another name, self-organization. Like Lecky they

are concerned with how the human organism operates as a growing,

adapting, experience-assimilating creature. But they extend their

conceptualizing into the realm of socialization and attempt to formulate

an explanation of how membership in purposive organizations can facilitate

or deter human development.

Bills work aims to integrate many of the principles of human

behavior which have emerged in perceptual psychology. He fashions an

explanation of how people grow and develop on that basis. Bills also

deals with the special problem of identifying general types of human

personality and explaining how each hinders or enhances growth and

development in social situations.

We may say, then, that there are at least three existing studies

in the expanse of organized knowledge which appear to be relevant to a

theory of administrative leadership for contemporary education. These

are:

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[80]Lecky, Op. Cit., p. 1.

1. Prescott Lecky, Self-Consistency: A Theory of Personality (New York: Island Press, 1945).

2. Donald Syngg and Arthur W. Combs, Individual Behavior: A New Frame of Reference for Psychology (New York: Harper & Bros., 1949).

3. Robert Bills, About People and Teaching ("College of Education, Bureau of School Service Bulletin," Vol. XXVIII, No. 2; Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky Press, 1955).

Our next task in theory building is to abstract from these works a single set of assumptions. In order to avoid misunderstanding here, let us break this job into four parts. First, we need a more detailed explanation of the nature of the personal, perceptual point of view as a frame of reference for understanding human behavior. Then we should define the unique terms and constructs which perceptual psychologists employ. Next, we need to extract and explain the basic assumptions about growth and development which are contained in these three studies. Finally, we ought to summarize these assumptions in outline form in a single Philosophy of Human Growth and Development. Then when we begin theorizing about leadership in Chapter IV inferences drawn from the assumptions and applied to the operational definition of leadership set forth in Chapter II can be traced in a systematic and efficient manner.

## The Nature of the

## Personal, Perceptual Frame of Reference

The studies of Lecky, Snygg and Combs, and Bills all start from the premise that human perceptions are relative to the perceiver. This

means that each of us views the world somewhat differently, and, accordingly, we are motivated to act in different ways. If I believe that it is bad luck to break a mirror, I will be very careful when handling them. But if I dismiss as superstition the notion that break-ing mirrors brings bad luck, I may handle them indifferently. I may even deliberately break a mirror or two just to prove that the super-stition is unfounded. Or, if I believe that it is pleasant and relaxing to drink a Martini before dinner, I will look forward to an evening cocktail with pleasure when I return home from the office. But if I believe that drinking is immoral and degrading, I will avoid drinking Martinis and will seek other ways of deriving personal pleasure at the end of the day. If I believe in ghosts, I will probably be afraid to go out alone in the dark. And if I believe in phrenology, chances are I will have the lumps on my head examined.

How we view the world, how we evaluate what we perceive, deter-mines how we will act in any situation. It is true that at any point in time our personal perceptions may be conditioned by our immediate needs, values, physiological condition, our beliefs about ourselves and others, by perceptions of threat, and by the opportunity to perceive which is afforded to each of us. Nevertheless, basic to an understanding of human behavior from the personal perceptual point of view, is the notion that what we perceive determines what we believe; and what we believe determines how we will behave.

If perceptions are relative to the perceiver, what then is reality? From the perceptual point of view reality is rightly understood as an

overlapping or commonality of perceptions among people. Realities exist when people agree to ascribe certain meanings to things in the outside world. This is a book. This is a house. This is a cow. This is a dog. This is a cat. Languages, mathematical systems, ideas all become realities by agreement. Perceptual theorists argue that people are able to think and to communicate with each other only to the extent that some commonality in perception exists. This concept of reality is a difficult one to fathom, for most of us learn early in life to habituate ourselves to the realities of the human groups in which we live. The process of habituation is so gradual, and at the same time so pervasive, that we are usually unmindful that it is taking place. A person has only to visit a kindergarten class in any of our public schools, however, to sit for a while and observe how much there is for children to absorb of our realities--customs, beliefs, behaviors, and traditions, as well as tools of communication--to realize the plausibility of the perceptual notion of reality.

## A Definition of Terms
## Employed by Perceptual Psychologists

In addition to the assumptions that perceptions are relative to the perceived; that beliefs stem from perception; that behavior is motivated by beliefs; and that human reality is constructed by agreement in social situations; perceptual psychologists employ a number of unique terms and constructs in working through the personal, perceptual frame of reference.

Perceptions they define as any and all of the awarenesses people sense in a world going on inside and outside of themselves.

Beliefs are convictions or items of faith that people hold in regard to any and all aspects of the things that they perceive. Beliefs are derived from perceptions by evaluation and selection. Once held, beliefs tend to condition subsequent perceptions.

Self-Concepts are the perceptions people have about themselves as they believe they actually are. When a person thinks or says, "I am this," or, "I am that," he is verbalizing upon his concepts of self.

Ideal Self-Concepts are the perceptions people have about themselves as they believe they would like ideally to be. When a person thinks or says, "I wish I was this," or, "I wish I was that," he is verbalizing upon his concepts of ideal self.

Phenomena is a word used to describe any and all of the things which can be perceived.

Self-Organization is defined as the sum total of perceptions that people have about themselves and the world in which they live. Self-Organization includes people's concepts of themselves as they believe they actually are; people's concepts of themselves as they believe they would like ideally to be; people's concepts of other living and non-living things as they believe they actually are; and people's concepts of other things as they believe they would like ideally for them to be.

Propensity to Change is the discrepancy a person perceives between his self-concept and his ideal self-concept.

Threat is an essence that is perceived by people in those situations where they fear consequence to their self-concepts and in situations where they fear the destruction of their physical selves. Threat exists in those situations where people believe that unless they accept another person's values and beliefs as their own they will be humiliated and degraded.

Challenge is an essence of those situations which are perceived by people as problematical, but in which the problems appear solvable by the application of additional effort.

Now, with these basic premises, definitions, and constructs clearly in mind let us turn to an explanation of the assumptions about human growth and development contained in the three studies we have selected for analysis.

## Basic Assumptions About Human Growth and Development

People are motivated to improve themselves and their environment.[81] We are all self-interested creatures. We may believe in the dignity and worth of others and often we will act in their behalf, but whenever we do it is for the personal satisfaction that we derive through our own self-denial and self-sacrifice. Whether it is the acquisition of a new car, a better loin cloth, a more accurate bow, a new fur coat, a more productive piece of land, a faster camel, or a more efficient set of storm windows, we are all concerned with placing ourselves in

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[81] Snygg, Op. Cit., pp. 10-20, 28-29, 132; and Lecky, Op. Cit., pp. 3, 30, 67, 80.

an improved--a more harmonious, more advantageous, more comfortable,

and more satisfying--relationship with the world in which we live.

Building and maintaining such a relationship is of first order of

importance to us. Teachers who have bargained with school boards for

improved salary schedules can attest to this motivation, as can school

administrators who have led bond drives for new schoolbuildings and

college deans who have coordinated institutional self-evaluation studies.

The fact that we have a formal system of education and are concerned

with advancing our control over environment through an endless extension

of our knowledge appears to stem from a deep-set conviction that people

can and do improve upon their lot and upon the world in which they live.

The motivation of people to improve is aimed at maintaining or

enhancing self-organization.[82] In situations where people perceive

threat, they act consistently to preserve or maintain their self-concepts.[83]

If the schoolhouse suddenly catches on fire, we are eager to run outside

to safety. We are content to preserve our self-organization and will

settle for getting out of the burning building alive. In situations

which appear nonthreatening, however, people will strive to enhance

self-organization.[84] People also act to maintain themselves at some

level of biological efficiency.[85] And they will act to relieve their

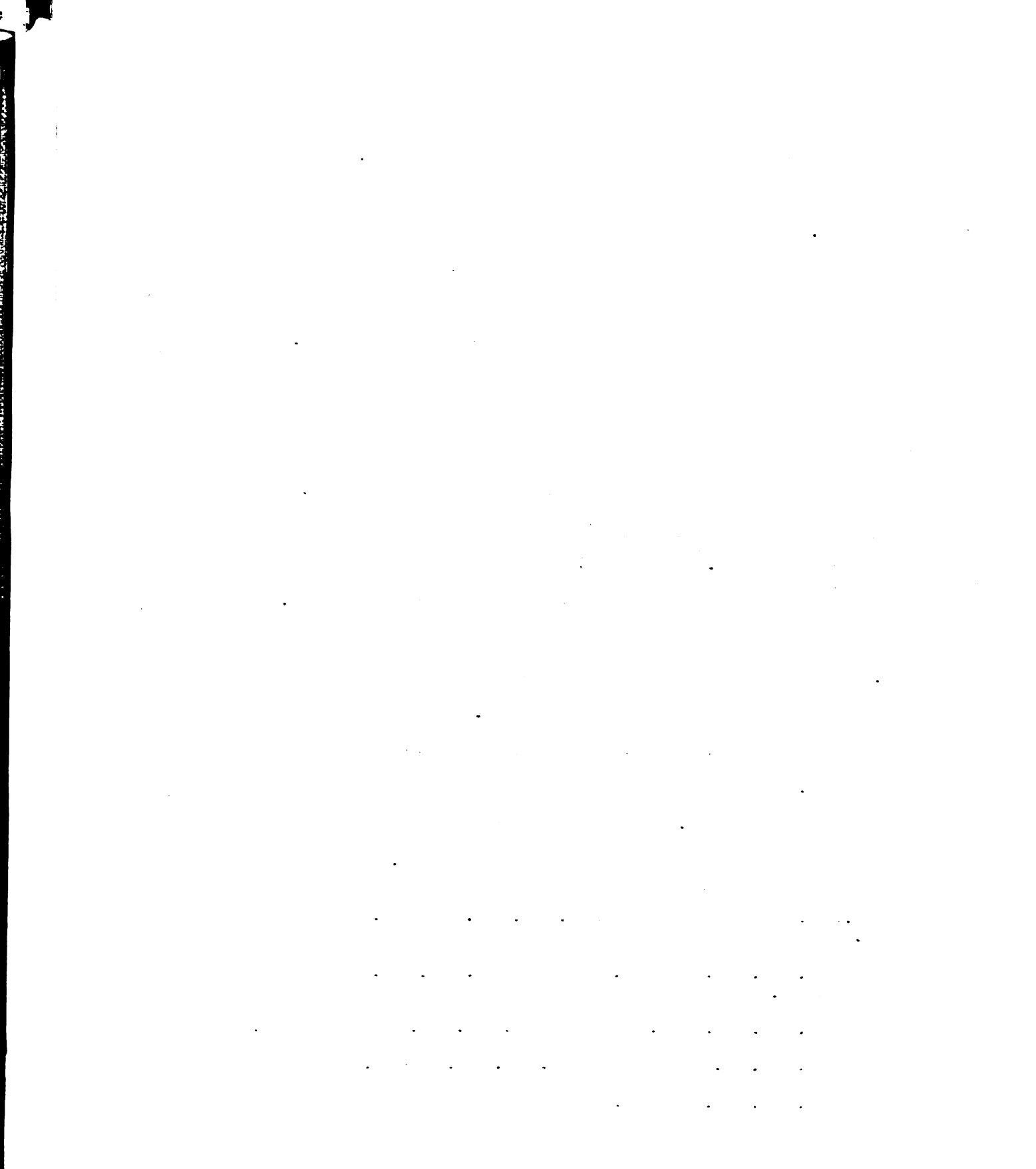propensity to change in those situations which are repetitive.[86]

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[82] Ibid., pp. 28-29, 79; and Lecky, Op. Cit., pp. 55, 58ff., 80-83, 93, 136.

[83] Lecky, Op. Cit., pp. 30, 83ff.; and Snygg, Op. Cit., pp. 52-77, 104, 107-8, 111, 130.

[84] Lecky, Op. Cit., pp. 83ff.; and Snygg, Op. Cit., pp. 107-8, 111, 130.

[85] Lecky, Op. Cit., p. 41; and Snygg, Op. Cit., pp. 100-101.

[86] Lecky, Op. Cit., pp. 7, 70-71.

In situations where people perceive that their actions taken to maintain or enhance self-organization are successful, they cease to act in those ways.[87] After a hearty meal, we find it more pleasant to relax in a comfortable chair than to contemplate food, and we are likely to seek satisfaction by reading a good book or by watching a program on television. The pleasant aromas of cooking that came from the kitchen are no longer vivid in our memory after dinner. As John Dewey has said, ends are means; and as we achieve each goal in life we are driven to move on to other ones.

The motivation of people to improve leads them to change their beliefs about self-organization in a manner they perceive to be good for them, and in this way they grow and develop.[88] The graduate student is likely to have different beliefs about the world in which he lives before graduation than he has once the diploma is in his hands. Similarly, the professor is inclined to view and to evaluate the world differently when he is made department head, and department heads alter their perspective when elevated to a dean's chair. In each case these people change their self- and ideal self-concepts as they move into different social positions. Regardless of the social position in which they find themselves, however, they will seek to attain their ideal self-concepts, striving onward toward new and more satisfactory personal goals.

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[87]Ibid., p. 72.

[88]Ibid., pp. 13, 83ff., 110; and Snygg, Op. Cit., pp. 91-96, 112-113.

Individual growth and development takes place in an environment
and is markedly affected by it.[89] For example, people seek to identify
themselves with certain purposive social organizations, and these groups
influence their growth and development in many ways.[90] We seek to
identify ourselves with human groups which satisfy our needs to maintain
or enhance self-organization and tend to withdraw from groups whose
approval we are unable to win, whose approval we do not care to win, or
from groups which no longer satisfy our needs to maintain and enhance
self-organization.[91] For example, if I am a sincere and devoted teacher,
I will probably do my best to find employment in the educational profes-
sion. It will not occur to me that I should rob banks or work in filling
stations for a living. But if my love of teaching is outweighed by a
desire to provide for my family at a higher economic level than the
profession offers, I may go into business for myself, or find a job in
a shop or factory. Similarly, if I am unable to qualify myself for
employment in the educational profession after repeated attempts, I will
sooner or later look around for another line of work.

The identification of a person with a group leads him to adopt
and defend the standards and behavior of the group.[92] These standards
are used to evaluate the behavior and importance of others.[93] Members
of a group are inclined to accept and approve those people who seem to

[89] Lecky, Op. Cit., pp. 41, 55, 81ff.; and Snygg, Op. Cit., pp. 13, 28-29, 78, 113.

[90] Snygg, Op. Cit., pp. 181, 186-9.    [91] Ibid., pp. 186-9.

[92] Ibid.    [93] Ibid.

them to be important; the person who is able to behave in ways admired

by members of a group will be sought as an associate, providing his

acceptance will enhance the self-concepts of the members.[94]  By the

same token, people who behave in ways condemned by a group are avoided

and rejected.[95]  For these reasons, social systems are comprised of

many inter-dependent human groups with members in each holding discrete

beliefs which are, in general, common to their own groups but which

are to some extent uncommon to other groups in the social system as a

whole.  Therefore, when human groups relate with each other to accomplish

mutual goals, conflicts arise in decision making due to differences in

beliefs about reality.[96]  Such conflict tends to engender threat, and

threat tends to intensify conflict.  Human growth and development does

not result from social relations in this kind of situation, for in

situations where people perceive threat they are motivated to act in

ways designed to maintain rather than enhance self-organization.[97]

The problem of social conflict is a common one in the United States.

Our nation has sprung up in a relatively short span of time and is com-

prised of people from many cultural backgrounds with extremely diverse

beliefs.  Added to this is the fact that Americans are rapidly becoming

exceptionally mobile people.  We frequently move about on this job or

that, and we think nothing of travelling several hundred miles overnight

to new employment in a strange community.  Mobility tends to faster

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[94]Ibid.     [95]Ibid.     [96]Ibid., pp. 190-203.

[97]Ibid.

social conflict, since it serves incessantly to throw together within
our population people who have different beliefs about reality. Appeals
to the new, the novel, and the changing set forth by American advertisers
and our enterprise of business also tend to create social conflict in
our country, since people's beliefs and ideal self-concepts are con-
stantly being modified in a random, yet thorough-going, manner.

Because social conflict is the rule of socialization in the United
States, rather than the exception, we are able to classify Americans
into three bread psychological groups according to the ways in which
they perceive themselves and others in social situations.[98] Some
people believe that they are worthwhile but that others are less
worthwhile than themselves. Some people, on the other hand, believe
that other people are worthwhile but that they, themselves, are not.
A third group of people believe that both themselves and others are of
mutual worth.[99]

Of the three types of personalities, only those people who accept
themselves and others perceive the realities of social situations and
are potentially able to act in socially satisfying ways.[100] People
who accept self and others are democratic individuals. They have a
high regard for the dignity, worth, and integrity of people, including
themselves; and they have faith in the efficacy of group action.[101]

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[98]Bills, Op. Cit., p. 20.

[99]Ibid., and Snygg, Op. Cit., pp. 136-140.

[100]Lecky, Op. Cit., p. 3; Snygg, Op. Cit., pp. 136-140, 187; and
Bills, Op. Cit., pp. 16-19.

[101]Bills, Op. Cit., p. 21.

People who accept others but not self may be socially sensitive, but in social situations their behavior is designed to secure the approval of others rather than to achieve their ideal self-concepts. Therefore, personalities of this kind do not grow and develop in socially satisfying ways.[102] Those individuals who accept themselves but not others believe themselves to be accepted by others, but in fact they are rejected by them. Their attempts to enhance phenomenal self--to grow and develop-- are resisted by others. Such people usually fall back on authority to achieve their ideal self-concepts, or they seek to leave the social situation in which they are participating.[103]

People's perceptions of self and others can be measured through inference from their behavior and used to indicate their growth and development toward maturity as social beings.[104] As a matter of fact, striking relationships have been shown to exist between perceptions and behavior. Characteristic patterns of behavior have been found to accompany each of the three basic personality types.

Characteristic patterns of behavior have been established for the ways in which people communicate with others.[105] People who accept themselves and others tend to use the personal pronouns we, us, and ours; few evaluative adjectives and adverbs; and make few comparisons

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[102]Snygg, Op. Cit., pp. 124, 126, 187.

[103]Ibid., p. 187; and Lecky, Op. Cit., pp. 120-126.

[104]Snygg, Op. Cit., pp. 21ff., 29-33, 43ff., 190; Lecky, Op. Cit. pp. 19-25, 30-31, 42-45, 113; and Bills, Op. Cit., pp. 22-24.

[105]Bills, Op. Cit., pp. 22-24.

in their speech and writing. People who accept others but not themselves tend to use the personal pronouns I, my, and mine; many evaluative adjectives and adverbs directed toward themselves; and significantly more comparisons in their speech and writing than do personalities of the first type above. And people who accept themselves but not others tend to use the personal pronouns they, their, theirs; many evaluative adjectives and adverbs directed toward others; and significantly more comparisons in their speech and writing than either of the other two personality types mentioned above.[106]

Characteristic patterns of behavior have been established with respect to people's accuracy of perception.[107] People who accept self and others tend to be of average accuracy in their perceptions of reality. People who accept others but not self are significantly over-accurate in their perceptions of reality. While people who accept self but not others tend to be significantly inaccurate in their perceptions of reality.[108]

Characteristic patterns of behavior have been established with respect to the response of the various types of personalities to a task.[109] People who accept themselves and others tend to achieve a steady rate of progress through completion of an assigned task. Those who accept others but not themselves speed up their efforts to complete a task in the presence of authority. People who accept themselves but not others slow down and decrease their effort as they approach completion of an assigned task.[110]

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[106] Ibid.   [107] Ibid.   [108] Ibid.   [109] Ibid.   [110] Ibid.

<u>People will act to maintain or to enhance self-organization</u>

<u>in social situations depending, in large part, on their perceptions of</u>

<u>threat in those situations.</u>[111] Those people who accept themselves are

less likely to perceive threat in social situations and will seek to

enhance self-organization.[112] On the other hand, those people who do

not accept self are more likely to perceive threat in social situations

and will seek to maintain self-organization.[113] Thus, strengthening

people's beliefs in themselves is important for human growth and

development.

   <u>Each perceived goal in a person's ideal self-concept sets up</u>

<u>perceptions of obstacles to be overcome for attainment, and these</u>

<u>obstacles directly affect that person's growth and development.</u>[114]

If I decide that a college education would be a fine experience for me,

I will probably take into consideration the financial burden that going

to college entails, the money I will lose by not working while at school,

and other factors of this kind, before I actually enroll in a collegiate

program. If a person believes that a perceived goal is achievable, he

will be motivated to enhance self-organization.[115] However, if a

person believes that a perceived goal is too remote to be achieved, he

will be motivated to maintain self-organization.[116] The difficulty to

be overcome, perceived with each new goal, as well as the prospects for

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[111]Snygg, <u>Op. Cit.</u>, pp. 137-140; and Lecky, <u>Op. Cit.</u>, pp. 52-53.

[112]Snygg, <u>Op. Cit.</u>, pp. 137-140.

[113]Ibid.

[114]Lecky, <u>Op. Cit.</u>, pp. 41-42; and Snygg, <u>Op. Cit.</u>, pp. 51, 101.

[115]Lecky, <u>Op. Cit.</u>, p. 42.     [116]Ibid.

our overcoming it, determines in large measures whether we will be motivated to grow and develop in each goal structuring situation.

At bottom, human growth and development is occasioned by people's changing perceptions of self-organization and subsequent changes in their behavior.[117] Once people act and achieve a goal, their perceptions of self-organization are modified.[118] Subsequent behavior is based on the new perceptions of self-organization.[119]

The growth and development of people, through modification of their perceptions of self-organization, can be cultivated effectively in at least five ways.[120] As people gain more adequate information about their self-organization in social situations where they feel accepted, they will be inclined to grow and develop in socially satisfying ways.[121] People will also tend to grow and develop in a socially satisfactory manner as they restructure perceptions of their ideal self-concepts through experience.[122] As people perceive inconsistencies among values in their ideal self-concepts, they will strive to relieve them, and in this way, as well, they will tend to grow and develop effectively.[123] Similarly, people who perceive inconsistencies

[117]Ibid., pp. 75-77; and Snygg, Op. Cit., pp. 34-51, 216.

[118]Lecky, Op. Cit., pp. 52-53.     [119]Ibid.

[120]Ibid., pp. 7-13, 50-51, 76-77, 82ff., 137ff.; and Snygg, Op. Cit., pp. 28-29.

[121]Lecky, Op. Cit., pp. 19, 58ff., 82; and Snygg, Op. Cit., pp. 28-29.

[122]Lecky, Op. Cit., pp. 19, 50, 58ff., 82; and Snygg, Op. Cit., pp. 28-29.

[123]Lecky, Op. Cit., pp. 10, 19, 51, 58ff., 82; and Snygg, Op. Cit., pp. 28-29.

between their self-concepts and ideal self-concepts will, in a threat
free environment, tend to grow and develop satisfactorily.[124] And as
people experience success in relieving their propensity to change
they, too, will tend to grow and develop in socially satisfying ways.[125]

Since purposive human groups are aggregates of people which,
through their reflection of human personality, in some ways behave like
people, an understanding of the behavior of human groups can be approached
in much the same way that we approach an understanding of human person-
ality.[126] Like people, human groups come into being, grow and develop,
maintain status, and go out of existence.[127] Human groups also respond
to threat the same way that people do.[128] Hence much of the terminology,
the laws and principles, and the instruments of measurement which we
employ for understanding growth and development in people can be applied
to the problems of understanding growth and development among purposive
human organizations.

### A Philosophy of Human Growth and Development

Assumption 1.--People are motivated to improve themselves and their
environment.

Assumption 2.--The motivation of people to improve is aimed at
maintaining or enhancing self-organization.

Corollary A.--In situations where people perceive threat,
they act consistently to preserve or maintain
their self concepts.

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[124]Lecky, Op. Cit., pp. 19, 58ff., 82; and Snygg, Op. Cit., pp. 28-29.

[125]Snygg, Op. Cit., pp. 28-29.    [126]Ibid., pp. 190-203.

[127]Ibid.    [128]Ibid., pp. 181-182.

Corollary B.--In situations which appear non-threatening, people strive to enhance self-organization.

Corollary C.--People act to relieve propensity to change in those situations which are repetitive.

Corollary D.--People act to maintain self at some level of biological efficiency.

Assumption 3.--In situations where people perceive that their actions taken to maintain or enhance self-organization are successful, they cease to act in those ways.

Assumption 4.--The motivation of people to improve leads them to change their beliefs about self-organization in a manner they perceive to be good for them, and in this way they grow and develop.

Assumption 5.--Individual growth and development takes place in an environment and is markedly affected by it. For example, people seek to identify themselves with purposive social organizations, and these groups influence their growth and development.

Corollary A.--People seek to identify themselves with human groups which satisfy their needs to maintain or enhance self-organization.

Corollary B.--People tend to withdraw from groups whose approval they are unable to win or from groups which no longer satisfy their needs to maintain and enhance self-organization.

Corollary C.--Identification of an individual with a group leads him to adopt and defend the standards and behavior of the group.

Corollary D.--By identifying with particular groups, people adopt sets of standards by which they evaluate the behavior and importance of others.

Corollary E.--Members of a group accept and approve those individuals who seem to them to be important.

Corollary F.--The person who is able to behave in ways admired by members of a group will be sought as an associate providing his acceptance will enhance the self concepts of the members.

Corollary G.--People who behave in ways condemned by
the group are avoided and rejected.

Assumption 6.--Social systems are comprised of many interdependent
human groups with members in each holding discrete
beliefs about self-organization which are generally
common to their groups but which are generally
uncommon to other groups in the social system as
a whole; therefore, when human groups relate with
each other to accomplish mutual goals, conflict
in decision making ensues from different beliefs
and perceptions about self-organization to block
the enhancement of self-organization for all of
the people who are involved.

Corollary A.--Social conflict engenders threat.

Corollary B.--Threat intensifies conflict and deters
human growth and development by motivating
human behavior which is designed to main-
tain rather than to enhance self-organization.

Assumption 7.--Because social conflict is the rule of socialization in
the United States rather than the exception we are able
to classify Americans into three psychological groups
depending on the combinations of ways in which they
perceive themselves and others in social situations.

Corollary A.--Some people believe that self is basically
acceptable and that others are not as acceptable.

Corollary B.--Some people believe that others are basically
acceptable but not self.

Corollary C.--Some people believe that both self and others
are basically acceptable.

Assumption 8.--Of the three types of people, only those who accept self
and others perceive the realities of social situations
and are potentially able to act in socially satisfying
ways.

Corollary A.--People who accept self and others are democratic
individuals who have a high regard for the dignity,
worth, and integrity of people, including them-
selves; they have faith in the efficacy of group
action.

Corollary B.--People who accept others but not self may be
socially sensitive, but in social situations
their behavior will be designed to secure the

approval of others rather than to achieve
their ideal self concepts.

Corollary C.—People who accept self but not others believe
themselves to be accepted by others, but are
in fact rejected. Their attempts to enhance
self-organization are resisted by others.
Such people usually fall back on authority to
achieve their ideal self concepts, or they
seek to leave the social situation.

Assumption 9.—People's perceptions of self and others can be measured
through inference from their behavior and used to
indicate their growth and development toward maturity
as social beings.

Corollary A.—Characteristic patterns of behavior have been
established for the ways in which people com-
municate with others.

Corollary B.—Characteristic patterns of behavior have been
established with respect to people's accuracy
of perception.

Corollary C.—Characteristic patterns of behavior have been
established with respect to the response of the
various types of people to a task.

Assumption 10.—People will act to maintain or to enhance self-organization
in social situations depending, in large part, on their
perceptions of threat in those situations.

Corollary A.—People who accept self are less likely to
perceive threat in social situations and will
seek to enhance self-organization.

Corollary B.—People who do not accept self are more likely
to perceive threat in social situations and
will seek to maintain self-organization.

Assumption 11.—Each perceived goal in a person's ideal self-concept
sets up perceptions of obstacles to be overcome for
attainment, and these obstacles directly affect his
growth and development.

Corollary A.—If a person believes that a perceived goal is
achievable, he will be motivated to enhance
self-organization.

Corollary B.--If a person believes that a perceived
goal is too remote to be achieved, he
will be motivated to main self-organization.

Assumption 12.--Human growth and development is occasioned by people's
changing perceptions of self-organization and sub-
sequent changes in their behavior.

Corollary A.--Once people act and achieve a goal, their
perceptions of self-organization are modified.

Corollary B.--Subsequent behavior of people is based on
their new perceptions of self-organization.

Assumption 13.--The growth and development of people, through
modification of their perception of self-organization,
can be cultivated effectively in a number of ways.

Corollary A.--As people gain more adequate information about
self-organization in social situations where
they feel accepted, they will be inclined to
grow and develop in socially satisfying ways.

Corollary B.--As people restructure perceptions of their
ideal self-concepts through experience, they
will tend to grow and develop in socially
satisfying ways.

Corollary C.--As people perceive inconsistencies among values
in their ideal self-concepts, they will strive
to relieve them, and in this way they will tend
to grow and develop in socially satisfying ways.

Corollary D.--As people perceive discrepancies between their
self-concepts and ideal self-concepts, they will,
in a threat free environment, tend to grow and
develop in socially satisfying ways.

Corollary E.--As people experience success in relieving their
propensity to change, they will tend to grow
and develop in socially satisfying ways.

Assumption 14.--Since purposive human groups are aggregates of people
which, through their reflection of human qualities,
in some ways behave like people, an understanding of
human groups can be approached in much the same way
that we approach an understanding of human personality.

<u>Corollary A.</u>--Human groups come into being, grow and develop, maintain status, and go out of existence.

<u>Corollary B.</u>--Human groups respond to threat the same as people.

<u>Corollary C.</u>--The terminology, laws and principles of growth and development which we apply to understand individual behavior can also be applied to understand the behavior of groups.

## Summary

What have we done so far by way of building a theory? First in Chapter II, we constructed a new, <u>comprehensive operational definition</u> of administrative leadership for contemporary education based on the research literature in educational administration. Next, we found that <u>the uniqueness of individual perceptions</u> and <u>a concept of human growth and development</u> were appropriate bases for selecting a set of assumptions relevant to a theory of administrative leadership, since they were major forces motivating empirical inquiry in educational administration. Then we found that at least three selected works of Lecky, Snygg and Combs, and Bills conformed to these bases of relevancy. We abstracted from these works <u>a set of relevant assumptions</u> for a theory of administrative leadership and arranged them in outline form.

We are ready now to turn to Chapter IV where the assumptions outlined above will be used as a base for deriving inferences about the operational definition of leadership advanced in Chapter II. These inferences, as we shall see, will lead to the construction of explicit predictions about the nature of administrative leadership for contemporary education.

# CHAPTER IV

## A THEORY OF ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP
## FOR CONTEMPORARY EDUCATION

According to the criteria for building a useful theory which was assumed in Chapter I of this paper, three tasks remain uncompleted in this theory building venture. A central one is to derive predictions about the nature of administrative leadership in education by drawing explicit inferences from the assumptions in Chapter III and applying them to the discrete aspects of administrative leadership as it was operationally defined in Chapter II. However, it was noted in Chapter I that the predictions in a useful theory must be organized within a logical, internally-consistent and reasonably simple structural framework. Before we actually begin to make predictions about leadership here, it is essential that we discuss and formulate a structure for the theory. Once the organizational framework and its dynamics are clearly in mind, specific predictions or the content of the theory as it may be called will follow more meaningfully for the reader. A third consideration in these pages is to present the materials of this chapter in such a way as to encourage research of any predictions about administrative leadership in education which are set forth.

Hence, Chapter IV will begin by considering the structure of this theory. Prediction-making within the structural framework will follow. In order to encourage research of the theory in the future, predictions will be cast in the form of hypotheses. Here and there in the discussion of <u>content</u> for this theory, discussion will also focus upon ways in which the testing of certain hypotheses can be approached.

## Structure

Early in Chapter I we found that research in administrative leadership in education has tended to emerge in three areas--in leadership theory, practice, and in programs of instruction for training administrators. It is logical in view of these emphases to take the same three areas as basic dimensions for a general theory of leadership. We can call these basic dimensions by specific names, as follows:

<u>Dimension I</u>--Research into Theoretical Foundations for Understanding Administrative Leadership.

<u>Dimension II</u>--Research into Effective Practices of Administrative Leaders.

<u>Dimension III</u>--Research into Effective Instruction of Leader Trainees.

The first dimension of this theory as its name implies is concerned with basic or fundamental research into the phenomenon of leadership. The theoretical predictions to be contained within it will focus upon the common purpose of administrative leadership for contemporary education and attributes of effective leaders. The theoretical

principles upon which instruments for viewing and evaluating effective

leader practices, as well as instruments for evaluating and improving

the effectiveness of administrative leadership in educational systems,

are all contained in the schema of theoretical research foundations

set forth in Dimension I.

The second dimension of this theory is concerned with applying

some of the predictions advanced in Dimension I as theoretical founda-

tions in order to develop an inventory of effective leader practices.

Strictly speaking, this part of the theory sets forth in hypothetical

terms a model for research into effective administrator practice.

The third dimension of the theory is concerned with applying

some of the predictions advanced in both Dimension I and Dimension II

in order to predict what the principles upon which effective instructional

programs for administrative leader trainees might be.

Under each of the three basic dimensions in this theory are

organized all of the various aspects of administrative leadership

operationally defined in Chapter II. In detail this outline is as

follows:

Dimension I--Research into Theoretical Foundations for
Understanding Administrative Leadership.[129]

    A. Formulating one Common Purpose of Administrative
       Leadership for Contemporary Education.

    B. Formulating the Attributes of Effective
       Administrative Leaders.

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[129]The reader may wish to refer to Chapter II of this paper where
administrative leadership is defined as researchers of educational
administration know it. Note that all of the component parts of the
structure outlined here conform to the aspects of administration
described in Chapter II.

C. Formulating one Standard Measure of
   Effective Administrator Practices.

D. Formulating one Standard Measure of
   Effective Administrative Leadership.

E. Formulating one Standard Program for
   Improving the Effectiveness of Adminis-
   trative Leadership.

F. Formulating one Standard Threat Analysis.

G. Formulating one Standard Leadership Improve-
   ment Criteria.

H. Formulating some General Considerations.

Dimension II--Research into Effective Practices of
             Administrative Leaders.

A. Applying some Standard Administrative Operations.

B. Applying some Standard Behavior Factors for
   Education.

C. Applying one Standard Measure of Effective
   Administrator Practices.

Dimension III--Research into Effective Instruction of
              Leader Trainees.

A. Determining the Purpose.

B. Determining the Curriculum.

C. Determining Effective Instructional Practices.

D. Determining Effective Evaluation Procedures.

E. Determining Effective Internal Governance.

Now, such an organization scheme provides a reasonably simple

framework for a theory of administrative leadership in education. This

structure also provides a framework within which internal consistency

among the theoretical predictions can be achieved--an essential feature

of any theoretical frame of reference which ultimately will be used
in organizing the knowledge which testing of its predictions uncovers.
Logical consistency is manifested through this organizational scheme
in the following manner. First, it is already understood that all
theoretical predictions or value judgments advanced in the theory
will be based on one explicit source, the Philosophy of Human Growth
and Development outlined at the close of Chapter III. Second, the
reader should note in Dimension I, A, of the above outline that all
theorizing begins with a basic prediction about a Common Purpose of
Administrative leadership in all contemporary American educational
systems. Third, all of the other predictions within the theory will
be so designed as to stem from, and be subordinate to, this basic
prediction about the purpose of leadership. Thus all of the
predictions within the entire structure of the theory will be arranged
in a hierarchy or logical scalar chain. If the basic purpose of
administrative leadership predicted at the start in Dimension I is
found invalid through empirical testing, it is logical to suppose that
the whole theory advanced in these pages is also invalid. Perhaps
this cursory explanation of the theories structure and internal con-
sistency can be clarified best by proceeding now with prediction-making.

## Content

Using the organizational framework outlined above, it is a
rather straightforward job to derive inferences from the Philosophy
of Human Growth and Development set forth in Chapter III and apply
them to aspects of administrative leadership as this phenomenon was
defined in Chapter II, because these aspects are now a part of the
structure of this theory. Before moving on, the reader should bear in
mind, however, that we are seeking to test one working hypotheses in
this section of the paper which is <u>that from a set of assumptions about</u>
<u>human growth and development abstracted from selected works of Prescott</u>
<u>Lecky, Donald Snygg and Arthur Combs, and Robert Bills it is possible</u>
<u>to formulate at least one prediction about every aspect of administrative</u>
<u>leadership in education included in the operational definition of this</u>
<u>phenomenon.</u> Let us see if this working hypothesis is valid.

### Dimension I--Research into Theoretical Foundations for
### Understanding Administrative Leadership

<u>Formulating One Common Purpose of Administrative Leadership for Con-</u>
<u>temporary Education.</u>

      <u>Hypothesis 1.</u>--A basic aim of people in our society is
            to grow and develop.[130]

      <u>Hypothesis 2.</u>--One common purpose of all educational
            systems in the American enterprise of
            education is to facilitate the growth
            and development of our citizenry in[131]
            socially satisfying ways.

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[130]This hypothesis is based on A Philosophy of Human Growth and
Development, Assumptions 1 and 2, Corollaries A, B, C, and D, in
Chapter III, above.

[131]Ibid., Assumption 14.

Hypothesis 3.--One common purpose of administrative lead-
ership for contemporary education is to
ensure that the socially satisfactory
growth and development of people involved
in all educational systems takes place.[132]

## Formulating the Attributes of Effective Administrative Leaders.

Hypothesis 4.--The effectiveness of administrative leader-
ship in education is directly related to
the extent and degree that people involved
in educational systems experience personal
growth of a socially satisfactory kind.[133]

Hypothesis 5.--The effectiveness of administrative leader-
ship is directly related to the effectiveness
of administrative leader practices.[134]

Hypothesis 6.--The effectiveness of administrative leader
practices in education is directly related
to the extent and degree that administra-
tive leaders in educational systems per-
ceive themselves and other people involved
as mutually acceptable.[135]

## Formulating One Standard Measure of Effective Administrator Practices.

Hypothesis 7.--Effective administrator practices can be
measured empirically by sampling certain
behaviors of the administrator and infer-
ing from these how he is perceiving himself
and others with whom he works.[136]

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[132]Ibid., Assumptions 1, 2, Corollaries A, B, C, and D; and 14.

[133]Ibid., Assumption 8, Corollaries A, B, and C.      [134]Ibid.

[135]Ibid., Assumption 7, Corollary C and 8, Corollary A.

[136]Ibid., Assumption 9.

Hypothesis 8.--We can sample and analyze an administrative
leader's pattern of communication to determine
the effectiveness of his practices.[137]

Corollary A.--If there is a significant tendency to use
the personal pronouns we, us, and ours;
few evaluative adjectives and adverbs;
and few comparisons, he tends to perceive
himself and others as mutually acceptable
and is, therefore, most effective in his
leader practices.[138]

Corollary B.--If there is a significant tendency to
use the personal pronouns I, my, and
mine; many evaluative adjectives and
adverbs directed toward himself; and
significantly more comparisons than
the individual in Corollary A, he tends
to perceive others as acceptable but
rejects self and is, therefore, less
effective in his leader practices than
the individual in Corollary A.[139]

Corollary C.--If there is a significant tendency to
use the personal pronouns they, their,
theirs; many evaluative adjectives and
adverbs directed toward others; and
significantly more comparisons than
either the individuals in Corollary A
or B, he tends to perceive self as
acceptable but rejects others and is,
therefore, least effective of all in
his leader practices.[140]

Hypothesis 9.--We can sample and analyze an administrative
leader's perceptions of reality to determine
the effectiveness of his practices.[141]

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[137]Ibid., Assumption 9, Corollary A.

[138]Ibid., Assumption 8, Corollary A.

[139]Ibid., Assumption 8, Corollary B.

[140]Ibid., Assumption 8, Corollary C.

[141]Ibid., Assumption 9, Corollary B.

Corollary A.--If an administrative leader's percep-
tions of reality are of average accuracy,
he tends to perceive himself and others
as mutually acceptable and is, therefore,
most effective in his leader practices.[142]

Corollary B.--If an administrative leader's percep-
tions of reality are significantly
over-accurate, he tends to perceive
others as acceptable but rejects self
and is, therefore, less effective in
his leader practices than the individual
in Corollary A.[143]

Corollary C.--If an administrative leader's percep-
tions of reality are significantly
inaccurate, he tends to perceive self
as acceptable but rejects others and
is, therefore, least effective of all
in his leader practices.[144]

Hypothesis 10.--We can sample and analyze an administrative
leader's response to assigned tasks to
determine the effectiveness of his practices.[145]

Corollary A.--If he consistently achieves a steady
rate of progress through completion of
the tasks, he tends to perceive himself
and others as mutually acceptable and is,
therefore, most effective in his leader
practices.[146]

Corollary B.--If he consistently speeds up his efforts
to complete the tasks in the presence of
authority, he tends to perceive others
as acceptable but rejects self and is,
therefore, less effective in his leader
practices than the individual in Corol-
lary A.[147]

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[142]Ibid., Assumption 8, Corollary A.

[143]Ibid., Assumption 8, Corollary B.

[144]Ibid., Assumption 8, Corollary C.

[145]Ibid., Assumption 9, Corollary C.

[146]Ibid., Assumption 9, Corollary A.

[147]Ibid., Assumption 9, Corollary B.

Corollary C.--If he consistently slows down and
decreases his efforts as he nears
completion of the tasks, he tends to
perceive self as acceptable but rejects
others and is, therefore, least effective
of all in his leader practices.[148]


Formulating One Standard Measure of Effective Administrative Leadership.

Hypothesis 11.--The effectiveness of administrative leader-
ship in education is directly related to the
effectiveness of practices by those who are
involved in educational systems below adminis-
trative levels of authority.[149]

Hypothesis 12.--The effectiveness of subordinate practices
is directly related to the extend and degree
that people involved in educational systems
perceive themselves and others as mutually
acceptable.[150]

Hypothesis 13.--The effectiveness of administrative leader-
ship can be determined for an educational
system by sampling the perceptions of rep-
resentatives from the various groups of
individuals who are involved within it.[151]

Corollary A.--The same instruments cited above for
measuring the effectiveness of adminis-
trative leader practices through per-
ceptions of self and others can be
employed to measure the effectiveness
of practices by all other individuals
sampled within the educational system.[152]

Corollary B.--From the representative sample of
practices for people involved in an
educational system below administra-
tive levels of authority we can infer

[148] Ibid., Assumption 9, Corollary C.

[149] Ibid., Assumptions 6 and 14, Corollaries A, B, and C.

[150] Ibid., Assumption 8, Corollary A.

[151] Ibid., Assumptions 9 and 14, Corollaries A, B, and C.

[152] Ibid., Assumption 9, Corollaries A, B, and C.

how the educational system is
perceiving itself and others.[153]

Corollary C.—Some educational systems will tend to
accept self and others to a significant
degree, in which case the administra-
tive leadership within them is <u>most</u>
effective.[154]

Corollary D.—Some educational systems will tend to
accept others to a significant degree
but not self, in which case the admin-
istrative leadership within them is
<u>less effective</u> than is the case in
Corollary C.[155]

Corollary E.—Some educational systems will tend to
accept self to a significant degree
but not others, in which case the adminis-
trative leadership within them is <u>least</u>
effective of all.[156]


## Formulating One Standard Program for Improving the Effectiveness of Administrative Leadership.

Hypothesis 14.—The effectiveness of administrative leader-
ship in education is directly related to
the extent and degree that administrative
leaders and people involved in educational
systems increase the effectiveness of their
practices.[157]

Hypothesis 15.—The effectiveness of practices by adminis-
trative leaders and other people involved
in educational systems can be increased by
applying to their perceptions a Standard
Program for Improving the Effectiveness of
Administrative Leadership.[158]

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[153] Ibid., Assumptions 9 and 14, Corollary C.

[154] Ibid., Assumptions 7, Corollary C, 8, Corollary A and 9.

[155] Ibid., Assumptions 7, Corollary B, 8, Corollary B and 9.

[156] Ibid., Assumptions 7, Corollary A, 8, Corollary C and 9.

[157] Ibid., Assumption 8, Corollaries A, B, and C.

[158] Ibid., Assumptions 1, 4, and 12.

Corollary A.--A Standard Program for Improving the
Effectiveness of Administrative Leader-
ship consists, in part, of the identifi-
cation and removal of threat perceived
by administrators and other people in
educational systems through application
of a Standard Threat Analysis.[159]

Corollary B.--A Standard Program for Improving the
Effectiveness of Administrative Leader-
ship also involves the application of a
Standard Leadership Improvement Criteria
to the perceptions of administrators and
other people involved in educational
systems.[160]

## Formulating a Standard Threat Analysis.

Hypothesis 16.--Threat may be perceived in any aspect of
the planning operation in an educational
system when, in making policy, determining
purposes, aims, goals, or objectives for
the system; or when, in providing for
material and human resources to attain the
avowed ends of the system, a leader or any
other person involved believes that his
intelligence and energies have not been
solicited adequately.[161]

Corollary A.--Sometimes the individual is not adequately
solicited in sensing and defining problems
relevant to the attainment of the ends of
the educational system and this may be a
source of threat.[162]

Corollary B.--Sometimes the individual is not
adequately solicited in exploring
problems through such specific tasks
as collecting relevant data, making
inferences, relating problems to

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[159]Ibid., Assumptions 2, Corollaries A and B; 6, Corollaries A
and B; and 10, Corollaries A and B.

[160]Ibid., Assumption 13, Corollaries A, B, C, D, and E.

[161]Ibid., Assumption 6.     [162]Ibid.

people, and this can be a source
of threat.[163]

Corollary C.--Sometimes the individual is not
adequately solicited in formulating
possible courses of action to solve
educational problems through such
specific tasks as postulating alternative
courses of action and predicting out-
comes of courses of action, and this can
be a source of threat.[164]

Corollary D.--Sometimes the individual is not ade-
quately solicited in deciding which
course of action should be taken to
solve a problem relevant to the
attainment of the ends of an educational
system, and this can be a source of threat.[165]

Corollary E.--Sometimes the individual is not adequately
solicited in evaluating progress toward
chosen goals, and this can be a source of
threat.[166]

Hypothesis 17.--Threat may be perceived in any aspect of the
organizing operation in education when, in
allocating human and material resources,
designating jobs to be performed, or pro-
viding for channels of communication among
the jobs, a leader or a person perceives
that progress toward attaining his ideal
self-concept--as it is affected by the
operation of the educational system--is
blocked.[167]

Corollary A.--Sometimes the individual is unable to
secure or utilize existing human or
material resources for getting his
assigned tasks done, as resources are
being allocated, and this can be a
source of threat.[168]

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[163]Ibid.      [164]Ibid.      [165]Ibid.      [166]Ibid.

[167]Ibid., Assumptions 1; 6, Corollary B; and 13, Corollary E.

[168]Ibid.

Corollary B.--Sometimes the individual is unable
to complete his assigned tasks as
existing jobs are designated, and
this can be a source of threat.[169]

Corollary C.--Sometimes the individual is unable
to be understood and to understand
what is going on in an educational
system as existing channels of com-
munication which run up and down,
back and forth, and diagonally
across the organizational structure
are provided; and this can be a
source of threat.[170]

Hypothesis 18.--Threat may be perceived in any aspect of
the staffing operating in education when,
through recruitment, transfer, promotion,
demotion, or expulsion, a leader or any
person involved in an educational enter-
prise finds that progress toward attaining
his ideal self-concept is blocked.[171]

Corollary A.--Sometimes the individual is recruited
by an educational system which has
purposes, aims, goals, and objectives,
that are basically incompatable with
his ideal self-concept; and this can
be a source of threat.[172]

Corollary B.--Sometimes the individual is assigned
tasks, or transferred to two or more
tasks at the same level of authority
which do not tax the limits of his
interest, skills, talents, knowledge,
and abilities; and this can be a
source of threat.[173]

Corollary C.--Sometimes the individual is demoted to
tasks with duties and responsibilities
which do not tax the limites of his
interests, skills, talents, knowledge
and abilities; and this can be a source
of threat.[174]

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[169]Ibid.    [170]Ibid.

[171]Ibid., Assumptions 5, Corollaries A, B,C, D, E, F, G.; and
6, Corollary B.

[172]Ibid.    [173]Ibid.    [174]Ibid.

<u>Corollary D.</u>—Sometimes the individual is promoted
to tasks with duties and responsibilities
which overtax the limits of his interests,
skills, talents, knowledge and abilities;
and this can be a source of threat.[175]

<u>Corollary E.</u>—Sometimes the individual is expulsed from
an educational system even though the
purposes, aims, goals, and objectives of
that system are basically compatable with
his ideal self-concept; and this can be a
source of threat.[176]

<u>Hypothesis 19.</u>—Threat may be perceived in any aspect of the
directing operation in education through the
application of controls to human behavior
within the enterprise, through arbitration
of interpersonal disputes, the delegation
of authority, and through authorizing.[177]

<u>Corollary A.</u>—Sometimes controls are dogmatically
and inflexibly imposed on human behavior
within educational systems and this can
be a source of threat.[178]

<u>Corollary B.</u>—Sometimes disputes which generate inter-
personal conflict are not successfully
arbitrated in educational systems, and
this can be a source of threat.[179]

<u>Corollary C.</u>—Sometimes the delegation of authority and
responsibility for accomplishing the tasks
of an educational system are practiced in
an overly restrictive way, and this can be
a source of threat.[180]

<u>Corollary D.</u>—Sometimes the delegation of responsibility
for accomplishing the tasks of an educa-
tional system is not accompanied by the
delegation of commensurate authority for
getting the tasks done, and this can be
a source of threat.[181]

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[175]<u>Ibid.</u>     [176]<u>Ibid.</u>

[177]<u>Ibid.</u>, Assumptions 6, Corollaries A and B; 7, Corollaries A,
B, and C; and 10, Corollaries A and B.

[178]<u>Ibid.</u>     [179]<u>Ibid.</u>     [180]<u>Ibid.</u>     [181]<u>Ibid.</u>

Corollary E.--Sometimes those in authority fail to
exercise their authority or authorize
inconsistently in educational systems,
and this can be a source of threat.[182]

Hypothesis 20.--Threat may be perceived by administrative
leaders or by any other people involved
in education through the activation of the
administrative process in other social
systems in which they hold membership,
and these threats will carry over to
their performance within educational
systems.[183]

## Formulating a Standard Leadership Improvement Criteria.

Hypothesis 21.--A Standard Leadership Improvement Criteria
may be applied to the perception of adminis-
trative leaders and other people involved
in educational systems to obviate threat and,
thus, to facilitate socially satisfactory
human growth and development within them.[184]

Hypothesis 22.--Socially satisfactory human growth and
development is achieved in education by
changing the perceptions that administrative
leaders and people involved in educational
systems have about their self-organization
which, in turn, eventuate in habituated
changes of behavior at new levels of self-
idealism or self-realization that are con-
sistent with the common purpose of education.[185]

Corollary A.--Socially satisfactory growth and develop-
ment can be facilitated in administrative
leaders and people involved in educational
systems by providing them with the oppor-
tunity to gain more adequate information
about their self-organization--particularly

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[182]Ibid.

[183]Ibid., Assumptions 6, Corollaries A and B; 14, Corollaries A,
B, and C.

[184]Ibid., Assumptions 1; 2, Corollaries A and B; 4; 6, Corollary
B; 7, Corollaries A, B, and C; 8, Corollary A; and 10, Corollaries A and B.

[185]Ibid., Assumptions 3; 4; and 12, Corollaries A and B.

the common purpose of education--
in social situations where they feel
accepted.[186]

Corollary B.--Socially satisfactory growth and develop-
ment can be facilitated in administrative
leaders and people involved in educational
systems by providing them with the oppor-
tunity to restructure perceptions of their
ideal self concepts through experience with
the common purpose of education in social
situations where they feel accepted.[187]

Corollary C.--Socially satisfactory growth and develop-
ment can be facilitated in administrative
leaders and people involved in educational
systems by providing them with the oppor-
tunity to perceive and to relieve incon-
sistencies among values in their ideal
self concepts, which are relevant to the
common purpose of education, in social
situations where they feel accepted.[188]

Corollary D.--Socially satisfactory growth and develop-
ment can be facilitated in administrative
leaders and people involved in educational
systems by providing them with the oppor-
tunity to perceive discrepancies between
their self-concepts and ideal self-concepts,
with respect to the common purpose of educa-
tion, in social situations where they feel
accepted.[189]

Corollary E.--Socially satisfactory growth and develop-
ment can be facilitated in administrative
leaders and people involved in educational
systems by providing them with the oppor-
tunity to experience success in relieving
their propensities to change consistent
with the common purpose of education.[190]

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[186]Ibid., Assumption 13, Corollary A.

[187]Ibid., Corollary B.          [188]Ibid., Corollary C.

[189]Ibid., Corollary D.          [190]Ibid., Corollary E.

Formulating Some General Considerations.

> Hypothesis 23.--The effectiveness of administrative
> leadership in all contemporary American
> educational systems is directly related
> to the extent and degree that effective,
> external leader practices are imposed
> upon them.[191]

>> Corollary A.--External leader practices imposed by
>> legal governmental organizations must be
>> effective.[192]

>> Corollary B.--External leader practices imposed by
>> voluntary extra-legal organizations must
>> be effective.[193]

> Hypothesis 24.--The effectiveness of administrative leader-
> ship in all contemporary American educa-
> tional systems is directly related to the
> extent and degree that the general influence
> of organizations and individuals from the
> outside world of society is non-threatening.[194]

### Dimension II--Research into Effective

### Practices of Administrative Leaders

The second part of this theory of administrative leadership for

contemporary education is concerned with research into effective adminis-

trative leader practices in the day-to-day operation of educational

systems within our educational enterprise. The specific end which

Dimension II seeks to serve is the on-going accumulation of an inventory

of effective leader practices for the field of American education. This

part of the theory purports to be no more than a system of tools or

constructs through which a more adequate understanding of effective

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[191]Ibid., Assumption 6, Corollaries A and B.

[192]Ibid.      [193]Ibid.      [194]Ibid.

administration in education can eventually come. Such a system of instruments really constitutes a model for research into administrator practices, and as such it contains five elements.

The first of these is concerned with applying the Standard Administrative Operations, discussed and defined in Chapter II, to the task of structuring predictions about effective administrator practices as these people activate the administrative process. The second element deals with listing the Standard Behavior Factors for education, also discussed and defined in Chapter II. The third element is devoted to generating a system of hypotheses for testing which refer to the effectiveness of leader practices in education. These hypotheses are formulated by substituting specific behavior factors, listed in the second element, into the hypotheses contained in the first element. A fourth element of this model deals with applying a Standard Measure of Effective Administrator Practices, the theoretical principals of which are predicted in Dimension I above, to test the hypothetically effective practices which are formulated in element three. The fifth, and last, element deals with recording those verified, effective practices which the testing uncovers. Since this research model is merely structured in hypothetical terms here, no attempt is made in this study to activate it by actually attempting to verify some specific leader practices. The model is a theoretical one, hence element five is blank at the present time. When the model is activated for research, however, the fifth element will be used as a place for recording verified, effective leader practices. Exactly what hypotheses are tested and what

instruments are used to test them can thus become common knowledge
to all who are concerned with the study administration in American
education.

The nature of this research model can be clarified by looking
first at the content of the first and second elements. Then a refer-
ence to an illustration of the model will be helpful. Finally, an
example of how the model might be used in actual research should lend
understanding to this portion of the theory.

## Applying the Standard Administrative Operations.

> **Hypothesis 25.**--The effectiveness of administrative
> leader practices in education may be
> measurered as administrative leaders
> activate any one, any combination, or
> all of the Standard Administrative
> Operations of planning, organizing,
> staffing, and directing in their
> educational systems.[195]

> **Hypothesis 26.**--The effectiveness of administrative leader
> practices in planning is directly related
> to the extent and degree that the intelli-
> gence and energies of those involved in an
> educational system are enlisted in corporate
> problem-solving.[196]

> > **Corollary A.**--This means that the intelligence and
> > energies of people involved in educa-
> > tion must be enlisted to make policy,
> > determine purposes, establish aims,
> > goals and objectives, or to provide
> > for material and human resources with-
> > in their educational systems.[197]

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[195]Ibid., Assumption 8, Corollaries A, B, and C.

[196]Ibid., Assumptions 1; 2, Corollaries A and B; and 5, Corol-
laries A, B, and C.

[197]Ibid.

Corollary B.--This means that people involved in
education must be encouraged to assist
their educational systems in sensing and
defining problems; exploring problems by
collecting relevant data, making infer-
ences, or relating problems to people;
formulating possible courses of action
by postulating alternative solutions to
educational problems or predicting out-
comes of courses of action; deciding;
and evaluating progress toward agreed
upon goals.[198]

Hypothesis 27.--The effectiveness of administrative leader
practices in organizing is directly related
to the extent and degree that the activities
of an educational system are coordinated.[199]

Corollary A.--Coordination may be achieved in educational
systems by designating specific tasks which
must be performed for the attainment of
educational objectives.[200]

Corollary B.--Coordination may be achieved in educational
systems by allocating resources, both
material and human, for getting the tasks
done.[201]

Corollary C.--Coordination may be achieved in educational
systems by providing for a thorough flow
of communication up and down, back and forth,
and diagonally across the organizational
structure of each enterprise.[202]

Hypothesis 28.--The effectiveness of administrative leader
practices in staffing is directly related to
the extent and degree that people involved
in education are assigned to duties and
responsibilities which are commensurate
with their interests, skills, knowledge,
talents, and abilities.[203]

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[198]Ibid.

[199]Ibid., Assumptions 3; 6, Corollaries A and B; and 13, Corol-
laries A and E.

[200]Ibid.    [201]Ibid.    [202]Ibid.

[203]Ibid., Assumptions 5, Corollaries A, B, and F; and 13, Corollary E.

Corollary A.--When these individuals are recruited, they must be so assigned.[204]

Corollary B.--When these individuals are transferred to two or more different tasks at the same level of authority, they must be so assigned.[205]

Corollary C.--When these individuals are promoted to duties and responsibilities at a higher level of authority, they must be so assigned.[206]

Corollary D.--When these individuals are demoted to duties and responsibilities at a lower level of authority, they must be so assigned.[207]

Corollary E.--When these individuals are expelled from the educational system, they must be so assigned.[208]

Hypothesis 29.--The effectiveness of administrative leader practices in directing is directly related to the extent and degree that people involved in education are energized to accomplish the ends for which their educational systems avowedly exist.[209]
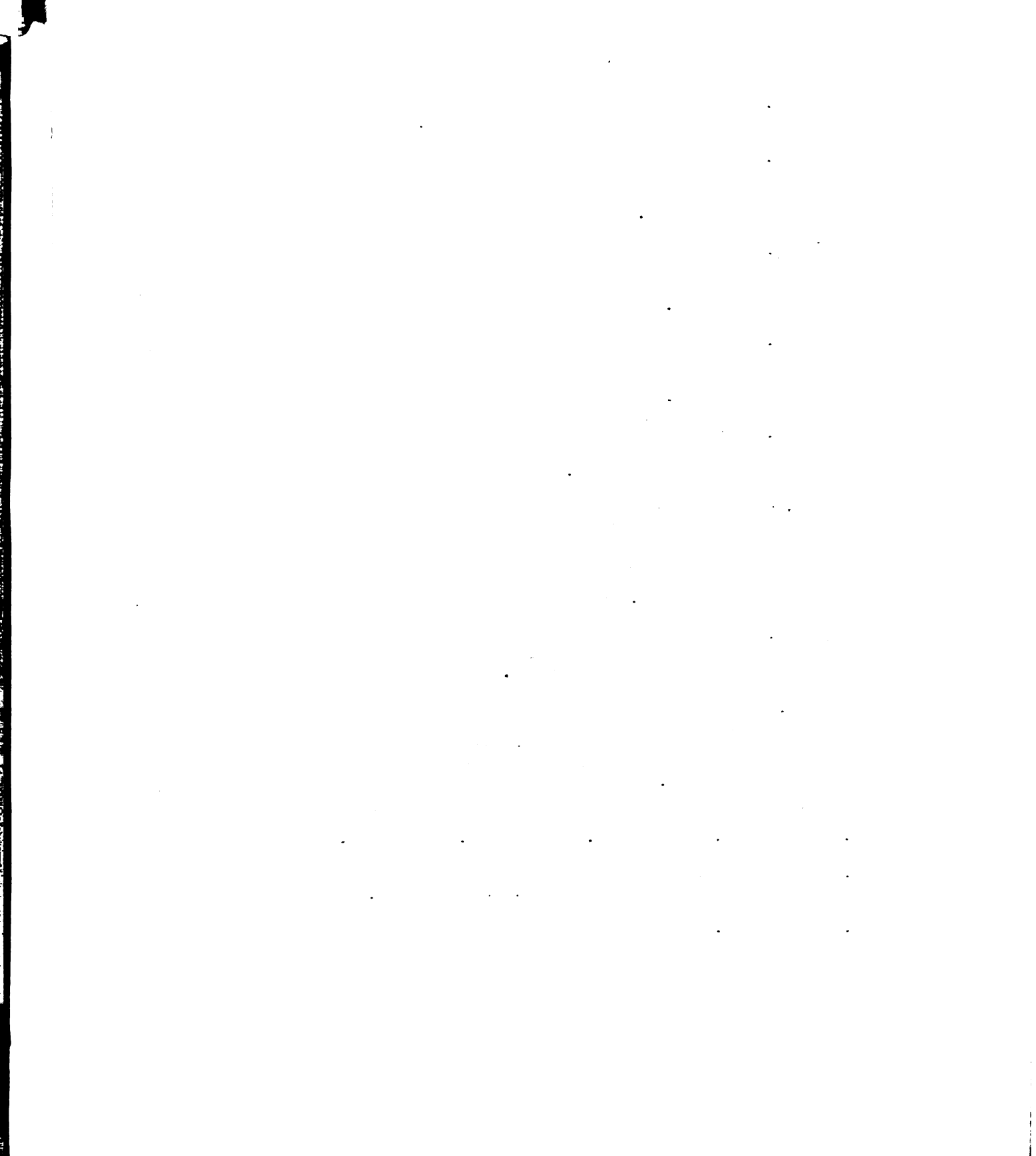
Corollary A.--People involved in educational systems can be so energized by applying flexible controls to their behavior.[210]

CorollaryB.--People involved in educational systems can be so energized by the successful arbitration of their inter-personal disputes which generate social conflict and threat.[211]

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[204]Ibid.     [205]Ibid.     [206]Ibid.     [207]Ibid.     [208]Ibid.

[209]Ibid., Assumptions 5, Corollary A and C; 6, Corollaries A and B; 11, Corollaries A and B; and 13, Corollaries A, B, C, D, and E.

[210]Ibid.     [211]Ibid.

Corollary C.--People involved in educational systems
can be so energized by delegating to
them unlimited authority and respon-
sibility.[212]

Corollary D.--People involved in educational systems
can be so energized by delegating to
them commensurate authority with each
delegation of responsibility.[213]

Corollary E.--People involved in educational systems
can be so energized through the full
and consistent exercises of authority
on the part of their administrative
leaders.[214]

## Applying the Standard Behavior Factors for Education.

When we were constructing an operational definition of adminis-

trative leadership for contemporary education in Chapter II, we said

that administrators do not interact with other people in educational

systems by merely planning, organizing, staffing and directing in the

abstract. They interact through an administrative process, rather, in

relation to discrete things in the educational environment. These

things we called Standard Behavior Factors for Education. You will

recall that we listed a number of factors, as follows:

I.  Some of the factors pertained to the Educational
    Plant, i. e., buildings, equipment, materials and
    supplies, and facilities.

II. Some of the factors pertained to the Educational
    Program, i. e., admissions, curriculum, instruc-
    tion, evaluation, governance, and articulation
    with higher and lower schools.

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[212]Ibid.      [213]Ibid.      [214]Ibid.

III. Some of the factors pertained to <u>Educational
Finance</u>, i. e., capital funds, operational funds,
endowment funds, gifts and bequests, bond drives,
fund drives, governmental aid, purchasing, dis-
bursing, accounting, and budgeting.

IV. Some of the factors pertained to <u>Educational
Personnel</u>, i. e., salaries, housing, pensions,
insurance, credit unions, sick leaves, leaves
of absence, in-service training, teaching assign-
ments, research assignments, and service assign-
ments.

V. Some of the factors pertained to <u>Educational
Auxiliary Agencies</u>, i. e., student activities,
student government, student counseling, student
housing, student health, student welfare, student
employment, student placement, student loans,
student scholarships, maintenance of buildings
and grounds, storage of supplies and materials,
transportation, institutional study, institutional
promotion, and auxiliary personnel.

VI. Some of the factors pertained to <u>Educational
Governance</u>, i. e., legal governing agencies,
extra-legal governing agencies, constituencies
and clientele, local communities, controlling
boards, administrative officers, and faculty.

We did not assume that this list was necessarily complete in its inclusion

of all factors in the educational environment. But we did list these

many specific items as Standard Behavior Factors for Education.

Now at this point we can formulate the following prediction:

Hypothesis 30.--The effectiveness of administrative
leader practices in activating any one
or all of the Standard Administrative
Operations can be measured with respect
to any one or all of the Standard Behavior
Factors for Education.[215]

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[215]<u>Ibid.</u>, Assumption 5.

Take the hypothesis about Planning, for example, we said the effective-ness of administrative leader practices in planning is directly related to the extent and degree that the intelligence and energies of those involved in an educational system are enlisted in corporate problem-solving. Let's say we are interested in planning for student-health, since this is one of the Standard Behavior Factors for Education. By substituting this factor in the original hypotheses as though it were a research formula we can structure the following hypothesis about effective leader practices for actual empirical testing: The effective-ness of administrative leader practices in planning for student-health is directly related to the extent and degree that the intelligence and energies of those involved with student-health in an educational system are enlisted in corporate problem-solving.

By repeating this procedure until all of the behavior factors have been substituted in all of the administrative operations, we can conceivably structure an entire system of hypotheses for testing the effectiveness of administrator practices in education. And these practices are cast in rather specific concrete terms. Having built a system of hypotheses we can then apply the Standard Measure of Effective Administrator Practices to verify or falsify them. Those practices found to be truly effective can subsequently be recorded and preserved.

We should consider for a moment FIGURE 2 which illustrates this research model. Much of what has been said so far in Dimension II will be clarified by the explanation there.

Applying the Standard Measure of Effective Administrator Practices.

How will this research model actually operate when it is activated

for research? Panel I contains hypotheses about the administrative

process and its relationship to the effectiveness of administrative

leader practices. Panel II contains a list of Standard Behavior Factors

for Education. Though this list is incomplete in its present form,

the things contained in it are real aspects of the educational environ-

ment through which the interaction of administrative leaders and other

people involved in education occurs as these people activate the adminis-

trative process. Panels I and II can thus be used in conjunction as a

device for generating a system of hypotheses in Panel III relevant to

effective leader practices in education. Actually, hypotheses in

Panel I serve as research formulas of a kind. Behavior factors can

be substituted in these formulas in myriads of ways until all combina-

tions of substitution have been exhausted. The next step in the opera-

tion of the research model is to verify or falsify the hypotheses in

Panel III by applying the Standard Measure of Effective Administrator

Practices in Panel IV. Those verified effective practices, along with

the instruments used for testing them, can be recorded in Panel V.

In order to explain how testing procedures actually work in this

model, suppose we employ a specific example. Let us start with a

hypothesis from Panel I and follow through, step by step, the testing

of it. For example, we might take Hypothesis 27 which is listed above

under "Applying the Standard Administrative Operations." This hypothesis

from Panel I of the model specifies that <u>the effectiveness of adminis-</u>
<u>trative leader practices in organizing is directly related to the</u>
<u>extent and degree that the activities of an educational system are</u>
<u>coordinated</u>. The extent to which specific tasks are designated,
resources for getting the tasks done are allocated, and channels of
communication are provided, are all specified as Corollaries to
<u>Hypothesis 27</u>. Let's say we wish to generate through this research
formula a new hypothesis for testing the effectiveness of leader prac-
tices in organizing for a <u>bond drive</u>, since a bond drive is one of the
Standard Behavior Factors for Education which pertains to <u>Educational</u>
<u>Finance</u>. The hypothesis we would generate for testing should be stated
like this:

> The effectiveness of administrative leader practices in
> organizing <u>for a bond drive</u> is directly related to the
> extent and degree that the activities of an educational
> system relating <u>to the bond drive</u> are coordinated.

In order to verify or falsify this hypothesis, it is necessary
to do four things. First, we need to construct a specific instrument
for measuring effective leader practices which is based upon the prin-
ciples of measurement enumerated in Dimension I. Then we need to
validate this instrument in the real world of educational systems. We
might approach the task of validating such an evaluation instrument by
using an adequate sample of informed judgment to identify those edu-
cational administrators in all types of American educational systems
who were felt to be effective, or good, or successful. Then, after
measuring their perceptions of self and others, we would expect to find

a significant tendency among these individuals to accept themselves
and others with whom they work as mutually worthwhile.[216] If this
expectation were borne out in reality, the evaluation instrument would
be a valid one.

A third step in verifying the hypothesis about organizing for a
bond drive involves observing leader practices in the work-a-day
world of an adequate sample of American educational systems. We would
observe the extent to which administrative leaders in these educational
systems designated specific jobs to be performed for attaining the
objectives of the bond drive. The greater the specificity among
designated tasks to be performed, the greater the coordination. We
would then observe the extent to which administrative leaders were
successful in allocating human and material resources for getting the
designated jobs done. The greater the efficiency in allocating resources,
the greater the coordination. We would also observe the extent to which
administrative leaders in these educational systems provided for a
thorough flow of communication up and down, back and forth, and
diagonally across the organizational structure of the enterprise. The
more thorough the flow of communication, the more thorough is the
coordination. At this point, we could form judgments about the extent
to which the activities of the bond drive are coordinated in each
educational system. Are administrative leaders in each system average,

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[216]For a clarification of this point, the reader may wish to
refer to Hypotheses 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 under Dimension I above.

below average, or above average in their ability to coordinate the activities of a bond drive? To formulate these judgments scientifically, it would, of course, be necessary to employ informed judgment before hand in order to establish national norms with respect to the ways in which educational administrators activate the Standard Administrative Operations.

Finally, we would apply the instrument for evaluating effective leader practices to the perceptions of administrative leaders in the educational systems under observation. If we find that there is a positive correlation between effective leader practices, as measured by the validated instrument, and an above average coordination of the activities of the bond drive in a significant number of educational systems we have sampled, then the hypothesis we have taken for testing will have been verified. Accordingly, it can be recorded in this research model in Panel V as a proven, effective leader practice in education.

So we have verified a hypothesis about effective leader practice in education, but what exactly have we proven? Well, for one thing, we have proven that an effective educational administrator must perceive himself and others in the educational system with which he works as mutually worthwhile. This does not give us much specific insight into the techniques of educational administration, however. Let's push on; we have also proven that effective administrators must coordinate the activities of their educational systems, and that this involves designating specific jobs, allocating resources, and structuring

channels of communication. Such knowledge of administrative technique is useful, though it is still rather general. Let's keep going; we have also proven that the effective administrator must organize effectively in conducting a bond drive, and we have specified at least three things he must do in order to achieve effective organization. At this point we have reached a degree of specificity in our knowledge of educational administration which makes it easy for practicing administrators, or for those learning to be administrators, to apply it in developing their own personal leadership techniques.

This is not to say, of course, that specificity in our knowledge of administrator practices cannot be enhanced beyond what this research model presently provides for. Actually, the task of every empirical science is to push empirical knowledge incessantly onward to new levels of specificity and precision. There is no reason to assume that a science of educational administration is an exception in this regard. We might reasonably expect that subsequent theorizing and research generated by this model will produce more precise knowledge about effective leader practices in education as time goes on. Meanwhile we must content ourselves with the hope that the details of this research model are sufficient in its present form to provide useful directions to those who would practice educational administration.

## Dimension III--Research into

## Effective Instruction of Leader Trainees

What should be the nature of an instructional program which seeks to develop administrative leaders for contemporary education? When we apply several of the theoretical foundations for understanding leadership which were advanced in Dimension I of this theory, some rather interesting predictions about the Purpose, Curriculum, Instruction, Evaluation, and Governance of these programs can be set forth.

Purpose.

> **Hypothesis 31.**--The purpose of programs of instruction for developing leader trainees is to provide a supply of administrative leaders for our educational systems who are able to maintain perceptions of themselves and others with whom they work as mutually acceptable, once they have been trained.[217]

Curriculum.

> **Hypothesis 32.**--The effectiveness of programs of instruction for developing leader trainees is directly related to the extent and degree that they assist leader trainees in acquiring a genuine interest in their future jobs.[218]

> **Hypothesis 33.**--The effectiveness of programs of instruction for developing leader trainees is directly related to the extent and degree that they produce trained leaders who have the talents, knowledge, skills and abilities required

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[217]Ibid., Assumption 7, Corollary A and 8, Corollary A.

[218]Ibid., Assumptions 2, Corollaries A and B; 5, Corollaries A, B, C, D, E, F, and G; 6,Corollaries A and B; and 13, Corollary E.

for competent performance of the tasks
that will be assigned them on their
future jobs.[219]

Hypothesis 34.--The effectiveness of programs of instruc-
tion for developing leader trainees is
directly related to the extent and degree
that they subject leader trainees to intern
practice in actual educational systems to
perform the kinds of tasks that will be
associated with their future jobs.[220]


Instruction.

Hypothesis 35.--The effectiveness of programs of instruction
for developing leader trainees is directly
related to the extent and degree that instruc-
tional practices conform to the ideas set
forth in the Standard Program for Improving
the Effectiveness of Administrative Leadership.[221]

Hypothesis 36.--The effectiveness of programs of instruction
for developing leader trainees is directly
related to the effectiveness of instructor
practices as determined by the Standard
Measure of Effective Administrative Practices.[222]

Hypothesis 37.--The inventory of effective instructor prac-
tices may be accumulated by the same research
that is employed to accumulate an inventory
of effective administrative leader practices,
provided the term instructor is substituted
for the term Administrative Leader throughout
this mechanism.[223]

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[219] Ibid.    [220] Ibid.

[221] Ibid., Assumptions 2, Corollaries A, B, C, and D; 6,
Corollaries A and B; 9, Corollaries A and B; and 13, Corollaries A,
B, C, D, and E.

[222] Ibid., Assumptions 6, Corollaries A and B; 7, Corollaries A,
B, and C; 8, Corollaries A, B, and C; and 9, Corollaries A, B, and C.

[223] Ibid., Assumptions 5, Corollaries A, B, C, D, E, F, and G;
6, Corollaries A and B; 7, Corollaries A, B, and C; 8, Corollaries A,
B, and C; and 9, Corollaries A, B, and C.
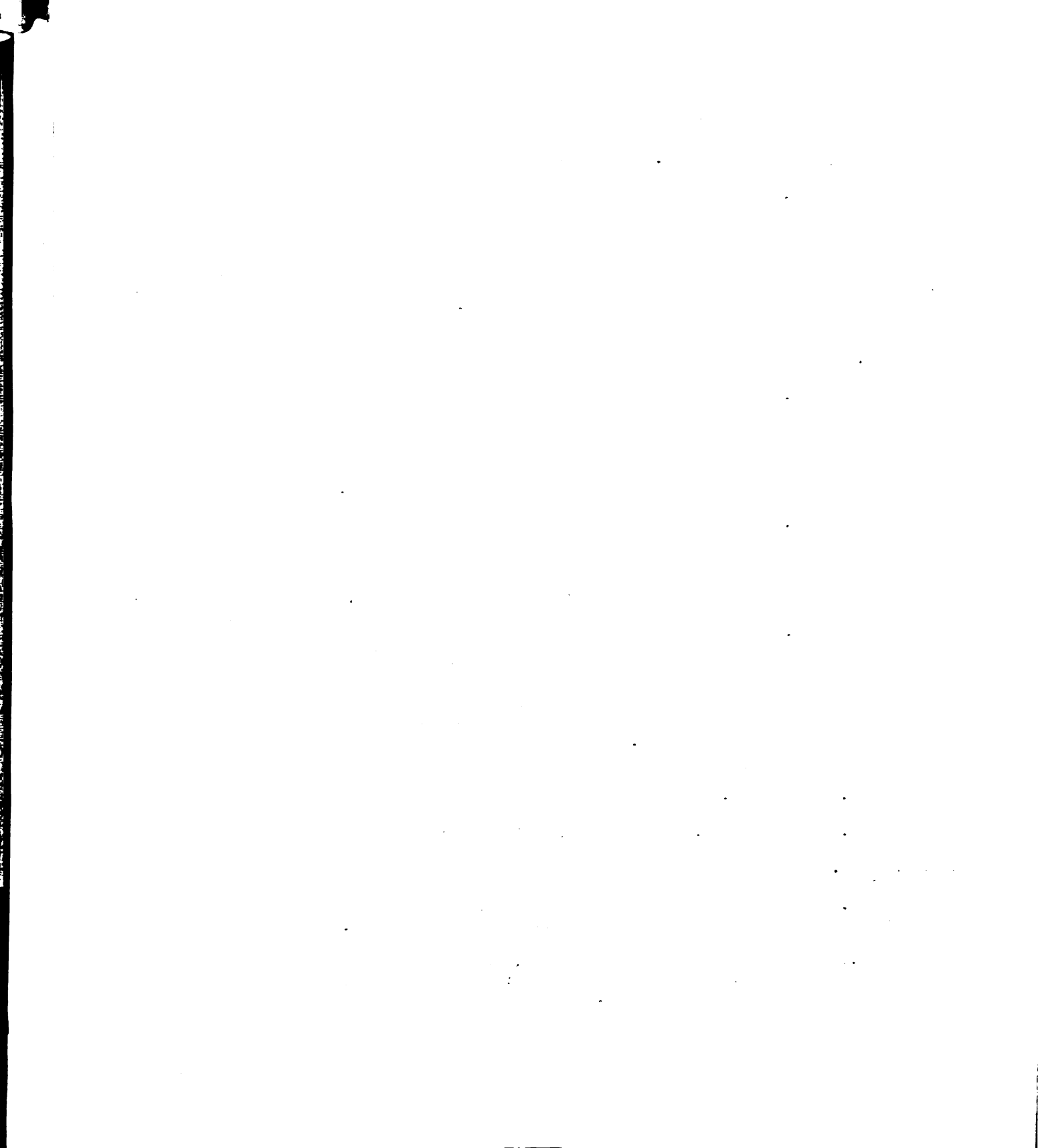
Evaluation.

Hypothesis 38.--The potential effectiveness of administra-
tive leader trainees for practice in the
profession can be empirically determined
by placing these people in intern situations
in actual educational systems, performing
at their future tasks, and then applying
the Standard Measure of Effective Adminis-
trator Practices to their perceptions and
the Standard Measure of Effective Adminis-
trative Leadership to the perceptions of
people involved in the system over whom the
trainees work.[224]

Governance.

Hypothesis 39.--The effectiveness of programs of instruc-
tion for developing leader trainees is
directly related to the effectiveness of
administrative leader practices within
the educational system where the leader
training program is housed.[225]

The Theory in Summary

Now that this theory building venture has run its course, it is

helpful for understanding to summarize throughout Chapter IV. What has

gone on here? First, we assumed that a three-dimensional organization,

comprised of predictions regarding leadership Theory, Practice, and

Instruction was a logical and reasonably simple structural framework

for a theory of administrative leadership in education. Under these

three broad dimensions, we then organized the aspects of administrative

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[224]Ibid., Assumptions 7, Corollaries A, B, and C; 8, Corollaries
A, B, and C; and 9, Corollaries A, B, and C.

[225]Ibid., Assumptions 6, Corollaries A and B; 7, Corollaries A,
B, and C; and 8, Corollary A.

leadership which were previously incorporated in a comprehensive operational definition of this phenomenon derived from the research literature of educational administration in Chapter II. Then we constructed a series of predictions about the nature of leadership in education which were cast in the form of hypotheses and corollaries. These we used as content for the theory within the organizational framework that had been provided. The predictions, themselves, were formulated through the process of drawing inferences from A Philosophy of Human Growth and Development set forth in Chapter III and applying them to specific aspects of leadership as it has been defined.

We cast the predictions in the form of hypotheses to encourage future research of them. As a matter of fact, we explained at some length how research of the predictions contained in the second dimension of this theory might be instrumented. The purpose of delving into the realm of testing here, which is really beyond the bounds of theory construction, was also to encourage future research of some theoretical predictions which had been made.

As a frame of reference for viewing the phenomenon of administrative leadership for contemporary education, and as a conceptual scheme for relating the results of future testing in the area of educational leadership,this theory has attempted to achieve a measure of usefulness by being internally consistent in its logic and in its values. We started prediction-making in this Chapter from a set of assumptions about human growth found in perceptual psychology because a philosophy which puts positive value on this commodity was found to

be a basic motivating force in research in educational administration
as was the desire to understand the implications of individual perception
for education. Using this set of assumptions as a value base, we
formulated some predictions about theoretical foundations for understand-
ing leadership in education (Dimension I). These fundamentals were
subsequently applied in making predictions to advance research in
leader practices (Dimension II) and instruction (Dimension III).
Internal consistency in the theory has thus been achieved by (a) assign-
ing to the theoretical foundations one logically consistent value base
which has as a central value the notion that people are basically
motivated to grow and develop; (b) applying these foundations to
predict how to upgrade the practices and instruction of educational
administrators; (c) which, if the central value is valid and the theory
is verified, ought to result in an improved educational enterprise
as improvement is defined by the central value; (d) the end result
being an improved social order where people in increasing numbers will
be educated to live in accordance with the philosophical ideals toward
which our society is currently striving. In concluding this theory
building venture, it will be helpful to study FIGURE 2 on the following
page. A re-reading of Chapter IV in the light of this illustration
may also prove helpful for understanding what has gone on here.

FIGURE 2

A THEORY OF ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP FOR CONTEMPORARY EDUCATION
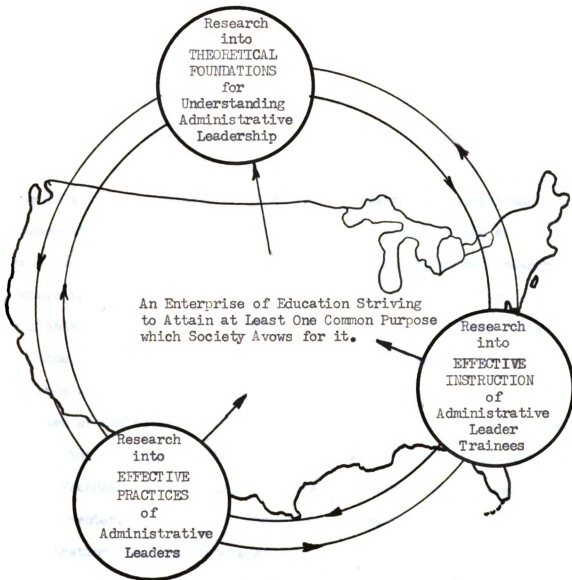


This theory is comprised of three dimensions--Theory, Practice, and Instruction. All of these dimensions contain content hypotheses which are based on a single philosophical foundation. The foundation, itself, postulates the basic social-philosophical goal of the society in which administration takes place. Thus, the content of this theory emerges from the culture; while the research it engenders feeds back, through improved educational leadership and more effective education, to upgrade the quality of life in the society from which it has sprung. That is to say, people will be educated to live more in accordance with the philosophical ideal toward which society is striving.

# CHAPTER V

## CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this study was to develop a comprehensive and

verifiable theory of administrative leadership for contemporary

education. The function of a general theory of this sort is to

serve as a frame of reference for empirical research in educational

administration. It stimulates empirical research and, at the same

time,it serves as a base for relating and interpreting those research

findings which it stimulates. The need for a comprehensive and

verifiable theory of leadership in education has been felt for quite

some time, according to researchers working in this field. An

abundance of research which has been facilitated through the combined

resources of the National Council of Professors of Educational Adminis-

tration, the American Association of School Administrators, and the

Kellogg Foundation has appeared over the last half decade in regional

research centers. The work of these Cooperative Programs in Educational

Administration, or CPEA centers as they are sometimes called, has been

decentralized in character, resulting in research of leadership that

is regional rather than national in nature. Hence, there is a need to

formulate a new, comprehensive theory of administrative leadership

which can be used profession-wide to further systematic inquiry in this special field.

## The Study Approach.

This theory building venture began with an explicit concept of theory and the art of theorizing. It was assumed that a theory is no more than a set of conventions created by a theorist which embody predictions about the nature of an empirical phenomenon. Theories are never true or false in this concept, although their predictions may be either. There is no formula in existence for creating a theory either, but there is a criteria for evaluating a theory on the basis of its usefulness. A useful theory will be defined as one which meets these qualifications: (a) it starts from a comprehensive definition of an empirical phenomenon; (b) it brings a set of relevant assumptions to bear upon the definition; (c) it generates predictions about the nature of the empirical phenomenon by drawing explicit inferences from the assumptions and applying them to particular aspects of the operational definition; (d) it incorporates its predictions into a logically-consistent and reasonably simple framework; (e) it stimulates subsequent research; and (f) it generates predictions about a given empirical phenomenon which are verifiable when tested with appropriate empirical data from the world of reality.

<u>The Theory in Retrospect.</u>

Using this rationale about the nature of a theory as a basic guideline for investigation, Chapter II began with an analysis of the comprehensiveness of those theories which lie behind existing major studies of administrative leadership in education. This phenomenon was found to be comprised of eleven discrete aspects or dimensions as it is known in the research of educational administration.

None of the research studies analyzed in this paper included all eleven aspects of leadership in their explicit concerns. These aspects were set forth as follows:

1. Philosophy and purposes.

2. Identification of personal attributes of effective administrative leaders.

3. Measurement of effective administrative leader practices.

4. Measurement of effective administrative leadership.

5. Programs for improving the effectiveness of American education through administrative leadership.

6. Identification of the sources of human conflict in educational systems.

7. Development of specific means for improving the effectiveness of American education through administrative leadership.

8. Relationships of educational systems to the social order.

9. An administrative process.

10. A specific environment which surrounds
    educational systems.

11. Programs of instruction for training new
    administrative leaders.

Subsequently, in Chapter II a new comprehensive definition of the

leadership phenomenon was constructed which embraced all of these

aspects. The task of defining leadership was approached by seeking to

explain how each of the elements listed above apparently functioned

in the work-a-day world of educational systems. For example, it

was noted that administrative leadership for contemporary education is

a purposive endeavor. All educational systems within our total

educational enterprise have at least one purpose in common. Educational

administrators assume the responsibility of guiding the destiny of

American education toward the accomplishment of that purpose when they

accept the challenge of administrative practice. The effective adminis-

tration of our educational enterprise—as effectiveness is defined by

the common purpose—depends upon at least one Standard Measure of

Administrative Leader Practices and at least one Standard Measure of

Administrative Leadership. The common purpose of all educational systems

in the enterprise of American education can best be attained through

at least one Standard Program for Improving the Effectiveness of Adminis-

trative Leadership. Such a program aims to improve education through

the improvement of leader practices which, in turn, will improve leader-

ship.

Any programmatic improvement of the effectiveness of American

education, it was maintained, is likely to generate conflict which stems

from threat because it involves changing, in part, some of the purposes which individual educational systems seek to attain. Therefore, programmatic improvement of education will need to apply specific means for implementing improvement. It follows that administrative leadership for contemporary education must encompass at least one Standard Threat Analysis and at least one Standard Leadership Improvement Criteria.

The phenomenon of administrative leadership in any contemporary educational system must be seen as embracing relationships with the general social order. Each system must, first of all, act in accordance with regulatory criteria set forth by legal and extra-legal organizations. And each must succumb to the influences of other parts of society in a variety of ways. Administrative leadership was viewed, then, as including some General Considerations which pertain to the relationships of education with the outside world of our social order.

Administrative leadership also subsumes an administrative process which is comprised of at least four Standard Administrative Operations—planning, organizing, staffing, and directing. In addition, it embodies a host of specific factors in the educational environment. These factors refer to the Plant, Program, Finance, Personnel, Auxiliary Agencies, and Governance. It is in relation to these things that administrators and other people involved in educational systems activate the administrative process. The environmental factors were called Standard Behavior Factors for Education.

Finally, in order to ensure the accomplishment of the common purpose of education, it is necessary to replenish our supply of competent administrative leaders. Thus, administrative leadership for contemporary education also involves at least one Standard Program of Instruction for Developing Administrative Leader Trainees. Such a program needs to take into account its Purpose, Curriculum, Instruction, Evaluation, and its own internal Governance.

Having constructed this operational definition of administrative leadership for contemporary education, the forces motivating leadership research were taken as an approach for determining the bases upon which a relevant set of assumptions could be selected for a theory of administrative leadership in education. While this approach to the problem of determining relevancy for assumptions was by no means an exclusive one, it was assumed to be appropriate. Two bases for selecting a relevant set of assumptions were uncovered then. One stemmed from a desire among researchers in this field to understand better the implications for education of the uniqueness of individual perceptions. Another evolved from a desire among researchers to improve education by upgrading educational administration so that our educational enterprise will be more effective in preparing people to live in accordance with a philosophy which puts positive value on human growth and development.

In seeking to isolate some specific studies in the massive expanse of human knowledge which conformed to these bases of relevancy, the history of man's concern with understanding human perceptions was

briefly surveyed. A number of recent studies which employed a personal, perceptual point of view as a frame of reference for investigation were identified. Among these studies there were only three which were devoted primarily to the task of constructing the principles which govern human growth and development. These studies were:

1. Prescott Lecky, Self-Consistency: A Theory of Personality (New York: Island Press, 1945).

2. Donald Snygg and Arthur W. Combs, Individual Behavior: A New Frame of Reference for Psychology (New York: Harper & Bros., 1949).

3. Robert Bills, About People and Teaching ("College of Education, Bureau of School Service Bulletin," Vol. XXVIII, No. 2; Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky Press, 1955).

A number of specific assumptions about the nature of human growth and development—what it is, how we know what it is, and how we can bring it about—were extracted from these works; and their meaning was explained. The assumptions were then condensed in Chapter III into an outline of A Philosophy of Human Growth and Development.

Chapter IV was devoted to the task of making predictions about the nature of administrative leadership for contemporary education. In order to make the predictions understandable, this chapter started with a discussion of the structural framework of the theory. The general areas of Theory, Practice and Instruction were taken as basic dimensions for a theory of educational leadership. This seemed logical since research in educational administration has tended to focus on the same three areas of inquiry. Under these three dimensions we organized

the aspects of administrative leadership in education as it was

defined in Chapter II, thus producing the following organizational

scheme:

Dimension I--Research into Theoretical Foundations
for Understanding Administrative Leadership.

A. Formulating one Common Purpose of Adminis-
trative Leadership for Contemporary Education.

B. Formulating the Attributes of Effective
Administrative Leaders.

C. Formulating one Standard Measure of Effective
Administrator Practices.

D. Formulating one Standard Measure of Effective
Administrative Leadership.

E. Formulating one Standard Program for Improving
the Effectiveness of Administrative Leadership.

F. Formulating one Standard Threat Analysis.

G. Formulating one Standard Leadership
Improvement Criteria.

H. Formulating some General Considerations.


Dimension II--Research into Effective Practices of
Administrative Leaders.

A. Applying some Standard Administrative Operations.

B. Applying some Standard Behavior Factors for
Education.

C. Applying one Standard Measure of Effective
Administrator Practices.


Dimension III-- Research into Effective Instruction
of Leader Trainees.

A. Determining the Purpose.

B.  Determining the Curriculum.

C.  Determining Effective Instructional
    Practices.

D.  Determining Effective Evaluation
    Procedures.

E.  Determining Effective Internal
    Governance.

Predictions about the nature of administrative leadership for
contemporary education were then organized within this structure.
They were derived by drawing explicit inferences from the assumptions
in A Philosophy of Human Growth and Development in Chapter III and
applying them to each of the aspects of leadership which the above
outline contains. The predictions were set forth in the form of
hypotheses and corollaries to encourage future research of them.
In Dimension II of the theory a particular effort was made to explain
how certain hypotheses might be tested in order to encourage future
research.

Now, this theory was not only premised upon a reasonably simple
framework. It was also organized in such a way as to be internally
consistent in its logic and values. Prediction-making in Chapter IV
was premised upon one logically consistent value base--the Philosophy
of Human Growth and Development outlined at the end of Chapter III.
Theorizing began with a basic hypothesis about the Common Purpose of
administrative leadership in all of our educational systems. The
rest of the predictions about leadership stemmed from, and were subordinate
to, the basic prediction about the purpose of leadership. If the basic

prediction were found invalid through empirical testing, the entire theory would presumably be invalid.

Prediction-making in Chapter IV was seeking to test the following working hypothesis of this study:

From a set of assumptions about human growth and development abstracted from selected works of Prescott Lecky, Donald Snygg and Arthur Combs, and Robert Bills it is possible to formulate at least one prediction about every aspect of administrative leadership in education included in a comprehensive operational definition of this phenomenon.

The working hypotheses were found to be valid. Evidence in support of this assertion can be seen in TABLE 2 where each aspect of administrative leadership defined and the number of predictions about it derived from the works of these scholars have been summarized

It is interesting to note in passing that a set of assumptions about human growth have proven to be relevant to a theory of leadership for education in more than a minimal way. Only one aspect of administrative leadership has a single prediction made about it. We were able to formulate from 3 to 22 predictions per aspect for all of the other component parts of this phenomenon from the assumptions which were employed. The extent of prediction-making about leadership from these assumptions fortifies in a round about way selection of the uniqueness of human perceptions and a concept of human development as bases for determining relevancy.

TABLE 2

AN ANALYSIS OF THE RELEVANCY OF

SELECTED ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT HUMAN GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT TO

A THEORY OF ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP FOR CONTEMPORARY EDUCATION

| | Philosophy and Purposes | Identifying Attributes of Effective Leaders | Measuring Effective Administrator Practices | Measuring Effective Administrative Leadership | Programs for Improving Administrative Leadership | Identifying Conflict in Educational Systems | Devising Specific Means of Improving Leadership | Relationship of Education to Social Order | An Administrative Process | Understanding Environment of Educational Systems | Instructing Administrative Leader Trainees |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Number of predictions about leadership generated by A Philosophy of Human Growth and Development* | 3 | 3 | 13 | 8 | 4 | 22 | 7 | 4 | 19 | 1 | 9 |

*
Totals include all hypotheses and their corollaries.

Strengths, Limitations, and Weaknesses of the Theory.

In the opening pages of this paper, it was assumed that theories are never true or false, only useful or not useful. A useful theory we said must be evaluated in terms of its capacity to generate a comprehensive set of predictions about an empirical phenomenon. This capacity of a theory to generate comprehensive predictions is dependent upon the completeness of a particular theory's operational definition and the relevancy of its assumptions—the extent to which explicit inferences can be drawn from the assumptions to each aspect of the phenomenon that is incorporated in its operational definition. According to this criteria, is the theory of administrative leadership for contemporary education set forth in this study a useful theory? Yes, it is. This theory started from an operational definition of leadership which incorporated all aspects of the phenomenon that the major research studies in the field contained. A set of assumptions were selected then which, as TABLE 2 indicates, was quite relevant to the phenomenon with which the theorizing dealt. And predictions about this phenomenon were comprehensive, encompassing all of the aspects of administrative leadership which had been defined.

Even so, the usefulness of this theory can only be determined in a limited way at the present time. For according to the criteria of usefulness which was assumed, a theory must also be evaluated in terms of its ability to stimulate research in any field of inquiry. Predictions were cast in the form of hypotheses within the theory, and Dimension II

of the theory did deal at some length with the problem of testing

predictions about effective administrator practices. These things

were done to stimulate empirical research, but only time can tell

whether or not research will be stimulated by the theoretical predictions.

Another limitation to the usefulness of this theory, as we are

able to evaluate it at this time is attributable to the nature of theory,

itself. It was assumed at the outset of this study that a clear

dichotomy can be drawn between the creative task of theory building

and the testing task of empirical research. However, it was also

acknowledged that the ultimate test for the usefulness of any theory is

its ability to produce predictions which turn out to be true when tested

with appropriate empirical data. Useful theories, in other words,must

be verifiable. There is no way to determine, prior to testing the

predictions of this theory, whether the hypotheses that were formulated

are true. It follows that the theory of administrative leadership for

contemporary education constructed in this investigation only conforms

to some of the criteria of usefulness. There is no way to determine

with finality in these pages the theory's ultimate usefulness.

The most interesting discovery for me in this entire theory

building venture was not the extent to which the results of this study

conformed to an arbitrary criteria for a useful theory, but rather it

was the things which this theoretical rationale, purportedly a general

frame of reference for research, failed to encompass. The reasons for

the failure are also of interest. A most striking omission in Chapter IV

is consideration of what could be called the Tempo of activities within

educational systems. Surely the rate of speed at which events take place in purposive human organizations must have some bearing on the attutudes of both administrators and other people within them. Certain individuals seem able to perform well if they work at a slow pace. Others appear to perform best when they are under the pressure of deadlines and shortages of time. What might happen when those who work slowly find themselves working under the pressure of time? And what might happen to those who work swiftly when time hangs heavy on their hands? Does Tempo, indeed, have a bearing on the climate of interpersonal exchange between administrators and other people within educational organization? It seems logical to assume that it might. Yet this theory, which purports to be a comprehensive, general frame of reference for understanding leadership in education gives no consideration to it. How did this happen?

It would appear that this omission is directly attributable to the concept of theory and the art of theorizing which was assumed at the outset of this study. A theory we said should start from a comprehensive definition of an empirical phenomenon. Then the research literature of educational administration was used to find out what the aspects of this phenomenon were. In subsequently defining leadership in education on the basis of these aspects, Tempo was necessarily excluded. This suggests that there must be more than one way to build a theory of administrative leadership for education. And if we are ultimately interested in extending systematic empirical inquiry in this special field we should probably strive to identify and

utilize all useful means of theorizing rather than limit ourselves to only one. Had the base for defining aspects of leadership not been restricted to research literature in educational administration, and had a more comprehensive and inductively selected base been used in constructing the operational definition of leadership, Tempo might have found its way into this theory. Had Tempo been incorporated in the theory, the resulting predictions about leadership would have been more comprehensive, hence, potentially more useful, than they turned out to be. Isn't it likely, too, that if the research studies which were analyzed to determine the aspects of leadership had waited for prior theorizing in order to formulate an operational definition of this phenomenon neither they nor this study could ever have come into being?

There is another flaw in the concept of theory construction arbitrarily adopted in this investigation which really imposes tremendous limitations upon the usefulness of its predictions about leadership. By defining administrative leadership in education on the basis of aspects of leadership found in the research literature of educational administration, a series of predictions about leadership evolved which, because of their level of abstraction, probably have little real meaning for practicing administrators and professors of educational administration who train new leader personnel. It is reasonable to suppose, therefore, that the theory set forth in this study will have little impact upon the practice of educational administration and programs of leader training, eventhough it may achieve

some measure of success in stimulating empirical research. The notions
that the neat conception of theory and the art of theorizing is only
one way to build a frame of reference for research, and the realization
that this theory is probably too abstract to be useful in leadership
practice and instruction opens the door to several other observations
about needs for further study in this special field.

## Implications for Further Study

1. Applying the tools of systematic inquiry to the field of
administrative leadership for contemporary education may be only one
way to approach an understanding of this phenomenon. Nowhere in this
study have we questioned the assumption that it is within the realm of
possibility to develop a science of administrative leadership for
education. As a matter of fact, our theory-building exercise has been
tantamount to an emphatic endorsement of this assumption. At this
point, however, it may be wise to scrutinize the assumption rather
closely; for if it is feasible to think that there is more than one
way to build a theory of administrative leadership for education, it
may also be possible to understand this phenomenon from more than one
approach. A concern with alternative approaches, other than the use of
tools of empirical science, to understand the leadership phenomenon
stems from a broader acquaintance with the complexity of this subject
now that this study has run its course. Administrative leadership in
education, to be sure, is an extremely complex and detailed phenomenon.

Surely the reader sensed in Chapter IV, above, particularly in the discussion of Dimension II of this theory, that applying the tools of systematic inquiry to verify only one aspect of educational leadership is going to be a very arduous task. So arduous, in fact, that the specific job of formulating hypotheses about administrator behavior for testing purposes could only be explained in this study. Space and time did not permit an exhaustive formulation of all predictions about effective leader practices that could have been generated by the research model explained in Dimension II. If we add to this the fact that the hypotheses for testing leader practices generated by the research model are still so very vague, so very imprecise, so very incomplete in terms of the totality of understanding that is ultimately possible here, then we can begin to appreciate what an enormous undertaking it is going to be to build a factual understanding of administrative leadership through the scientific method. We cannot help but wonder whether there is not a more efficient approach to understanding educational administration.

Of course, with educational administration we may at present be viewing an embryonic field of inquiry arising within the behavioral sciences which, in a few years with the formulation of more efficient instruments, will appear to lend itself quite efficiently to empirical investigation. When we contemplate the intricacies of this phenomenon, however, and see the crudeness of our tools for understanding now, we must adknowledge that alternative approaches to understanding administrative leadership for education may be more useful in the long run.

It would be unfortunate, indeed, if after years of applying the tools
of empirical research to understand educational leadership, we dis-
covered that instead of understanding this phenomenon we had merely
been dabbling with the nuances of understanding one way to understand.

2. If we are to succeed in applying the tools of scientific
inquiry to understand administrative leadership, some priority must be
established among the multitude of research jobs that need to be
performed. In view of the many, many predictions which must be tested,
verified, or proven false, to extend our knowledge of administrative
leadership through empirical research, it seems only sensible to
conclude that research resources must be used efficiently in testing
the predictions of any general theory of leadership. Efficiency in
testing presupposes instrumenting research in a systematic fashion,
avoiding as much duplication of effort as possible. On the basis of
the operational definition of leadership constructed in Chapter II of
this paper, it would seem logical to focus research of this theory
first upon verifying the common purpose of administrative leadership
for contemporary education. Only after agreement has been reached
regarding the common end of this leadership endeavor will it be possible
to devise and verify evaluation instruments in educational administration.
Once equipped with these tools researchers will be in a position to
verify programmed procedures for upgrading educational administrator
practices. When sufficient headway has been made in that area, our
attention can shift to improving training programs for students of
educational administration. It is possible, of course, to have research

in all of these areas going on simultaneously. But if we do, we must also recognize that there will be much repetition of effort, considerable back-tracking, and a lot of time wasted in advancing our knowledge of administrative leadership for education.

3. <u>If we are to succeed in applying the tools of empirical research to understand administrative leadership, we must centralize the governance of leadership research on a national basis.</u> In order to test the predictions of this theory, or any other general theory of educational leadership, in an efficient manner, it is fair to suppose that research activities should be governed by some central agency, commission, or other organization. Decentralization here can inadvertently foster a host of deterents to the rapid advance of empirical knowledge in educational administration. Rivalry for professional prominence among individual researchers, or groups of researchers; competition among higher institutions; and regional cultural differences among our citizenry which make for inaccurate national understandings of leadership are but a few of the deleterious forces that can be unleashed by decentralized research in educational administration. It would seem that the notion of programmatic improvement in educational administration on a nation-wide basis has inherent in it the notion of centralized control of research.

4. <u>If we are to succeed in applying the tools of scientific inquiry to understand administrative leadership, we must centralize and increase financial resources for research.</u> The best theoretical predictions in the world and the best plans for researching them will

not contribute one wit to the programmatic expansion of knowledge about leadership unless these plans can be expressed in fiscal terms. From what has been said already about the enormous job of building an understanding of leadership in education through empirical research, it seems almost hopeless to suppose that one central organization could ever muster enough financial resources to extend knowledge in this field at a satisfactory pace.

We must greatly increase the monies available for research in educational administration if we wish to pursue a scientific approach to understanding in this field and still hope for practical improvements in education to result from it. Beyond that, we must centralize control over these resources and budget them cautiously in order to get the maximum amount of knowledge in return for each precious research dollar.

5. Weaknesses in the theory resulting from this investigation suggest ways in which a better general theory of administrative leadership for contemporary education might be constructed. In view of the extremely abstract nature of this theory and its resulting loss of utility, it seems reasonable to speculate that a general frame of reference for research in this problem area should probably begin with an operational definition of leadership which is derived from practical problems of educational administration faced by administrators, by other people involved in education, and by teachers of educational administration. A general theory in this field probably should also employ a set of assumptions which are comprehensive in their integration of known principles governing human behavior. This speculation is

premised upon the suspicion that an understanding of leadership is all one with an understanding of human behavior. It seems reasonable to suppose, therefore, that any theory of leadership will prove useful to the extent that it can incorporate knowledge acquired in the social sciences.

In the final analysis, the construction of a general frame of reference for research in administrative leadership for contemporary education is probably the rightful task of a central research organization not one individual. For if interested researchers have a part in the formulation of such a theory, they will undoubtedly exert more energy to test its predictions.

APPENDIX

## Selected Readings in Administrative

## Leadership for Contemporary Education

The titles listed below comprise an inventory of selected studies in educational administration and related fields which bear upon the study of administrative leadership in education. These studies are representative of the major approaches to understanding leadership in education.

## The Traits Approach.

Caldwell, O. W. and E. Wellman, "Characteristics of School Leaders," Journal of Educational Research, XIV (1926), 1-15.

Chowdhry, K. and Newcomb, T. M. "The Relative Abilities of Leaders and Non-Leaders to Estimate Opinions of Their Own Groups," Journal of Abnormal Social-Psychology, XLVII (1952), 51-57.

Cowley, W. H. "The Traits of Face to Face Leaders," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, XXVI (1931), 304-313.

Flemming, E. A. "A Factor Analysis of the Personality of High School Leaders," Journal of Applied Psychology, XIX (1935), 596-605.

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Gibb, C. A. "The Principles and Traits of Leadership," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, XLII (1947), 267-284.

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    Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of
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Stogdill, R. M. "Personal Factors Associated with Leader-
    ship: A Survey of the Literature," Journal of
    Psychology, XXV (1948), 35-71.

    This source also lists 124 studies of leader traits.

Zeleny, L. D. "Characteristics of Group Leaders," Sociology
    and Social Research, XXIV (1939), 140-49.

## The Situational Approach.

Aho, F. "A Study of Community Forces in a School District
    During a Period of District Reorganization."
    Unpublished Masters' thesis, Ohio State University, 1954.

Armstrong, V. L. "The Role of the Superintendent of School-
    Initiated Community Improvement." Unpublished Doctoral
    dissertation, University of Texas, 1954.

Barnhart, R. "Effectiveness of School Board Members,"
    Administrator's Handbook, I, No. 2 (September, 1952).

Barnhill, G. D. "A Study of Group Opinions Concerning
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    County," Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation,
    University of North Carolina, 1954.

Buffington, R. L. "The Job of the Elementary School
    Principal as Viewed by Parents." Unpublished
    Doctoral dissertation, Stanford University, 1954.

Bullock, R. P.  School-Community Attitude Analysis for Educational Administrators.  (Research report to the Center for Educational Administration, Ohio State University, 1956).

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Capener, H. B.  "The Influence of Social and Psychological Factors in School District Reorganization."  Unpublished manuscript, Ohio State University, 1954.

Charters, W. W., Jr.  "Social Class Analysis and the Control of the School."  Harvard Educational Review, XXIII (Fall, 1953), 268-273.

Chase, F. S.  "Professional Leadership and Teacher Morale,"  Administrator's Notebook, I, No. 8 (March, 1953).

Chase, F. S.  "How to Meet Teachers' Expectations of Leadership,"  Administrator's Notebook, I, No. 9 (April, 1953).

Clark, D. O.  "Critical Areas in the Administrative Behavior of High School Principles."  Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Ohio State University, 1956.

Coladarci, A. P.  "Administrative Success Criteria,"  The Phi Delta Kappan, XXXVII (April, 1956), 284.

Corbally, J. E.  "A Study of the Critical Elements in School Board-Community Relations."  Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of California, Berkeley, 1955.

Cornell, F. G.  "Socially Perceptive Administration,"  The Phi Delta Kappan, XXXVI, (March, 1955), 219-223.

Counts, G. S.  Decision-Making and American Values in School Administration.  (CPEA Series, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College)  New York: Columbia University, 1954.

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Garland, W. C. "An Identification of Success Criteria in Educational Administration." Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Ohio State University, 1955.

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Gross, N. "Easing Strains and Tensions Between Super- intendents and Board Members," The Nation's Schools, LVI (October, 1955), 43-47.

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Hartzler, J. E. "Critical Areas of Administrative Behavior of City School Superintendents." Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Ohio State University, 1956.

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Hunter, F. Community Power Structure. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1953.

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James, H. T. "Our Itinerant School-Masters," Adminis-
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Jenkins, D. H. and C. A. Blackman. Antecedents and Effects
of Administrator Behavior. (CPEA Series, College
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Jensen, G. E. "The School as a Social System," Educational
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Medaker, L. L. "The Job of the Elementary Principal as
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tration," The Nations Schools, LII (July, 1953),
59-63.

Moore, R. E. "An Appraisal of Southern State Professional
Associations of School Administrators." Unpublished
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Teachers, 1953.

Moyer, D. C. "Teachers' Attitudes Toward Leadership as
They Relate to Teacher Satisfaction." Unpublished
Doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago, 1954.

Pierce, T. M., et. al. Community Leadership for Public
Education. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-
Hall, Inc., 1955.

Ramseyer, J. A., et. al. Factors Affecting Educational
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Columbus: Ohio State University, 1955.

Rosenberger, D. S. "Critical Areas of Administrative
Behavior of Local School Executives." Unpublished
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Rossi, A. S. "Determinants of Reliance on Religious
Leaders as Reference Groups and Their Effects
Upon School Attitudes and Participants,"
(Graduate School of Education, Staff Memorandum
No. 1) Cambridge: Harvard University, 1954.

Rossi, P. H. "The Publics of Local Schools." (Graduate
School of Education, Staff Research Memorandum
No. 2) Cambridge: Harvard University, 1954.

Seeman, M. "Role Conflict and Ambivalence in Leadership,"
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Sharma, C. L. "Who Should Make Decisions," Administrator's
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Public Opinion: Part I." (Graduate School of
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Shipnuck, M. E. "Perceived Hostility in Administrator-
Teacher Relationships." Unpublished Doctoral
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Sternloff, R. E. "The Critical Requirements for School
Administrators Based upon an Analysis of Critical
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University of Wisconsin, 1953.

Sletten, V. "A Related Study of the Opinions of Montana
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Story, M. L. "Defining the Administrative Function,"
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Nashville: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1955.

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Athens: The University of Georgia, 1956. Mimeographed.

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Brookover, W. B. "Research on Teacher and Administrator Roles," The Journal of Educational Sociology, XXIX (September, 1955), pp.1-13.

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