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A study of the espoused value systems of superintendents and aspiring superintendents in Michigan

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A STUDY OF THE ESPOUSED VALUE SYSTEMS OF SUPERINTENDENTS

AND ASPIRING SUPERINTENDENTS IN MICHIGAN

By

John D. Kingsnorth

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ABSTRACT

A STUDY OF THE ESPOUSED VALUE SYSTEMS OF SUPERINTENDENTS AND ASPIRING SUPERINTENDENTS IN MICHIGAN

By

John D. Kingsnorth

This study was designed to identify and compare the value systems of superintendents and those who aspire to the superintendency to determine what differences exist. Also, a statistical test was performed to determine whether an imbalance exists between the "head" and "heart" instrumental values dichotomy. Head values refer to competence-oriented qualities, whereas heart values refer to moral-oriented ones. Personal value systems were measured using the Rokeach Values Survey and a demographic question-naire. A random sample of superintendents within the Michigan Association of School Administrators (PSS) and Michigan Association of Nonpublic Schools (NSS) comprised one study group (PRS). Student/educators enrolled in Michigan State University's Department of Educational Administration comprised the second study group (AS). Each group's totals were calculated, and Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance and t-tests were performed on the data.

The first major finding revealed from the data was that the PRS and the AS differed significantly on nine values. However, when the

PRS was subdivided into PSS and NSS and then compared with the AS, 20 values were found to be different between the groups. The largest number of differences occurred whenever the NSS were compared with any other group. The PRS's value systems were found to be very similar to CEOs in the business world. Also, differences were discovered between male PRS and female AS and also between PRS and AS who were in the 25-49-year-old age bracket. The second major finding was that only the NSS had a balanced head/heart dichotomy. The other groups ranked the head values higher than the heart values, thus revealing the emphasis on competence versus concern for ethics. However, it was determined from the data that as the administrator gained more experience the head/heart dichotomy became in balance. This was the pattern among all the groups.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Values are important elements in the performance of any administrative position, including the superintendency. Values are central to administrative decision making. Seldom does a superintendent make a decision that does not require more than rote application of existing rules. More commonly, the decision must be made by making a judgment, choice, or preference between competing claims. Values are needed to make this decision. Behavioral scientist Erwin Miklos (1986) supported this notion: "Much greater attention should be given in our analysis of administration . . . to the ways in which individual values impinge on administrative decision making" (p. 3).

Values that are compatible or shared by many members in the organization are important to organizational success. Superintendents often are central to the formation of these shared values and represent them in the community. What superintendents pay attention to, how they react to critical situations, what they reward, and what they model for their subordinates speak very clear messages to those in the organization with respect to what is valued (Ashbaugh & Kasten, 1986). This vision becomes the focus for the use of resources, both human and financial (Peters & Austin, 1985).

Knowing this, it would seem essential for superintendents to know what they choose to value. Superintendents' choices of values inevitably influence their administrative methods and their effectiveness (Holmes, 1986). In his study of superintendents who have "survived," i.e., have longevity in high-conflict districts, Iannaccone (1981) reported that chief educational leaders must know what they believe if they are to be effective on the job over time. One superintendent from his research said, "You need your own guidance system; otherwise you lose your direction--become a victim of every pressure" (p. 16). Values are so practical and essential that "adequate conceptions of administration cannot be developed without a clearly formulated value framework" (Graff & Street, 1957, p. 129).

Identifying this value framework for an individual superintendent would be essential information for him/her to know. Furthermore, if it is true that administration is a "value-laden" exercise, then identifying the value framework for the field of administration would be interesting not only for practitioners but for those who aspire to that role. In addition, Barnard (1938) wrote that an executive assimilates values inherent in the role. Knowledge of personal values and role values might possibly give an administrator who aspires to the superintendency the added "edge" to land that first position and to be successful.

When it is said that one has a value, it means the individual has an "enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or

converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence" (Rokeach, 1973, p. 5). Rokeach named the specific modes of conduct "instrumental" values, whereas "terminal" values refer to the end-states of existence.

Often the term "values" is used to speak of value systems. A value system is an "enduring organization of beliefs concerning preferable modes of conduct or end-states of existence along a continuum of relative importance" (Rokeach, 1973, p. 5). People's value systems or values serve as standards for their behavior. The value system influences and guides conduct. Instrumental values, as part of this value system, can further be dichotomized into two categories: moral and competence values (Rokeach, 1973). Moral values (instrumental) define ethics. Intrinsic, personal values, not extrinsic, ethical codes or codes of conduct, predispose administrators to behave unethically or ethically (Kreitner & Reif, 1980).

Is this moral dimension missing from today's leaders? "[H]as the mindless materialism of the '80's left in its wake a values vacuum?" (Shapiro, 1987, p. 14). Relevant to this study, is the moral dimension missing from today's chief educational leaders, as well? Is it missing from tomorrow's chief educational leaders? Are leaders more inclined toward competence values or moral values? Discovering this inclination of school leaders is of interest in light of the prediction of leadership need as expressed by Goldhammer (1982): "The leadership we need for the 80's and the

90's and the new century, looming in the distance before us, should be analyzed in terms of its philosophical import and its ethical significance" (p. 27). Administrators of the future must be respected for their moral commitment more than their ability to perform managerial tasks (Holmes, 1986).

"If you're a manager, you do things right. If you're a leader, you do the right thing." In an age of rapid change, this maxim implies the value-laden distinction of being a leader. The need for leaders who do the "right thing" is of special importance in light of the technological age in which we live. Urbanization, environmental concerns, nuclear power, telecommunications, and biotechnology force leaders to "rethink" their beliefs, including their values and ethical positions. Biotechnology, for example, is raising moral questions that "Moses, Buddha, Christ or Mohammed could not have conceived of in their wildest imaginings" (Van Dusen-Wishard, 1988). The neglect of the moral dimension of values in this type of choice-filled environment would be crippling (Toffler, 1974). The chief educational leaders of this nation will be directing the schools that will be educating the leaders who will make many of the decisions relative to this advanced technological age.

There appears to be a need for an emphasis on the moral component in leadership. However, this does not mean that the competency skills should be supplanted or excluded. On the contrary, both components should be balanced. As technology advances, the need for ethical values must also advance. Both

components, the competence and the moral, should harmonize. Maccoby (1976) used the term "head" qualities to refer to those values associated with the competence, technical, cognitive aspects of one's value system. He used the term "heart" qualities to refer to those values associated with the moral, ethical, affective aspects of one's value system. In his study of managers in the business world, Maccoby discovered that the head traits dominated, that an imbalance existed. If this imbalance continues, "where will we find future leaders who possess the moral strength to know right from wrong and the courage to act on those convictions?" (Maccoby, 1976, p. 108). Barnard (1938) claimed that it is important that the leaders of today and tomorrow complement their competence values (head qualities) with moral values (heart qualities), which serve to add meaning to all the values they hold.

Little research has been done in the area of values of chief educational leaders and the effect their values have on the organization (Aplin, 1983; Ashbaugh & Kasten, 1984). The study of the moral dimension, i.e., values and ethics in administration, is an area open for investigation because it appears to have been omitted from any careful empirical study (Hodgkinson, 1978). Greenfield (1984) agreed:

> To conclude that leadership is a moral activity is perhaps to belabor the obvious or to state a platitude. But it is strange how often the obvious and the platitudinous are overlooked in studies of leaders in school and strange, too, how frequently such truths are ignored. (p. 160)

Stout (1986) concurred that the moral dimension needs attention from scholars in educational leadership. He wrote, "The

contemporary study of school administration must begin to take into account in a serious way the influence of values and ethics on decisions made in and about schools" (p. 198).

The present writer took Stout's admonition seriously by exploring the value systems of public school superintendents, nonpublic school superintendents, and aspiring superintendents for the purpose of identifying and comparing their values to determine what differences and commonalities exist. Furthermore, because moral values predispose ethics, the study of such values is a useful investigative tool for determining ethical inclinations (Kreitner & Reif, 1980).

Research Questions

Two concepts that were revealed in the research literature formed the basis of this study. Those concepts are discussed in this section.

Research Question 1

Are there differences in the value systems of practicing superintendents and aspiring superintendents?

Related literature. In the research literature, discussion of values and ethics in school administration has been sparse or, at most, a "steady trickle" (Ashbaugh & Kasten, 1984; Hiruy, 1987; Willower, 1986). Many writers in the field of educational administration have claimed that scholars need to be more concerned with values and ethics (Barnard, 1938; Greenfield, 1984; Holmes, 1986). Further, practitioners of administration in the future, in

particular, chief educational leaders, must be concerned with the ethical significance of their leadership, not simply the technical aspect (Dexheimer, 1969; Goldhammer, 1982; Shannon, 1987; Van Dusen-Wishard, 1988).

Administrator training programs need to include more discussion about values and ethics (Hodgkinson, 1978; Kimbrough, 1985; Strike, Haller, & Soltis, 1988). Finally, more research studies need to be conducted in the field of values and ethics (Ashbaugh & Kasten, 1984; Hodgkinson, 1978; Kimbrough, 1985; Stout, 1986).

Therefore, according to the literature, the exploration of the values of chief educational leaders is necessary. In this study, the writer will seek to identify the value systems of superintendents. Quantifying the value systems by ranks will provide a "baseline" of data or a beginning to understanding. Comparing the data will show whether there are differences in the value systems of the three groups under investigation, as well as where commonalities exist. This exploratory study will also yield data that will be usable for future research. Furthermore, questions will be raised that are ancillary to the scope of this research.

Null Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference in the instrumental and terminal values of practicing school superintendents (PRS) (i.e., public school superintendents [PSS] and nonpublic school superintendents [NSS]) and aspiring superintendents (AS).

Expected findings for Hypothesis 1.

Instrumental values: Differences in instrumental values of differing groups have been shown to exist, i.e., teacher unions (Sonnenberg, 1979), managers in business (Mills, 1987), and principals (Massey, 1982). With the exception of HONESTY, which Maccoby (1976) viewed as a necessary anomaly, there has not been a consistency of any one ranked value that could be predicted. However, it has been shown that values may change as a result of maturation, education, and experience (Holloway, 1985; Plant, 1965; Rokeach, 1968; Scott, 1965). Therefore, one might expect that being a chief educational leader will cause a change in some values; thus, AS could show some significant differences in certain values. However, AS will probably emulate those values demonstrated by practicing superintendents because they aspire to that position. De Salvia and Gemmill (1971) found this to be true. In their study, college students' values were not much different from those of the chief executive officers with whom they were being compared. It is expected that AS's values will be the same as those of the practicing superintendents they emulate.

Terminal values: Instrumental values are, by definition, modes of behavior to achieve terminal end-states. One may therefore assume that differences in instrumental values will ultimately cause differences in terminal values. Although there may be a connection between the two types, there is not a close, one-to-one connection (Rokeach, 1973). Therefore, with the exception of SALVATION, which is distinctively ranked higher by those with high religiosity

(Rokeach, 1973), one cannot expect to find significant differences in terminal values of the respondents in this study.

Because few values can be predicted, it was expected that the values of the three groups would be more similar than different. Also, since there has not been definitive research that could be used to anticipate the outcomes of this study, the findings from this study therefore become more meaningful to the body of knowledge in educational administration.

Research Question 2

Is there an imbalance between the head and heart instrumental values of the PRS, PSS, NSS, and AS?

Related literature. An imbalance between the head and heart values has been shown to exist in the business world (England, 1974; Goad, 1986; Kreitner & Reif, 1980; Maccoby, 1976; Miller, 1983; Stevens, 1985). An "imbalance" refers to the disproportionate ranking of the head values above the heart values, as opposed to an even "mixture."

Also, an imbalance in educational administration may exist (Greenfield, 1985; Holmes, 1986; Massey, 1982; Sonnenberg, 1979; Spindler, 1955; Stout, 1986; Van Dusen-Wishard, 1988). This imbalance may continue in educational administration if this field of endeavor resembles the business sector (Goad, 1986; Kreitner & Reif, 1980; Miller, 1983; Stevens, 1985).

In this study, the writer attempted to determine whether a head/heart imbalance in value systems existed in educational

leaders. Implications can be drawn from the data, which will be useful to scholars and practitioners in the field of educational administration. Because many practicing superintendents will be retiring within the next three to five years, the findings may be particularly useful to aspiring superintendents who will replace them.

> Null Hypothesis 2: There is no significant imbalance between the head and heart instrumental values of the PRS, PSS, NSS, and AS.

Expected findings for Hypothesis 2. Several investigators who have conducted studies in the business world have indicated that the head values are ranked higher than the heart values (Kreitner & Reif, 1980; Maccoby, 1976; Stevens, 1985). Also, an imbalance may exist in the field of educational administration (Greenfield, 1985; Stout, 1986; Van Dusen-Wishard, 1988). It was expected that a significant relationship would exist that would show an imbalance in the head/heart dichotomy of the instrumental values. The lack of empirical data to support this notion underscores the usefulness of this study.

Variables

The independent variable in this study was group membership. The groups were determined, corresponding to the two hypotheses of the study.

The first major group comprised chief educational leaders who were currently practicing their craft in Michigan (practicing superintendents--PRS). This group was divided into two subgroups.

One subgroup included public school superintendents (PSS) who were members of the Michigan Association of School Administrators (MASA) and represented the public school chief educational leaders. The second subgroup included nonpublic school superintendents (NSS) who were members of the Michigan Association of Nonpublic Schools (MANS) and represented the chief educational leaders in the nonpublic schools in Michigan.

The second major study group comprised those student educators enrolled in doctoral or specialist programs in educational administration at Michigan State University (AS) who aspired to become chief educational leaders but had not yet attained that position and therefore were not yet practicing their craft.

The dependent variable was the respondents' value rankings of the 18 terminal values and 18 instrumental values using the Rokeach Value Survey, Form E.

Delimitations

The following factors were considered delimitations of this study:

1. The data supported by the respondents were self-reported. The study findings are generalizable only to the extent that the self-reported data represent actual values of the respondents.

2. The data represented only the respondents' perceptions of their value systems. Resultant behavior or conduct was not within the scope of this study, although implications may be drawn.

3. Only selected chief educational leaders in Michigan were included in the sample of superintendents in the study. Generalization of the findings outside of Michigan is not advisable except to the extent that chief educational leaders from outside Michigan can be shown to be similar to the superintendents in this study.

4. Only the Department of Educational Administration at Michigan State University was included. The findings are applicable to other institutions only to the extent that they are similar to Michigan State University.

5. Only NSS from the Michigan Association of Nonpublic Schools were used to represent those chief educational leaders practicing their craft in the nonpublic educational sector. The findings are generalizable only to the extent that NSS are similar to other chief educational leaders in private educational institutions.

6. Only doctoral and specialist students enrolled in the Department of Educational Administration at Michigan State University or students enrolled in Michigan State University's statewide Administrator Extern-Superintendents section course were included. The results should not be applied to any other students enrolled in the College of Education.

Limitations

The study was limited by the following factors:

1. The extent to which the PSS were representative of the practicing public school superintendents in Michigan.

2. The extent to which the NSS were representative of the practicing nonpublic school superintendents in Michigan.

3. The extent to which the sample of students in the Department of Educational Administration at Michigan State University were representative of aspiring superintendents.

4. The extent to which the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) appropriately depicted the values of the respondents.

5. The extent to which the respondents could accurately rank their values.

Assumptions

The following assumptions were necessary in order to conduct the study.

1. That the values on the RVS are important in the lives of the respondents.

2. That the head values and the heart values can be dichotomized.

3. That the respondents were able to identify and rank order their values.

4. That the values that were ranked first were more central to the respondents than were lower-ranked values (England, 1974; Rokeach, 1973).

5. That a person possesses a relatively small number of values (Rokeach, 1973).

6. That everyone everywhere possesses the same values but to differing degrees (Rokeach, 1973).

7. That values are organized into value systems (Rokeach, 1973).

8. That the consequences of human values are manifested in all phenomena a social scientist might consider worth investigating (Rokeach, 1973).

Definitions of Terms

Chief educational leader. The chief executive officer in the school district organization; operationally defined in this study as the superintendent.

Ethics. Moral principles by which a person is guided (Barnhart, 1974).

Head values. A subset of the instrumental values; they are cognitive, pragmatic, personal in orientation, self-actualizing, and pertain to the ability to "think" (Maccoby, 1976). Rokeach (1969) called them competence values.

Heart values. A subset of the instrumental values; they are affective, moral, and ethical, with an interpersonal orientation and focus on one's ability to "feel" (Maccoby, 1976). Rokeach (1969) called them moral values.

Instrumental values. Modes of conduct that help to achieve terminal values (Rokeach, 1973).

Terminal values. Desirable goals or end-states of existence (Rokeach, 1973).

Value. An enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of existence (Rokeach, 1973).

Values or value system. Enduring organization of beliefs concerning preferable modes of conduct or end-states of existence along a continuum of relative importance (Rokeach, 1973).

Summary and Overview

This study was undertaken to explore the value systems of practicing superintendents and those who aspire to the superintendency by identifying and comparing their values. Also, the participants' ethical inclinations were studied by statistically testing the head/heart instrumental value dichotomy. The findings can be used as the basis for future study. Also, the results may have implications for curriculum development and teaching methods in educational administration coursework. The research questions were stated, variables defined, and hypotheses set forth to provide a framework for the study. Expected findings based on a review of the literature were also articulated.

Chapter II contains a review of literature related to the study. Several theories of values are discussed, as are the measurement of values, values development, value change, and the effect of education and experience on values. Next, the importance of values in organizational effectiveness is established, and the connection between values and ethics is shown. Finally, an attempt

is made to show that an imbalance may exist between the head and heart values in educational administration.

In Chapter III, the methods and procedures followed in this study are explained. The population and sample, the survey instrument, and the data-collection and data-collection methods are discussed.

Results of the data analyses performed in this study are reported in Chapter IV. Chapter V contains a summary of major findings, conclusions drawn from the findings, and recommendations for those interested in the study of values in educational leadership.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature related to this study provides a theoretical framework on which to base the study. Several major themes were discovered from this review. Several theories of values were discussed, and one particular theory or framework was identified as being relevant and useful for this research. This section also includes discussions about the measurement of values, values development, value change, and the influence of education and experience on values. Second, the importance of values in organizational effectiveness is established. Third, the connection between values and ethics is shown. In the final section, an attempt is made to show that an imbalance may exist between the head and heart values in educational administration.

The Study of Values

How Have Values Been Defined?

Approaches to the study of values are as varied as the disciplines in which they are found, from theology to economics. This variation is due to differing definitions of values, the level of abstraction or generality being considered, the measurement

problems associated with values, and the purposes for which values are measured.

England (1974) defined values as similar to an ideology or philosophy or belief. However, he embellished this view by describing most approaches to values as falling on a bipolar continuum ranging from preferential approaches to normative approaches. Normative approaches refer to those that focus on moral topics, whereas preferential approaches refer to those that emphasize needs, desires, and interests. The level of abstraction also falls on a continuum. This one ranges from very specific values to highly abstract or general values. Furthermore, England presented a framework of values by dividing them into two classes, nonrelevant or weak values and conceived values. Conceived values are then subdivided to include operative values, intended values, and adopted values. Weak values are those that would have little or no effect on behavior. Conceived values are those that are likely to be translated from the intentional state into behavior. Operative values refer to those that will be translated into behavior. Intended values are those that are viewed as important but may have only a moderate probability of being translated from the intentional state into behavior. Adopted values are those that affect behavior only because of situational factors (England, 1974, p. 6). In the present research, the researcher was concerned with normative, conceived values.

Scott (1965) further refined values as follows:

> A person may be said to entertain a value to the extent that he
> conceives a particular state of affairs as an ultimate end, an
> absolute good under all circumstances, and a universal "ought"
> toward which all people should strive. (p. 15)

Virtually all writers have pointed to the "ought" character of values. Notice in this definition that the dimensions of ultimacy, absoluteness, and universality are included. Ultimacy refers to the degree to which the value is conceived as a final, sufficient end-state. Absoluteness refers to the degree to which the value remains unchangeable. Universality refers to the value's applicability to all. These three dimensions may covary to differing degrees, which will determine the strength of the value.

Summarizing the major concepts of theoretical approaches to values, McLaughlin (1965) stated:

> Values (1) are not directly observable, (2) have cognitive,
> affective, and conative elements, (3) do not operate
> independently of the biological organism or social field. . .
> values are also conceived of as (4) referring to standards of
> the desirable rather than to the desired, (5) hierarchically
> organized in the personality system, and (6) relevant to actual
> behavior as a function of personal commitment and situational
> factors. (pp. 261-62)

Milton Rokeach (1973), a leader in research on values, refined the definition of values even further. He defined a value as "an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence" (p. 5).

Values are one of three specific types of beliefs distinguished in the literature. Rokeach (1973) stated that there are evaluative

beliefs, those in which the object of belief can be judged to be good or bad; descriptive beliefs, those capable of being true or false; and proscriptive beliefs, those where some means or end can be judged desirable or undesirable. A value is a belief of the third kind. "A value is a belief upon which a man acts by preference" (Allport, 1961, p. 454). Kluckhohn (1951) also called a value a "conception of the desirable" (p. 359).

Values have cognitive, affective, and behavioral components. Values are cognitive in the sense that an individual knows the correct way to behave. Values are affective in that one can feel emotional about them. Values are behavioral in that values lead to action when activated.

Values differ from many other similar concepts. Values differ from attitudes in that they are not tied to a specific object or situation. An attitude is a system of several beliefs that are object-specific or situation-specific and predispose someone to act a certain way. Attitudes allow for the expression of an underlying set of values (Katz & Stotland, 1959). A value, on the other hand, is a single belief, which serves as a standard that guides conduct, transcends objects or situations, and holds a more central position in the personality of an individual. "Attitudes themselves depend on pre-existing social values" (Allport, 1961, pp. 802-803); "attitudes are functions of values" (Woodruff, 1942, p. 33).

Values are different from social norms (Williams, 1968) and traits (Allport, 1961) but similar in some ways to needs (French & Kahn, 1962) and interests (Perry, 1954). The distinction made

between two kinds of values, means and ends-values, has received some attention in the philosophical, anthropological, and psychological literature on values. Lovejoy (1950), Kluckhohn (1951), and English and English (1958) represent this work, respectively. Rokeach (1973) made this distinction in his discussion of values by defining beliefs concerning desirable modes of conduct, the "means," as instrumental values, whereas beliefs concerning desirable end-states of existence, the "ends," he defined as terminal values. Most researchers have given attention to one or the other type of values. Scott (1965), Piaget (1965), and Kohlberg (1963) most often studied idealized modes of conduct or instrumental values. Smith (1969); Allport, Vernon, and Lindzey (1960); and Maslow (1959) concerned themselves with the end-states of existence or terminal values. Some researchers, like Maccoby (1976), have studied only the subset of instrumental values.

Rokeach (1973) further subdivided terminal values into two kinds: personal and social. Instrumental values were divided into moral and competence values.

Writers have also validated the concept of value system. Seldom, if ever, is a person guided by only one value (Williams, 1968). England (1974) defined value system as "a relatively permanent perceptual framework which shapes and influences the general nature of an individual's behavior" (p. 2). Rokeach (1973) defined value system as "an enduring organization of beliefs concerning preferable modes of conduct or end-states of existence

along a continuum of relative importance" (p. 5). Value systems serve as general plans that can be used to make decisions, solve problems, and resolve conflict.

Rokeach (1968) developed and England (1974) confirmed the notions of centrality-peripheralness to interpret behaviorally one's value systems. He showed that values can be arranged in terms of their centrality or peripheralness to the person. The more central the value is to the person, the more stable it is, the more resistant to value change, and the wider its scope of influence (see Figure 1).
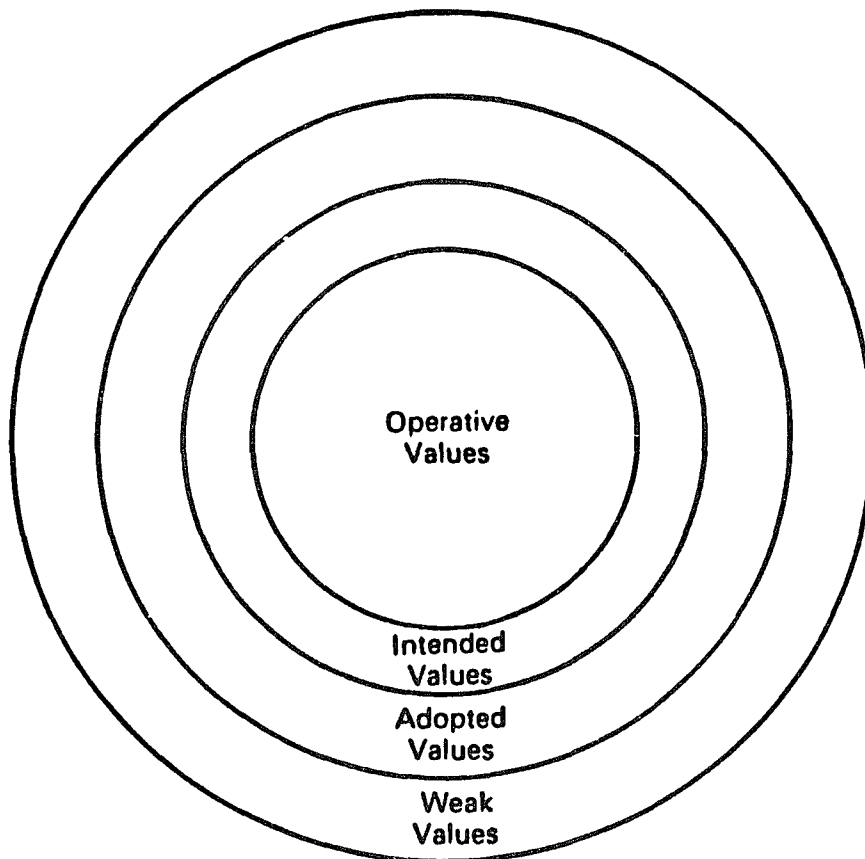
Figure 1.--England's centrality sphere.

The theoretical basis undergirding this study relied heavily on the work of Rokeach (1973). He presented several concepts that this writer considered to be viable. First, there exists a relatively small number of values that people possess. Second, everyone everywhere possesses the same values but to differing degrees. Third, values are organized into value systems. Fourth, the antecedents of values can be traced to culture, institutions, and personality. Fifth, the consequences of human values will be manifested in all phenomena a social scientist might consider worth investigating.

Also, the instrumental values subdivided into two groups, the head and heart values (Maccoby, 1976), were given close attention in this study.

How Have Values Been Measured?

The question one might pose when entering a discussion on values is "Can values be measured?" Data on values would be extremely valuable to illuminate differences between cultures, occupations, and political or religious orientations, since "all conditions are translatable into questions concerning differences in underlying values and value systems" (Rokeach, 1973, p. 26). Furthermore, Handy (1970) claimed that values can be measured once they are identified and classified.

There are three major approaches to measuring values: (a) drawing conclusions about one's values or value system by observing his/her behavior, (b) simply asking a person to tell about his values in his/her own words, and (c) giving a rank-ordering survey.

Considering the obvious limitations of the first and second methods, it is no wonder that many researchers have chosen to use or develop a test or survey to measure values.

Many researchers have classified values and developed tests or surveys to disaggregate them. Gordon (1964) and England (1974) are two researchers who developed such a test or survey. This researcher discovered ten instruments that could be applied to gather data on values. Robinson and Shaver (1969) found at least 12. The most popular instrument for many years was Allport and Vernon's (1931) Study of Values. Their work was based on the German psychologist, Edward Spranger (1928), who classified people according to the main values they held. In his book, Types of Men, six types of values--theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political, and religious--were delineated. The 1960 modification of the Study of Values by Allport, Vernon, and Lindzey became the instrument of choice for many researchers. However, Kitwood and Smithers (1975) claimed that this survey does not actually test values, merely interests.

Rokeach developed a survey of values that has become widely accepted and used to assess the values of groups. Buros's 1978 edition of Mental Measurements Yearbook documented 194 studies using the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS). The RVS was given to a national probability sample of 1,489 adult Americans in 1968 by the National Opinion Research Center. Their data showed that the RVS is reasonably valid and reliable across a wide range of groups and

individuals and that it is usable and applicable for the current research. (See p. 69 for RVS reliability information.)

Eighteen terminal and 18 instrumental values were distilled from a long list obtained from various sources. Terminal values refer to those desirable end-states of existence, whereas instrumental values refer to desirable modes of behavior. An individual rank orders the values from top to bottom, the highest priority value being first and on top of the list (Rokeach, 1973, p. 28).

The terminal values on the RVS are:

1. A comfortable life (a prosperous life)

2. An exciting life (a stimulating, active life)

3. A sense of accomplishment (lasting contribution)

4. A world of peace (free of war and conflict)

5. A world of beauty (beauty of nature and the arts)

6. Equality (brotherhood, equal opportunity for all)

7. Family security (taking care of loved ones)

8. Freedom (independence, free choice)

9. Happiness (contentedness)

10. Inner harmony (freedom from inner conflict)

11. Mature love (sexual and spiritual intimacy)

12. National security (protection from attack)

13. Pleasure (an enjoyable, leisurely life)

14. Salvation (saved, eternal life)

15. Self-respect (self-esteem)

16. Social recognition (respect, admiration)

17. True friendship (close companionship)

18. Wisdom (a mature understanding of life)

The instrumental values on the RVS are:

1. Ambitious (hard-working, aspiring)

2. Broad-minded (open-minded)

3. Capable (competent, effective)

4. Cheerful (lighthearted, joyful)

5. Clean (neat, tidy)

6. Courageous (standing up for your beliefs)

7. Forgiving (willing to pardon others)

8. Helpful (working for the welfare of others)

9. Honest (sincere, truthful)

10. Imaginative (daring, creative)

11. Independent (self-reliant, self-sufficient)

12. Intellectual (intelligent, reflective)

13. Logical (consistent, reflective)

14. Loving (affectionate, tender)

15. Obedient (dutiful, respectful)

16. Polite (courteous, well-mannered)

17. Responsible (dependable, reliable)

18. Self-controlled (restrained, self-disciplined)

Maccoby (1976) used a modification of the RVS by using only the instrumental values to determine the "head" or "heart" orientation of business leaders. Maccoby developed his own instrumental value profile by listing 19 "character traits." Ten of the so-called

traits are qualities of the "heart," and nine are qualities of the "head." Head values are cognitive, personal in orientation, with the goal of self-actualization. Head values deal with the ability to "think." Heart values are affective and have an interpersonal focus. In contrast to head values, heart values deal with a "feeling" orientation (Rokeach, 1969).

The heart values (called moral values by Rokeach) of this study are:

    Clean
    Forgiving
    Helpful
    Honest
    Loving
    Obedient
    Polite
    Responsible
    Self-controlled

The head values (called competence values by Rokeach) of this study are:

    Ambitious
    Broad-minded
    Capable
    Imaginative
    Independent
    Intellectual
    Logical

Because the RVS is valid and reliable across a wide range of individuals and groups and because it has been widely used and accepted as a measure of values, this survey was the primary instrument for the present research. Furthermore, to ascertain the "head/heart" orientation of the study groups, particular attention was focused on the instrumental values.

Values Development, Values Change, and the Influence of Education and Experience on Values

It is important early in the discussion of values development to distinguish between content and structure of a value. Content refers to WHAT one values or believes about a value; i.e., the value that stealing is wrong is the content. Structure, on the other hand, refers to the WHY of a value; i.e., stealing is wrong because it causes another a loss. The structure of a value will develop with age and experience. A person might be structurally guided by what another person will say at one point and later be guided by rules or laws. The content remains the same, yet what supports it is different. Structure, therefore, will change as one gains experiences and as one passes through stages of time and maturity (Ward, 1979). Throughout this discussion, value change refers to a change in structure and/or content of the value. For the purposes of this study, it is not important to know what component changes but rather that a value is capable of development and change due to education and experience.

The field of moral development is closely related to values development and with the concepts of content and structure. Kohlberg (1964) found that three different kinds of structure account for virtually all moral judgments. Level 1, or the preconventional level, focuses on self. "Good" is what best serves the selfish interests and purposes. "Bad" or "wrong" is what goes against the selfish, intrinsic interests. Punishment and reward are

the major influences. Level 2, or the conventional level, focuses on others. Moral judgments are made on the basis of extrinsic concerns. Early in this level, the way to determine right and wrong depends on the reaction of significant others. Later in this level, values are developed from a strict adherence to rules and regulations. Level 3, or the postconventional level, focuses on principles, both intrinsic and extrinsic. This level is reached by a minority of adults and usually after the age of 20. Within each of these levels are two stages. The first stage is less advanced than the second. Each stage is sequential.

Similarly, Perry (1970) developed a stage theory called a "scheme." His scheme holds that as one develops from childhood to adulthood, he/she may pass through nine positions in three categories. A person's value system would develop from basic duality or Absolutism to Relativism to Commitments. The last category, Commitments, is similar in function to Kohlberg's (1964) Level 3 and Maslow's (1954) highest-level need, self-actualization. Some of the earlier work by McDougall (1909) and Piaget (1932) also supported the notion of stages of value and moral development. The work of these theorists seems to imply that values continue to develop as one matures and also as new experiences are undertaken.

How do people come to adopt the particular values they hold? Researchers have shown that the values-development process begins at a very young age and continues throughout life. Also, several theorists have believed that the acquisition of values is based on reinforcement, positive or negative, of concepts and behavior.

> [Acquiring values] is ordinarily described as a learning process, whereby the individual comes to anticipate reward or punishment following an approved or forbidden act, and develops some (approximate) conception of the standard that others use to reinforce his behavior. (Scott, 1965, p. 42)

Hence, many have studied values development in children rather than adults and have found that most values are learned while young and change insignificantly as they age. Piaget's (1932) pioneering work dealing with morality in children indicated that values in place by the early teenage years are not essentially different from the adult view. Peck and Havighurst (1960) studied 34 adolescents in "Prairie City" and discovered that their level of morality at age 16 could be predicted by age 10. Kohlberg and Kramer (1969) indicated that there was little difference in the moral judgment of individuals at 16 and 25. However, Scott (1965) found when studying college fraternity and sorority men and women that moral values develop well into early adulthood and even later life.

Rokeach (1973) asserted that values do change. The process of change is initiated when a person recognizes a contradiction in his/her value system, which causes him/her to be dissatisfied and consequently to seek rectification.

> . . . The basic mechanism that initiates a process of change is an affective state of self-dissatisfaction, which is induced when a person becomes aware of certain contradictions in his total belief system. The more such contradictions implicate self-conceptions, the more likely that they will induce self-dissatisfaction and the more likely that the ensuing changes will endure. Self-dissatisfaction will not arise if such contradictions do not exist or do not become apparent or, should they become apparent, they are denied or repressed. But if a person perceives such contradictions within himself as credible, his perception should generate self-dissatisfaction. To reduce or eliminate such self-dissatisfaction, a person will

often find it necessary to realign values with self-conceptions. Value change should in turn lead to a cognitive reorganization of the remaining values in the system and changes in functionally related attitudes, and it should culminate finally in behavioral change. (p. 286)

New experiences can cause this sense of self-dissatisfaction. Self-dissatisfaction over not holding the appropriate values that exist within the superintendency could cause an aspiring chief educational leader to reevaluate and change his/her value system.

This view that values tend to be a product of one's experience has been shared by other theorists. Raths, Harmin, and Simon (1966) believed that because people have different experiences, they develop different values; these values are neither static, nor do they function in a pure, abstract way. This notion is also consistent with Rogers's (1964) observation about values:

Values are not held rigidly, but are continually changing. The painting which last year seemed meaningful now appears uninteresting; the way of working with individuals which was formerly experienced as good now seems inadequate; the belief which then seemed true is now experienced as only partly true, or perhaps false. (p. 164)

Conceivably, these theories purport that experience affects values. Therefore, as an important experience in the life of an aspiring superintendent, higher education can be influential in values development and change.

Education has been shown to make a difference in values. Educational institutions, by their very nature, attempt to shape values in certain directions that are congruent with the institutions' values (Rokeach, 1973, p. 336). However, education in the form of lecture or exposure to information will not likely

produce value change unless it is coupled with self-dissatisfaction (Rokeach, 1973, p. 332). This principle could help explain the apparent contradictions in the research that has attempted to show that higher education does make a difference in values. The research is not clear-cut.

One of the first modern studies on the influence of education on values was done by Hartshorne and May (1920). In their research on cheating behaviors, the authors found that values-education programs in schools and churches had little effect. Jacob (1957) found that value changes do not generally occur as a result of college experience. Emmanuel (1978), in his longitudinal study, indicated that values did not change, save religious ones. On the other hand, Plant (1965) found that students from their freshman to senior years showed a decrease in dogmatism, authoritarianism, and intolerance.

In the National Opinion Research Center study, Rokeach discovered that some values tended to increase with education while others decreased. Political, intellectual, self-actualization, aesthetic, and romantic values tended to increase. Religious, hedonic, materialistic, pacifistic, and patriotic values decreased. In his comparison of the personal values of undergraduate and graduate students, faculty, administrators, and board members at Slippery Rock State College, Gallineau (1979) found that there was a large disparity in the values of undergraduates and faculty on 18 of the 36 values of the Rokeach Values Survey. In a study of Inupiaq Eskimo school board members, Holloway (1985) discovered that length

of formal education affected values. Benevolence, as tested by the Survey of Interpersonal Values, became less valued with more formal education.

The discussion in this section indicated that values do develop and change throughout adulthood and that differences in values can be attributed to education and experience. The contradictory information demonstrated a need to study this influence further. This theoretical framework provides the rationale for including aspiring superintendents as a relevant study group for this research.

Values and Behavior

As mentioned earlier, the study of values has been the source of interest of researchers from many disciplines. They have recognized that the study of values lies at the core of understanding human behavior, specifically management behavior. Sikula (1971) indicated that the study of values is the most promising approach that exists to explain behavior. He continued by stating that values more completely explain motivation in the organization. Values are determinants of virtually all kinds of social behavior, including social action and ideology, judgments and evaluations, and justifications, comparisons, and presentations of self to others as well as attempts to influence others (Rokeach, 1973).

England (1974) discussed two major ways in which values can influence behavior: behavior channeling and perceptual screening.

Behavior channeling refers to a method in which one channels his/her behavior away from a questionable proposition because of the values he/she abides by. This is viewed as values directly influencing behavior. Perceptual screening refers to "the power of personal values to select, filter and influence interpretation of what one 'sees' and 'hears'" (England, 1974, p. 7). Obviously, perceptual screening is a more indirect influence on behavior.

Personal values influence organizational behavior as well. Udy (1959) stated that each member brings into the organization from the outside various expectations and values that inevitably affect how he/she carries out his/her role.

England (1974) expanded this notion by asserting that personal values influence the behavior of managers in organizations. He stated that personal value systems:

1. influence the way a manager looks at other individuals and groups of individuals, thus influencing interpersonal relationships.
2. influence a manager's perceptions of situations and problems he faces.
3. influence a manager's decisions and solutions to problems.
4. set the limits for the determination of what is and what is not ethical behavior by a manager.
5. influence the extent to which a manager will accept or will resist organizational pressures and goals.
6. influence not only the perception of individual and organization success, but its achievement as well. (p. 3)

Apparently, the values of the manager and consequent managerial behavior in any organization will affect the organization.

Values have been shown to make a difference in decision-making behavior. College freshmen make decisions to join or not to join a fraternity or sorority based on their values (Scott, 1965). Parents

send their children to Christian schools because of value congruency (Adams, 1983). Differences in values have been shown to be associated with cheating on tests (Henshal, 1969, 1971). Guth and Tagiuri (1965) showed that personal values influence corporate-strategy choices of businessmen. McMurry (1963) noted that the role of values is shown in how "people problems" are handled. These are but a few examples. There is a body of evidence linking values and behavior.

Knowledge of an individual's values enables one to predict behavior.

> If it is indeed the case that terminal and instrumental values are standards that guide actions as well as attitudes, then knowing a person's values should enable us to predict how he will behave in various experimental and real-life situations. (Rokeach, 1973, p. 122)

Rokeach (1968) found that the ranking of the terminal value SALVATION was highly predictive of church attendance. Inclinations of ethical behavior of future businessmen have been made on the basis of their ranking of instrumental values (Kreitner & Reif, 1980; Maccoby, 1976; Stevens, 1985).

Personal values define the difference between "management" behavior and "administrative" behavior. Hodgkinson (1978) made a useful distinction between management and administration.

> The distinction divides behavior that has a strong moral and volitional component from behavior that has not. Administrative acts are related to the development of policy, the creation of precedent, the expression of values, and the exercise of professional discretion. Managerial acts are concerned primarily with the implementation of policy, the following of precedent and the application of norms and rule. Good administration involves the conscious and wise application of moral choice. (Holmes, 1986, pp. 3-4)

Barnard (1938) asserted that interaction of the technical aspect of administration and the moral base of the administrator distinguishes "quality" decision-making behavior. He noted the distinction between those things that are possible to do (the technical bases of decision) and those things that are worth doing or that are right to do.

Much of the discussion thus far has illuminated that values influence behavior in possibly inconsequential ways and only to the extent that they are submerged in the process of rational decision-making behavior. However, researchers have found more direct links between values and policy-making behavior. Mitchell, Marshall, and Wirt (1985), in their work with six states' legislatures, demonstrated clear links between the value systems of legislators and the proposals for educational policy. They argued that since legislators are elected who share the same values as their constituents, they are therefore inclined to support policies consistent with the values of the citizenry, especially at points of choice.

Kirby et al. (1973) demonstrated the links between values and key decision makers and policy outcomes. They pointed out that school desegregation decisions were viewed as a moral struggle absent of discussion about presumed costs and benefits.

Iannaccone and Lutz (1970) showed that successor superintendents are chosen to lead a school district in new policy directions. The former school board members and former

superintendent were relieved of duty as the community values shifted. Therefore, the new superintendent reflects the "new" values.

The link between values and behavior is documentable and can be seen in consequential ways. This link is apparent among leaders in the educational community. Even though behavior was not the focus in this study, implications can be drawn that reflect on the behavior of the leader and are therefore considered worthwhile.

Study of Values Summary

The theoretical foundation of this study rests on the theory of values presented in this section. Research has confirmed that values are measurable and worthy of study. It was shown that personal values develop and change over time and maturity and that education and experience can have an influence on values. Furthermore, it was shown that personal values affect behavior. In the next section, the writer attempts to establish the role of values in organizations, with particular focus on the values of the leaders of organizations.

Values, Leader Behavior, and Organizational Effectiveness
The Importance of Values in Organizational Effectiveness

Values of the leader influence an organization in many ways, but particularly by the types of decisions he/she makes. Barnard (1938) concluded that quality decisions made by executive leaders were made by an interaction of two components, the technical and

moral. The moral component was further subdivided into (a) responsibility and (b) personal codes of conduct (values). It is the moral aspect that determines the quality of the decision. Stout (1986) claimed that the interaction of these qualities determines the success or failure of an organization through the executive. He wrote:

> The moral codes of the executive, the sense or condition of responsibility and the executive's general intellectual abilities come together at points of decision. The executive lacking the appropriate combination will almost certainly fail. (p. 200)

Viall (1984) studied effective, high-performing organizations. He developed a typology where seven conditions of absence or presence of the three states, Time, Focus, and Feeling, were presented. The interaction of these three states explains the differences between high-performing organizations and others. "Feeling" is defined as emanating from the leader's "deep values and beliefs" and is located at the center of the three states. The condition most relevant to a discussion of values is the condition Time and Focus without Feeling. Viall stated:

> Time and Focus without Feeling says, "Don't get too involved. Look at the facts. Make a decision and move on to the next thing. It is important to say with Time/Focus without Feeling that the pattern is not dysfunctional per se: it is just never found in leaders of high performing systems. (p. 95)

Hodgkinson (1978) concurred that since administration is a "value-laden, even value-saturated enterprise" there is no way to explain administrative practice without reference to values. Successful administrators, therefore, know what they value and why they value it.

Peters and Waterman (1982), in their classic book, <u>In Search of</u> <u>Excellence</u>, confirmed Viall's notion that values are important in the excellent companies. They wrote:

> Let us suppose that we were asked for one all-purpose bit of advice for management, or truth that we were able to distill from the excellent companies research. We might be tempted to reply, "Figure out your value system. Decide what your company stands for." (p. 279)
>
> . . . .
> Every excellent company we studied is clear on what it stands for, and takes the process of value shaping seriously. (p. 280)
>
> . . . .
> Clarifying the value system and breathing life into it are the greatest contributions a leader can make. (p. 291)

From these statements, one can see that the values of the chief leader in the organization are central to the values and consequent success or failure of the organization. Sharing the same values becomes a prerequisite to success. It is important, therefore, that an organization possess a uniformity in values or "shared values." Kennedy and Deal (1982) referred to these shared values as "corporate culture." Elsewhere, shared values are known as the ethos of the organization.

> The ethos is what people in a community share that makes them a community rather than a group of disparate individuals. It is the configuration of attitudes, values, and beliefs that members of the community share. (Grant, 1985, p. 133)

The effects of the absence of shared values or ethos prove the necessity for them. In the school setting, superintendents are often replaced when the community, as reflected by the school board, does not share the same values as their chief executive. When this occurs, effectiveness cannot take place. Danis (1981) indicated

that the change in school board membership, often occurring because of a shift in values, followed by the employment of a new superintendent, does produce significant shifts in values, school district policy, and general direction. It appears from this research that shared values and effectiveness are inextricably connected. A superintendent's value systems, therefore, must not deviate very far from those of his/her school board if long-term success is the goal. This notion may also explain differences between public school and nonpublic school superintendents.

Barnard (1938) argued that the ethos or the undergirding shared value system of an organization and its success depended in part on the moral character of the chief executive. Hodgkinson (1978) hypothesized that "the quality of leadership is functionally related to the moral climate of the organization and this, in turn, to the moral complexity and skills of the leader" (p. 179). Greenfield (1986) and MacIntyre (1982) are administration theorists who shared the same view with Barnard and Hodgkinson. The superintendent, for example, performs some key tasks in his position where the focus of the role points squarely to his value system.

The effective schools research has illuminated the skills necessary for a superintendent to be effective. The values of the superintendent are essential components in each dimension of effectiveness. The four management dimensions for effective superintending, as espoused by Katz (1987), are the (a) planning function, (b) organization function, (c) leading function, and (d) controlling function. Each of these functions is subdivided into

more specific tasks that effective superintendents do, which reveals the value-laden nature of this important position. For example, the planning function includes (a) creating vision and goal centeredness, (b) setting the agenda for board and staff, (c) focusing academic learning at the core of the mission, and (d) operating with a short-term management system. Every one of these "management" behaviors is shaped by the personal values of the chief executive officer.

The "vision" of the leader is at the core of his/her belief system (Rokeach, 1973), and sharing a vision, focus, or sense of mission is one of the most important activities a superintendent can do (Bogues, 1985; DeBruyn, 1976; Sergiovanni, 1984). Setting the agenda for the board and staff is a gate-keeping function. Superintendents select and shape the information that goes to board members (Ashbaugh & Kasten, 1986). This activity assumes certain ethical considerations and consequent management behavior.

It can be seen that superintendents play important roles in the educational community and that their value system affects how they will behave. Behaving ethically "is especially important when individuals have power and influence over the lives of others" (Strike, Haller, & Soltis, 1988, p. 6). In the next section, how this influential person transmits his/her values is discussed.

Transmission of Leaders' Values

Selznick (1957) discussed leaders' commitment to transmitting values by asserting:

> The formation of an institution is marked by the making of
> value commitments, that is, choices which fix the assumptions
> of policy makers as to the nature of the enterprise to
> distinctive aims, methods, and roles. These character defining
> choices are often not made verbally, they might not even be
> made consciously. . . . The institutional leader is primarily
> an expert in the promotion and protection of values. (p. 28)

It appears from Selznick that the leader's primary function is the
transmission of values and that much of the leader's value system is
transmitted either overtly or covertly.

Overt transmission of values can be explained by communication
theory. In a study to identify an exemplary principal's values and
to determine how he transmitted those values, Densmore-Wulff (1985)
found that the principal used normal face-to-face communication to
transmit values. The values were transmitted via "sender" and
"receiver" behaviors. Sender behaviors were identified as (a)
participating in normal, everyday, formal and informal discussions
and conversations; (b) modeling expectations; (c) providing
recognition, frequent and specific; (d) being an advocate for
people; (e) aligning values and goals; and (f) providing
instructional leadership. Receiver behaviors were identified as (a)
shared decision making, (b) active listening, and (c) a high concern
for personal relationships.

It appears from this study that one of the most powerful tools
administrators have available to transmit their values is the
ability to "talk" with people. This study supported Macpherson's
(1986) thesis that talk is the instrument by which "administrators
gain control over aspects of social reality and the moral and
organization knowledge deemed to be policy" (p. 1).

On the other hand, the influence a top executive has over his/her subordinates can be covert in nature. In a study similar to Densmore-Wulff's, Aplin (1983) shadowed an exemplary superintendent to identify the values that guided his behavior and to determine to what extent these values affected the subordinates. Aplin discovered that the values of equity, respect for students and staff, unwillingness to compromise on agreed-upon goals, and "ownership" were most important. These values were found to exist in all the district administrators, and the strength and similarity of values depended on the closeness to and frequency of contact with the superintendent. These data imply that values "trickle down" (Lear, 1986, p. 18) to others.

Newstrom and Ruch (1975) also studied this trickle-down effect. They studied 121 managers participating in an executive development program. The subjects reported on their own ethical behavior and beliefs, as well as their perceptions concerning the ethical behavior/beliefs of others. Padding expense accounts, using company time for personal activities, breaching confidentiality, and using company equipment and services for personal reasons were just a few of the behaviors the managers evaluated. These managers rated themselves as fairly ethical but rated their colleagues as far more unethical than themselves. One of the conclusions that Newstrom and Ruch drew from this study was that ethical beliefs of employees are similar to perception of top-management ethics. This research indicated that the values of top management are indeed "caught" by employees at lower levels in the organization.

Stout (1986) concluded that the trickle-down effect begins when the school executive sets the tone for how the organization will operate. Setting the tone refers to operationalizing the executive's value system at the beginning of his/her tenure.

It appears from the literature that, for chief educational leaders to be successful, they must be responsible for and committed to the transmission of values in their school system. Furthermore, these values are indeed caught by the subordinates, either overtly or covertly. In the next section, the writer examines the stability of values of chief educational leaders as a group.

Consistency and Congruency of Values

One of the key considerations of this study hinges on the comparison of value systems among superintendents. It becomes apparent from the research literature that superintendents' value systems are relatively stable, consistent, and congruent among themselves and when compared with other educational leaders.

For more than 50 years, surveys of the background of superintendents have been conducted by students of educational leadership. One remarkable fact stands out from the mounds of data collected: The portrait of the superintendent since 1899 has remained incredibly consistent (Tyack & Hansot, 1982).

> Superintendents in the twentieth century have almost all been married white males, characteristically middle-aged, Protestant, upwardly mobile, from favored ethnic groups, native-born, . . . of rural origins, and have had long experience in education. (Tyack & Hansot, 1982, p. 169)

Given this long history of consistency, one could assume that the value systems of this group would likewise remain consistent. Segars (1987) studied this consistency by examining differences in professional ethics between large and small school district superintendents. Segars included in the study 154 public school superintendents from Mississippi and 84 superintendents named to the Executive Educator 100 for 1986. Ethical behavior was measured by the respondents' conformity to the AASA Code of Ethics as they responded to a decision-making questionnaire comprising 15 situations. No major discrepancies were found between groups in this study. Both the Mississippi superintendents and those exemplary superintendents conformed consistently to the AASA Code of Ethics. Furthermore, no differences in ethical behavior were found between superintendents of large and small districts.

Other studies have shown a high degree of congruency on specific values. Waggoner (1983) found that central office administrators consistently assigned more importance to the work values INDEPENDENCE and PRESTIGE and less importance to ALTRUISM. Hoskins (1981) concluded that the public school administrators' hiring practices and criteria were congruent among themselves. Stutz (1980) concluded that superintendents consistently supported the practice and value of corporal punishment. These studies indicated that there is a high degree of congruency of values among superintendents.

Several studies have shown a high degree of congruency of values among other subgroups. In Matsuo's (1982) cross-cultural

study of Japanese-American and Caucasian-American administrators in Hawaii and California public schools, insignificant differences were found among the value systems of the three groups. Using the Administrator Value Orientation Survey, the researcher found that the Japanese-Americans had a higher regard for taciturnity and for rules and regulations, whereas Caucasian-Americans were more particularistic. There were no major differences due to gender, generation, and geographic location of the participants.

Mills (1987) conducted a study comparing the value systems of public school principals and middle managers in manufacturing industries. With few exceptions, the value systems of the two groups were found to be similar and overlapping, indicating that values among administrators are congruent even when the nature of their product is different.

Even gender does not appear to be a cause for variation among managers. In Sundack's (1983) study of male and female elementary school principals, no statistically significant differences were found between the values of the two groups. Moracco's (1982) study corroborated the fact that gender differences in value systems have diminished in the last 20 years; consequently, gender is not a valid criterion for selection to an administrative position.

The above-selected research is not meant to imply that congruency exists among all subgroups because it quite clearly does not. For example, a high degree of value dissimilarity between

administrators and teacher union officers in Texas was revealed by Sonnenberg (1979).

The research findings comparing superintendents and school board members are also conflicting. Although it is important for the success of the school district for superintendents to hold similar values as school board members (Danis, 1981), dissimilarities have been shown to exist. Smith (1980) used the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values instrument to study superintendents and school board members in northwestern Ohio. He found that superintendents had significantly higher mean SOCIAL values than school board members, while board members were higher on the ECONOMIC values. Furthermore, there were differences by age, gender, and geographic location of the school district.

In his study comparing the values of superintendents and school board members in New Jersey, Votto (1983) discovered that a few differences in values existed. Using the same instrument as Smith, Votto found that superintendents ranked the highest on the POLITICAL value, while school board members ranked the THEORETICAL value highest. However, he found that a high degree of congruency existed among the other remaining values.

Birkenstock (1976), in his study comparing the values of administrators and board chairmen of the Seventh-Day Adventist schools, found that no significant differences existed between the two groups. Differences were obtained when treating the data for other independent variables, such as age, years of administrative

experience, academic degree, and years of schooling in a Seventh-Day Adventist educational institution.

This research showed that there may exist a congruency between the value systems of superintendents. It also indicated that there is some congruency of values between other groups both within and without the educational community. These studies have legitimized the relevance of comparing the value systems of superintendents, especially since the research is equivocal.

Values, Leader Behavior, and Organizational Effectiveness Summary

In this section an attempt was made to show that the personal values of the chief executive officers of organizations, and particularly school districts, do influence the effectiveness of the organization. It was shown that these values are transmitted to subordinates and that the subordinates emulate the chief executive officer's values. It is questionable that the congruency of values may exist among leaders in schools. Lack of definitive research conclusions with respect to congruency of values legitimizes the current study.

In the next section, the writer shows the effect of values on ethics.

Values and Ethics

The Link Between Values and Ethics

Ethics has been defined as "the science that deals with conduct, insofar as this is considered as right or wrong, good or

bad" (Dewey & Tufts, 1908). Elsewhere, ethics has been defined as "that part of science and philosophy dealing with moral conduct, duty and judgment" (Barnhart, 1974). Also, ethics refers to moral principles by which a person is guided (Barnhart, 1974). Stevens (1985) defined managerial ethics as "a systematic study of right and wrong, good and bad conduct on the part of those responsible for achieving organizational objectives" (p. 292). Two common threads are woven through these definitions: (a) moral principles or values (b) put into action.

Albert Schweitzer (cited in Hill, 1980) expanded these definitions to include an altruistic component. He stated,

> In the general sense, ethics is the name we give to our concern for good behavior. We feel an obligation to consider not only our own personal well-being, but also that of others and of human society as a whole. (p. 5)

This distinction is particularly useful when discussing ethical behavior. Ethical behavior is doing what one ought to do, following "standards of behavior," doing what is right as opposed to doing what is wrong (Hill, 1980). This view is consistent with the "ought" characteristic, which is, by definition, inherent in all values. "Values" tell us what we ought to do. "Ethics" is putting the "ought" into action.

Dexheimer (1969) studied the connection between public school superintendents' personal value frameworks and their adherence to the AASA Code of Ethics. He sought to determine whether their personal values were congruent with the Code of Ethics as seen by their behavior. Respondents were asked to identify the decision

they would make, given a school-related ethical dilemma. Each dilemma was developed, corresponding to the AASA Code of Ethics; each multiple-choice-type question contained at least one answer that would match with the Code. Dexheimer discovered that as many respondents chose a nonethical decision as chose an ethical one except when the decision was based on an actual decision. Apparently, superintendents in this study were more ethical in actual practice than when guessing what they might do in a given situation. Dexheimer's study has two implications relevant to the current study: (a) values do predispose ethics and ethical decision making, and (b) codes of ethics may have little influence on ethical behavior. Dexheimer concluded:

> There is some question, especially in terms of contemporary thought on ethical behavior, whether or not codified rules of conduct have any real effect upon the behavior of human beings.
> Ethical philosophies from Aristotle to Phenix, Barnard, and Maslow have all indicated that the real source of ethical behavior exists within the individual and not in any code of ethics. (p. 277)

The ineffective role a code of ethics has within an organization, coupled with the important role of the values of the chief executive officer (Andrews, 1989), validates the study of the value framework of the CEO.

Even though the present researcher did not purport to study the relationship between values and behavior, i.e., ethics, implications about behavior can be drawn. Furthermore, since values predispose leaders to behave ethically or unethically (Kreitner & Reif, 1980), by studying their values, predictions can be made about the consequent ethical behavior of those leaders. By studying the head

and heart dichotomy of instrumental values, therefore, information about the predisposition or inclination of the respondents becomes available. This head/heart relationship is discussed in the next section.

Head/Heart Discussion

Maccoby (1976) first described the distinction of "qualities of the head" and "qualities of the heart." He developed these qualities based on the instrumental values as espoused by Rokeach (1973). "Head" values refer to those values that are task competence and technical with a personal orientation. Also, they are "thinking" or cognitive in nature. "Heart" values refer to desirable codes of conduct with a moral orientation and an interpersonal focus. They are "feeling" or affective in nature.

It can be shown that the moral or "heart" values are essential when discussing ethics more so than competence or "head" values. The head values have little to do with ethics. Rokeach (1973) provided the following explanation, which summarized this distinction:

> Moral values refer mainly to modes of behavior and do not necessarily include values that concern end-states of existence. For another, moral values refer only to certain kinds of instrumental values, to those that have an interpersonal focus which, when violated, arouse pangs of conscience or feelings of guilt for wrongdoing. Other instrumental values, those that may be called competence or self-actualization values, have a personal rather than interpersonal focus and do not seem to be especially concerned with morality. Their violation leads to feelings of shame about personal inadequacy rather than to feelings of guilt about wrongdoing. Thus, behaving honestly and responsibly leads one to feel that he is behaving morally, whereas behaving logically, intelligently or imaginatively leads one to feel that he is behaving competently. (p. 8)

For the purposes of this study, the two types of instrumental values are (Rokeach, 1969):

HEART VALUES   HEAD VALUES

Clean   Ambitious
Forgiving   Broad-minded
Helpful   Capable
Honest   Imaginative
Loving   Independent
Obedient   Intellectual
Polite   Logical
Responsible
Self-controlled

Maccoby's (1976) study was based on interviews with 250 managers from 12 major companies in different parts of the country. He developed his own instrument based on Rokeach's instrumental values. Maccoby identified 19 "character traits," nine of which were classified as qualities of the head and ten which were classified as qualities of the heart. He claimed that behavioral inclinations may be identified by asking the respondent whether he/she has been reinforced for any particular behavior while at work. Maccoby found that the qualities of the head were most important and most often reinforced. Qualities of the heart held a less significant role in the lives of the managers. Maccoby stated:

> Corporate work in advanced technology stimulates and reinforces attitudes essential for intellectual innovation and teamwork, qualities of the head. And those are the traits required for work. In contrast, compassion, generosity, and idealism, qualities of the heart, remain unneeded and underdeveloped. (p. 175)

Even though Maccoby was the first to use the head/heart distinction, this dichotomy in values is not new. England (1974),

in a replication of his 1967 study with American managers, studied the personal value systems of Indian business managers. He identified four types of managers: pragmatic, moralistic, affective, and mixed. A pragmatic manager was characterized by a high success orientation. The moralistic manager was characterized by a high importance on doing what is "right." The affective manager had high concern for pleasantness. The mixed category was the catch-all. In India, England discovered more pragmatically than moralistically oriented managers. When examining the list of characteristics that distinguished the two groups in this study, one cannot help but notice the similarity to Maccoby's head/heart dichotomy and also to Rokeach's instrumental values, subdivided into competence and moral values. The Indian moralists ranked the following values highly (England, 1974, p. 19):

> Employee welfare
> Social welfare
> Loyalty
> Honor
> Obedience
> Tolerance
> Compassion

The Indian pragmatists ranked the following values highly (England, 1974, pp. 34-35):

> Profit maximization
> Organizational growth
> Organizational efficiency
> Organizational stability
> High productivity
> Industrial leadership
> Ability
> Skill
> Success

Another study in which the head/heart dichotomy and the imbalance toward the head values was demonstrated was conducted by Kreitner and Reif (1980). These researchers gathered data from 305 business students at Arizona State University. They used a modified version of Maccoby's instrument and concluded that eight of the nine head traits were ranked higher than any one of the heart traits. Their results corroborated the fact that head traits are more desirable and reinforced than heart traits. Stevens (1985) replicated this study, and the results were the same. It appears that, at least in the business world, head values are more highly esteemed than heart values.

However, the tendency toward emphasis on competence and head values is not exclusive to the business world. As mentioned before, many educational administration writers, including Hodgkinson (1978), Holmes (1986), Greenfield (1985), and Stout (1986), have written about the head/heart imbalance in educational leadership. In some of the research it appeared that practicing educational administrators favored the head values. In Sonnenberg's (1979) study of administrators and teacher union officials, the data derived from the Rokeach Value Survey indicated that the administrative group attached considerable importance to the competency (head) values. Also, in Massey's (1982) study of Christian school principals and public school principals, using the Rokeach Value Survey, the public school principals ranked the competence values BROAD-MINDED and INDEPENDENT higher than did the Christian school principals.

None of the studies in educational administration was focused specifically on the head/heart dichotomy. However, the preceding studies indicated that there may exist an imbalance toward the head values in educational leadership. Exploring this point of view is one of the tasks addressed in the present study. The lack of research in this area points to the need to investigate it.

Values and Ethics Summary

From the literature review in this section, it was established that values and ethics are inextricably connected. Values predispose ethics. Also, it was established that instrumental values (Rokeach, 1973) can be dichotomized into head values and heart values (Maccoby, 1976). An imbalance between these values appears to exist in both business and educational leadership. In the next section, the role of values in educational leadership is further illustrated.

Values and Educational Leadership

The Status of Values in Educational Leadership

According to the literature, the field of educational leadership appears to have deemphasized the discussion of values, particularly the heart values. Hiruy (1987) studied the proposition that public administrators have been neglected with respect to ethical dialogue. Using a questionnaire of 48 ethical statements drawn from representative ethical theories identified as personal,

situational, social, and existential ethics, Hiruy studied 54 public administrators' responses. He found that although the administrators were not monolithic in their views about ethics, they did not demonstrate the kind of passion or zeal of a true believer. Their attitude toward ethics was cool and undogmatic. Hiruy's findings corroborated MacIntyre's (1982) assertion that the ruling ethic of modern times permits administrators to act the part of the disinterested, honest broker. Holmes (1986) concurred:

> Because [administrators'] image so well reflects the modern ethos, their public persona becomes fused with the private person; the tolerant, pragmatic, assured, impartial, managerial patina is all there is. (p. 14)

Barnard (1938) defined leadership as having two components, technical and moral. Leadership, he said, has "relatively high personal capacity for both technological attainments and moral complexity" (p. 288). Barnard suggested that the process of developing and even selecting leaders is frequently unbalanced by undue emphasis on technical competency (head values). The reason that values have had a less than major emphasis in educational leadership may be the belief that abstract values are less relevant to administration than the ability to make deliberate judgments between competing claims (Willower, 1986). Head values appear to dominate the educational leadership landscape.

Holmes (1986) called for administrators to develop wisdom rather than know-how. Wisdom is defined as knowledge coupled with the "ought" quality inherent in a truly ethical decision. Furthermore, Holmes claimed that administrators of the future must

be respected for their moral commitment more than for their ability to manipulate people and manage power. He thought that values should be reestablished in a central position within an administrator. Ashbaugh and Kasten (1984) agreed. They claimed that "at the heart of administration is concern with values" (p. 195).

Furthermore, Barnard (1938) argued that of the two aspects of leadership, moral and technical, it is the moral factor that determines the quality of the decision. Because of the integral place values hold in administrative decision making and because of the apparent deemphasis on values in educational leadership, many writers have called for authors in educational leadership to "try, in modest and diverse ways, to compensate for such omissions" (Walton, 1988, p. 7).

Values and Administrator Training

Various writers also have indicated that the prevailing curriculum in administrative preparation programs has been heavy on the head values, i.e., technical skill training, coupled with a deemphasis on the moral dimension or heart values. Greenfield (1985) stated,

> Recent studies of the professional preparation of school administrators reveal an emphasis on the acquisition of knowledge and skills related to the technical, social, and conceptual dimensions of administrative practice. While there have been attempts to address the moral dimensions of practice, as in efforts to introduce values and the humanities into administrator training curricula, few professional preparation programs emphasize those dimensions explicitly. (p. 99)

Surprisingly few universities offer administrative courses on values and ethics (Strike et al., 1988).

Scholars of school administration appear to have ignored the moral (ethical) bases of executive action and the consequences for events at school. Holmes (1986) stated, "Neither of the two most popular approaches to the study of educational administration over the last two decades has been much concerned with wisdom, let alone virtue" (p. 9). Because of this limited attention to morals, values, and ethics in administrative training, two undesirable results have occurred in the field:

> (1) School administrators have been trained in theories of organization which fail to account for the fact that the dominant purposes of schools are moral . . . and (2) Scholars in school administration, having adopted positivist (and ostensibly, value-free) frameworks for their analysis of schools, have been hampered in their attempts to fully understand. (Holmes, 1986, p. 198)

There appears to be general agreement that values are indeed central to educational administration. "The contemporary study of school administration must begin to take into account in a serious way the influence of values and ethics on decisions made in and about schools" (Stout, 1986, p. 198). Barnard (1938), Hodkinson (1978), and Holmes (1986) are a few writers who shared this position.

The evidence of the preceding assertions can be corroborated by examining the research literature, which reveals a deemphasis on ethical concerns in administration. Ashbaugh and Kasten (1984) examined past issues of the Educational Administration Quarterly to ascertain the percentage of articles that addressed ethics. Using a

generous interpretation of ethics, the authors identified fewer than 7% of the 347 articles in 60 issues of the journal, dating back to 1965, as relating to ethical issues in educational leadership. Ashbaugh and Kasten discovered that even though they could not provide similar verification, conversations with their colleagues indicated that lack of attention to ethical discourse is also reflected in most administrator training programs. Kimbrough (1985) called for a return to ethical instruction in administrative training programs:

> The formal study of administrative ethics is essential if administrators are to cope effectively with the complex problems they face. Leaving the training of ethics to the informally handed down process is no longer adequate. (p. 46)

Even though it appears that administrator training programs have deemphasized the heart values, these programs are producing efficacious results in teaching a curriculum. Hoelscher (1983) conducted a study of the Department of Educational Administration at the University of Akron. He compared the values and goals of faculty, graduates, and doctoral residency students, using the Rokeach Value Survey. Hoelscher found no significant differences in 100% of the values and 83% of the goals. He found a high level of congruence of values between students and faculty. One can therefore conclude that whatever values are taught by the faculty are learned by the students. Aspiring superintendents may therefore reflect the values being emphasized in their course of study.

Values and Educational Leadership Summary

According to the literature reviewed in this section, there is an apparent deemphasis of the heart values in educational leadership in general. Administrator training programs may be emphasizing the head values, as well. This assertion implies the need to study this possible imbalance. Aspiring superintendents therefore are a relevant study group in order to determine whether the imbalance will continue.

Summary

In the review of literature, the researcher identified a theoretical base for the current study and posited this study in the literature. It was shown that the study of values is a worthy endeavor for a social scientist and that measuring values is not only possible but valid and reliable. The fact that values develop and change over time was shown and that education and experience do influence values was highlighted. It was shown that personal values are of critical importance to organizational effectiveness, and that the values system of the chief educational leader does influence the school district. There is a close connection between heart values and ethics. Also, an imbalance between the head and heart values may exist in educational administration. This writer attempted to build on that base of literature by comparing the values of public school superintendents, nonpublic school superintendents, and aspiring superintendents, with a particular focus on the instrumental values.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES AND METHODS

The procedures and methods used to accomplish the study are presented in this chapter. Included are a discussion about the population and sample, the survey instrument, collection of data, statistical methods, and a restatement of the null hypotheses.

Population and Sample

The Population

The study population comprised two major groups: currently practicing superintendents in Michigan (PRS) and educators who aspired to become chief educational leaders (AS). For analysis purposes, the former group was divided into two subgroups: public school superintendents (PSS) and nonpublic school superintendents (NSS).

Sample Size

The main reason a sample is taken is to make inferences about the entire population. Clearly, a representative sample is desired. Random selection of the sample was the method used in this study. Using this method guaranteed the representativeness of the sample. In selecting the number of subjects for the research sample, several concepts were considered.

1. With nonparametric statistics fewer assumptions are made about the population than with parametric statistics, i.e., they are distribution free (Linton & Gallo, 1975). In parametric statistics, scores are normally distributed in the population, but in nonparametric statistics the scores underlying ranks form a continuous distribution.

2. Some authors of statistics books have suggested that a sample size of at least 30 in each group is a "rule of thumb" because averages tend to conform rather quickly (Slavin, 1984).

3. Procedures in carrying out the study are as important as sample size selected (Slavin, 1984).

4. "The best way to reduce the possibility of false negative error without increasing the chance of false positive error . . . is to increase the number of subjects in the study" (Slavin, 1984, p. 102).

5. A sample size that minimized these types of errors had to be determined. In survey research, there is a relationship between sample size and standard error of the mean, a measure of accuracy or precision of a given estimated mean. To determine the precision of the sample, a decision had to be made with regard to tolerable risk. Precision refers to the degree of difference between an estimated mean from a sample and the true mean (Hansen, Hurwitz, & Madow, 1953). For the purposes of this study, tolerable risk referred to the willingness to "gamble" with the results of the survey if the chance was 1 in 20 of getting a sample estimate that would be off by more than 10% from the true value.

Therefore, using the above information as a guide, the sample size for each of the groups was set at 43% of the population. A 43% sample provides for more than sufficient accuracy or precision of the sample. The formula, calculation, and rationale are included in Appendix H.

Characteristics of Chief Educational Leaders From the Public Schools (PSS)

The first subgroup was taken from the public school superintendents who were members of the Michigan Association of School Administrators (MASA). This organization has the largest membership of active superintendents in Michigan. Of the 621 K-8, K-12, and intermediate school districts in the state as listed in Michigan Department of Education statistics, 579 or 93% of the superintendents were members of MASA.

To achieve an equitable cross-section of superintendents in the state, a list was developed by region. MASA has ten regions in the state. Superintendents are listed alphabetically by school district within the region. A systematic random sample of 250 was chosen, using a table of random values to determine the starting point on the list. Every third name on the list was selected from that point until 250 names (43% of the population) were chosen.

Two hundred fifty surveys were sent to the randomly selected sample. Of the 250 surveys mailed, 191 (76%) were returned from the first mailing. Eleven (4%) were returned from the second mailing, making the total returned equal to 202 (81%). However, due to incorrect or incomplete recording of data by the respondents, three

surveys were unusable. Three respondents either refused or were unable to complete the survey. Therefore, 196 (78%) surveys were usable for this study and were included in the data analysis. A breakdown of other demographic information is shown in Tables 1 through 4.

Characteristics of Chief Educational
Leaders in the Nonpublic Schools (NSS)

This subgroup included chief educational leaders who were members of the Michigan Association of Nonpublic Schools (MANS). MANS is the organization that represents the nonpublic schools in Michigan, including the Christian schools (Reformed Church of America), Catholic schools, and Lutheran schools (Missouri Synod). The member school districts employed 34 chief educational leaders. All of the members in this group served as the study sample and received surveys.

Of the 34 surveys mailed, 26 (76%) were returned from the first mailing, whereas 5 (15%) were returned following the second mailing. The total returned was 31 (91%). Only two surveys were unusable due to the superintendent's refusal to complete the survey. Therefore, the total number of surveys used in the data analysis equaled 29 (85%).

Characteristics of Aspiring Chief
Educational Leaders (AS)

This subgroup comprised students who had been accepted into the doctoral or specialist program in educational administration at Michigan State University and/or those who had recently enrolled in

Michigan State University and/or those who had recently enrolled in the MSU Administrative Extern-Superintendents section class. Only those externs enrolled in 1987-88 and 1988-89 were included on the list. Four hundred four students were accepted or enrolled as students in these programs at the time of the study. Twenty-three students already held a superintendency and were consequently deleted from this group, leaving 381 potential members in the group. A random sample of 163 students (43% of the subgroup) was selected using a table of random numbers for selection.

The students were asked to complete the survey only if they were interested in becoming a superintendent. If they were not interested, they were asked to return the uncompleted survey in the stamped, return envelope.

Of the 163 surveys that were sent, 103 (63%) were returned from the first mailing, and 16 (10%) were returned from the second mailing. One hundred nineteen surveys (72%) were returned. On 25 (12.7%) of the 119 surveys that were returned, students indicated that they were not interested in becoming a superintendent by marking "NO" on the survey. Ninety-three (80%) of the respondents were interested in becoming a superintendent and provided usable data. Only one survey was unusable because of incomplete information.

Permission to survey the above groups was granted by the University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects (UCRIHS) (Appendix I).

Table 1.--Distribution of respondents by age.

Respondent Group	Age				Total
	25-34	35-49	50-64	65+	
Practicing (PRS)	2	126	95	2	225
Public (PSS)	1	114	79	2	196
Nonpublic (NSS)	1	12	16	0	29
Aspiring (AS)	4	84	4	1	93

Table 2.--Distribution of respondents by experience.

Respondent Group	Years of Experience						Total
	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	26+	
Practicing (PRS)	74	63	40	29	8	11	225
Public (PSS)	62	63	38	22	7	9	196
Nonpublic (NSS)	12	5	2	7	1	2	29
Aspiring (AS)[a]	41	25	13	11	2	1	93

[a]Refers to years of general administrative experience.

Table 3.--Distribution of respondents by gender.

Respondent Group	Gender		Total
	Male	Female	
Practicing (PRS)	211	14	225
Public (PSS)	193	3	196
Nonpublic (NSS)	18	11	29
Aspiring (AS)	63	30	93

Table 4.--Distribution of respondents by school district type.

Respondent Group/ District Type	Number of Respondents
Practicing (PRS)	
Public	196
Nonpublic	29
Total	225
Aspiring	
Public	87
Nonpublic	7
Total	93

The Survey Instrument

The survey instrument was divided into parts: demographic information and the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS). Complete copies of the survey instruments for practicing chief educational leaders and for aspiring educational leaders are included in Appendices D and E, respectively.

Demographic Information

This section of the survey was designed to elicit demographic data about the respondents. Information needed from all groups included age, length of service, gender, and type of school district, i.e., public or nonpublic. The variables age, experience, and gender have been shown to show significant differences in value systems of respondents (Rokeach, 1973). Additional information about the groups was discovered by including this demographic

information section, although this was not the writer's primary focus in the research.

The Rokeach Value Survey

The Rokeach Value Survey was developed by Milton Rokeach as a method of measuring the value systems of a wide variety of individuals. The RVS, Form E, is divided into two parts. Part one is a list of 18 terminal values, and part two is a list of 18 instrumental values. The respondent is asked to rank or arrange these values in the order that is important to them. The most important value is ranked 1, and the least important 18. The ranking method assumes that the relative ordering is essential, not the absence or presence of a particular value (Rokeach, 1973). Also, values that are ranked higher or lower appear to be more stable, i.e., change the least from test to retest. This phenomenon illustrates the confidence the respondent has in the high- and low-ranked values relative to the middle values. This relationship is inherent in all ranking procedures, according to Rokeach, and is particularly meaningful when examining the head/heart dichotomy.

The two lists are arranged alphabetically, and each value is presented with a brief descriptor or definition. The list of values includes the following:

Terminal Values	Instrumental Values
A comfortable life	Ambitious
An exciting life	Broad-minded
A sense of accomplishment	Capable
A world at peace	Cheerful

A world of beauty	Clean
Equality	Courageous
Family security	Forgiving
Freedom	Helpful
Happiness	Honest
Inner harmony	Imaginative
Mature love	Independent
National security	Intellectual
Pleasure	Logical
Salvation	Loving
Self-respect	Obedient
Social recognition	Polite
True friendship	Responsible
Wisdom	Self-controlled

Rokeach derived the lists by reviewing the literature, in which were listed various values found in American society. Also, he used Anderson's (1968) list of 555 personality-trait words. He then distilled these lists into a reasonable number. This survey has been used repeatedly by researchers over the years with people aged 11 to 90 and from all walks of life. In fact, in the Eighth Mental Measurements Yearbook (Buros, 1978), nearly 200 references are listed in which the RVS has been used or studied.

Over a period of three to seven weeks, test-retest results for Form E for college students have shown very good reliability (Spearman's rho). The correlation coefficient for test-retest reliabilities for the terminal values is .74; for the instrumental values it is .65 to .70 (Rokeach, 1973).

Cohen and Kitwood individually arrived at the same conclusion about the RVS in their reviews presented in the Eighth Mental Measurements Yearbook (Buros, 1978). They claimed that even though the test-retest reliabilities are low, they are very high for a test of this type. Also, because the RVS does not provide a way to

assess the relative intensity or strength of a particular value, it is not a good instrument to use in individual counseling or psychotherapy. However, Cohen and Kitwood agreed that the reliability, construct validity, and extensive norms are such that the RVS is extremely useful and is recommended for general use with group samples. Kitwood and Smithers (1975) concluded that the RVS "is more directly concerned with values, as philosophically understood, than most, if not all, other available instruments" (p. 1033). Furthermore, no other instrument measures as many values (Mueller, 1984).

Collection of Data

Maximizing the return rate was the primary goal of the data-collection procedures. The following principles were applied in developing the cover letter (Appendices A and B) and enclosures in order to reach the goal of a 70% return rate: salience to the respondents, an endorsement letter (Appendix C), a stated amount of time to complete the survey (i.e., ten minutes) corresponding to a reasonable survey length, time deadlines or completion due dates, and use of first-class stamps on the letter and the return envelope. Also, an incentive was included with the follow-up letter because it has been shown to have a positive effect even with the second mailing (Baumgartner & Heberlein, 1984).

The demographic questionnaire, the RVS, a cover letter, and a stamped return-address envelope were sent to the randomly sampled PSS and AS. All of the NSS were sent the same. A copy of the

information is provided in the appendices. Because respondents were not asked to state their names, anonymity was guaranteed. Each survey was assigned a number in order to distinguish between the subgroups. For ease in distinguishing the subgroups, each subgroup's survey was printed on a different color of paper stock. The respondents were assured that the number on the survey was for statistical purposes only. Respondents were informed that all results would be treated with strict confidence, and that participants would remain anonymous when the research findings were reported. To assure a higher rate of return, a follow-up letter was mailed to nonrespondents; the follow-up mailing included a second cover letter (Appendix F), survey, and stamped return envelope.

Analysis of Data

Null Hypothesis 1

There is no significant difference in the instrumental and terminal values of practicing school superintendents (PRS) (i.e., public school superintendents [PSS] and nonpublic school superintendents [NSS]) and aspiring superintendents (AS).

Analysis of data for Hypothesis 1. To present the results of the data analysis for this hypothesis, the relevant information concerning terminal and instrumental values was organized into tabular form, producing profiles for PRS, PSS, AS, and NSS. The means for each value were produced, followed by the rank. Since the RVS yields ranked data, nonparametric statistical procedures were necessary (Siegel, 1956). The Statistical Package for the Social

Sciences (SPSS-X) program was used to produce Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance test statistics on the groups.

An alpha level of .05 was used as the criterion for determining whether there were statistically significant differences between the groups. Any comparison of an individual value that fell below the p = .05 level was deemed to be significant.

Also, a method had to be developed to determine whether the value systems of the groups were different. For the purposes of this study, when groups differed significantly on one-fourth (nine) of the values, the overall value systems were deemed to be different. Methodologically, for Question 1, the comparison of groups using the Kruskal-Wallis was replicated from Adams (1983) and Goad (1986).

Null Hypothesis 2

There is no significant imbalance between the head and heart instrumental values of the PRS, PSS, NSS, and AS.

Analysis of data for Hypothesis 2. A nondirectional t-test with an alpha level of .05 was used to test Hypothesis 2. Each respondent's total heart value ranks were calculated to produce a mean. Head value ranks were treated similarly. Because these calculations produced a distribution of means, the parametric t-test could be used to determine statistical significance. Again, the SPSS-X program was used in calculations. Critical values were ±1.96. Therefore, a t-statistic greater than 1.96 or less than -1.96 resulted in rejection of the null hypothesis. Rejecting the null hypothesis indicated that a significant imbalance existed.

Since none of the research has dealt with a head/heart imbalance, this method of analysis is unique.

Summary

The procedures and methods were presented in this chapter. The population and sample were described, which included the following subgroups representing chief educational leaders: the PRS (the total practicing superintendents), the PSS, the NSS, and the AS. The survey instrument was described, and test-retest reliabilities were stated. The Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance test was used to determine whether there were significant differences between the rankings of the groups. A nondirectional t-test was used to test for an imbalance in the head/heart dichotomy. The results derived from these tests were used to draw conclusions based on the stated hypotheses. These findings are reported in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

The results of the study are presented in this chapter. The chapter is divided into two sections corresponding to the two hypotheses of the study. Discussions of the findings for the groups in isolation and the group comparisons are included in the first section. The groups in isolation and selected effects of group membership are discussed in section two.

Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance test statistics were performed in the analysis of Hypothesis 1. The t-test was applied in Hypothesis 2. SPSS-X was used for the computations and analyses.

The top third values (six) are used for evaluative purposes throughout the discussion, based on the premise that the top third values are more "central" to the respondent than are other values. The more central a value is to a person, the more stable and more resistant to change it is, and the more influence it exercises on behavior (England, 1974).

A summary of the findings concludes the chapter.

Results for Hypothesis 1

Corresponding to the first research question, "Are there differences in the value systems of practicing superintendents and

aspiring superintendents?" the data revealed significant differences in nine values. A profile of each group's value system rankings is provided in Appendix G. The nine values on which the groups were found to differ significantly were:

Terminal Values	Instrumental Values
An exciting life	Honest
A sense of accomplishment	Independent
Salvation	Intellectual
Social recognition	Loving
	Self-controlled

The mean rankings are shown in Tables 5 and 6. In these tables, the values are listed in the order in which they appeared in the survey.

Of the nine values, only three, A SENSE OF ACCOMPLISHMENT, HONEST, and INTELLECTUAL, were listed in the top third of either the PRS's or AS's value rankings. Because the PRS comprised both PSS and NSS, analyzing the data from these subgroups was seen to be appropriate and necessary. By dividing the data into three subgroups, PSS, NSS, and AS, interesting results were revealed. To make this comparison, the Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance was run on the three groups. Twenty values, ten terminal and ten instrumental values, were found to be different between groups. The twenty values deemed to be significantly different are listed below.

Terminal Values	Instrumental Values
A comfortable life	Ambitious
An exciting life	Broad-minded
A sense of accomplishment	Clean
Family security	Courageous
A world of beauty	Forgiving
Inner harmony	Honest
Pleasure	Independent
Salvation	Intellectual
Social recognition	Loving
Wisdom	Self-controlled

Table 5.--Terminal value mean rankings of the PRS and AS, and results of the Kruskal-Wallis test for significant differences.

Terminal Value	PRS (n=225)	AS (n=93)	P-Value
A comfortable life	11.2044	11.3226	.9930
An exciting life	10.0089	11.6559	.0121*
A sense of accomplishment	5.4178	6.4516	.0109*
A world at peace	9.8444	10.4839	.1977
A world of beauty	13.0578	12.7849	.6779
Equality	10.8267	10.4731	.6333
Family security	4.4578	4.1935	.2739
Freedom	8.1378	7.8710	.4802
Happiness	7.5244	7.2043	.4567
Inner harmony	7.9244	7.7849	.7287
Mature love	10.0356	9.2581	.1415
National security	13.3689	13.6989	.2198
Pleasure	13.4311	12.5806	.0591
Salvation	9.5867	12.0215	.0041*
Self-respect	5.3289	4.7204	.0829
Social recognition	13.0044	11.6344	.0125*
True friendship	9.7067	8.8817	.1038
Wisdom	7.6844	7.9462	.4688

*Significant at the .05 level.

Table 6.--Instrumental value mean rankings of the PRS and AS, and
results of the Kruskal-Wallis test for significant
differences.

Instrumental Value	PRS (n=225)	AS (n=93)	P-Value
Ambitious	7.3467	7.0753	.9106
Broad-minded	9.0311	8.0860	.0787
Capable	6.2533	6.1075	.9769
Cheerful	10.7422	11.0860	.5489
Clean	14.3556	14.1828	.9483
Courageous	8.0978	9.1828	.0544
Forgiving	10.5289	10.3763	.7496
Helpful	8.7733	9.5161	.1637
Honest	2.8133	4.2043	.0011*
Imaginative	11.0000	10.6344	.5544
Independent	10.7156	9.2043	.0098*
Intellectual	9.8978	8.3548	.0077*
Logical	9.9600	9.7742	.7248
Loving	10.7867	9.3333	.0223*
Obedient	14.9289	15.9247	.0707
Polite	11.3733	11.9355	.2385
Responsible	5.0889	5.2258	.9801
Self-controlled	9.1000	10.2688	.0434*

*Significant at the .05 level.

Mean rankings and p-values are listed for the groups in Tables
7 and 8. This initial Kruskal-Wallis test indicated only that these
particular variables differed between the three groups. It did not
distinguish between the group(s) on which they differed or where
they differed. Therefore, a post-hoc analysis was performed by
running another Kruskal-Wallis test on all possible pairwise
combinations of the three groups, i.e., PSS versus NSS, PSS versus
AS, and NSS versus AS. This procedure is analogous to Ryan's

procedure (Linton & Gallo, 1975). The results of this post-hoc

analysis are shown in Tables 9 and 10.

Table 7.--Terminal value mean rankings of the PSS, NSS, and AS, and
results of the Kruskal-Wallis test for significant dif-
ferences.

Terminal Value	PSS (n=196)	NSS (n=29)	AS (n=93)	P-Value
A comfortable life	10.5765	15.4483	11.3226	.0001*
An exciting life	9.3163	14.6897	11.6559	.0001*
A sense of accomplishment	5.2500	6.5517	6.4516	.0068*
A world at peace	9.9439	9.1724	10.4839	.2793
A world of beauty	13.2551	11.7241	12.7849	.0742
Equality	11.0153	9.5517	10.4731	.1710
Family security	4.1786	6.3448	4.1935	.0085*
Freedom	7.9898	9.1379	7.8710	.2800
Happiness	7.3827	8.4828	7.2043	.2845
Inner harmony	8.3010	5.3793	7.7849	.0018*
Mature love	10.2194	8.7931	9.2581	.0954
National security	13.2347	14.2759	13.6989	.2740
Pleasure	13.1786	15.1379	12.5806	.0042*
Salvation	10.4286	3.8966	12.0215	.0001*
Self-respect	5.3367	5.2759	4.7204	.2206
Social recognition	13.0612	12.6207	11.6344	.0270*
True friendship	9.8418	8.7931	8.8817	.0927
Wisdom	8.0102	5.4828	7.9462	.0070*

*Significant at the .05 level.

Table 8.--Instrumental value mean rankings of the PSS, NSS, and AS, and results of the Kruskal-Wallis test for significant differences.

Instrumental Value	PSS (n=196)	NSS (n=29)	AS (n=93)	P-Value
Ambitious	6.7755	11.2069	7.0753	.0002*
Broad-minded	8.7908	10.6552	8.0860	.0219*
Capable	6.1122	7.2069	6.1075	.6183
Cheerful	10.5357	12.1379	11.0860	.1711
Clean	14.1633	15.6552	14.1828	.0811
Courageous	8.2551	7.0345	9.1828	.0547
Forgiving	10.9133	7.9310	10.3763	.0025*
Helpful	8.9031	7.8966	9.5161	.2166
Honest	2.7908	2.9655	4.2043	.0040*
Imaginative	10.9031	11.6552	10.6344	.6527
Independent	10.5408	11.8966	9.2043	.0125*
Intellectual	10.0510	8.8621	8.3548	.0143*
Logical	10.0000	9.6897	9.7742	.8916
Loving	11.1429	8.3793	9.3333	.0022*
Obedient	15.1378	13.5172	15.9247	.1287
Polite	11.3827	11.3103	11.9355	.4987
Responsible	5.0816	5.9379	5.2258	.9267
Self-controlled	9.3980	7.5517	10.2688	.0129*

*Significant at the .05 level.

Discussion of the Findings for
Hypothesis 1

The findings for Hypothesis 1 are divided into two sections. In the first section, each group is examined in isolation. Selected groupings of the independent variable, group membership, were then configured to acquire added information for the comparisons. Significant differences between groups, as specified by the Kruskal-Wallis test, are examined in the second section.

Table 9.--Results of the post-hoc analysis of the terminal values
of the PSS, NSS, and AS.

Terminal Value	PSS versus NSS	PSS versus AS	NSS versus AS
A comfortable life	.0001*	.2170	.0007*
An exciting life	.0001*	.0002*	.0002*
A sense of accomplishment	.0588	.0042*	.9976
A world of beauty	.0218*	.4023	.1328
Family security	.0032*	.0058*	.0044*
Inner harmony	.0002*	.3207	.0159
Pleasure	.0170*	.1789	.0019*
Salvation	.0001*	.0477*	.0001*
Social recognition	.2497	.0102*	.3374
Wisdom	.0024*	.9404	.0031*
Terminal subtotal	8	5	7

*Significant at the .05 level.

Table 10.--Results of the post-hoc analysis of the instrumental
values of the PSS, NSS, and AS.

Instrumental Value	PSS versus NSS	PSS versus AS	NSS versus AS
Ambitious	.0001*	.4240	.0002*
Broad-minded	.0296	.1909	.0076*
Clean	.0211*	.7196	.0831
Courageous	.1260	.1039	.0324*
Forgiving	.0007*	.2983	.0065*
Honest	.4712	.0010*	.1406
Independent	.1548	.0261*	.0067*
Intellectual	.2584	.0041*	.6246
Loving	.0075*	.0058*	.4421
Self-controlled	.0272*	.1164	.0052*
Instrumental subtotal	6	4	6
Terminal subtotal	8	5	7
Total	14	9	13

*Significant at the .05 level.

Discussion of groups in isolation. The mean rankings listed in rank order are compiled in the Appendix. The following discussion centers on these rankings.

Practicing superintendents (PRS): The chief educational leaders who were currently practicing their craft in Michigan were very similar to CEOs in the business world with respect to the top values ranked. In Goad's (1986) study of CEOs and business students, many of the same values were ranked in the top third as those of the chief educational leaders in the current study. Below, a comparison is made of the values in actual rank order.

<u>PRS</u>   <u>CEO</u> (Goad, 1986)

Terminal values (top third)

PRS	CEO (Goad, 1986)
Family security	Family security
Self-respect	Freedom
A sense of accomplishment	Wisdom
Happiness	A sense of accomplishment
Wisdom	Self-respect
Inner harmony	True friendship

Instrumental values (top third)

PRS	CEO (Goad, 1986)
Honest	Honest
Responsible	Responsible
Capable	Capable
Ambitious	Ambitious
Courageous	Independent
Helpful	Courageous

Of the 12 values in the top third, nine (75%) were the same. This remarkable similarity confirms the notion that CEOs in the business and education fields are more alike than different (Kreitner & Reif, 1980). The lowest-ranked values in this study, PLEASURE and OBEDIENT, were also the lowest ranked in the Goad (1986) study.

Peters and Austin (1985) described some qualities necessary for effective leadership in their book A Passion for Excellence: The Leadership Difference. Leaders, they said, must be risk-takers. Courage and creativity or imagination are required to take risks. The PRS ranked COURAGE in the top third and IMAGINATIVE in the bottom third (COURAGE was fifth, whereas IMAGINATIVE was fifteenth). Therefore, the PRS's risk-taking average or "index" was ten. The risk-taking index from the CEOs in Goad's (1986) study equaled eight. By implication, then, this "index" could mean that if "risk-taking" were a value of its own, it would receive this respective ranking.

To determine whether age and experience significantly affected values, the Kruskal-Wallis test was applied to the group.

1. Differences by gender (PRS). Because of the small number of females in this group (n = 14), statistically significant differences could not be considered valid.

2. Differences by age (PRS). Because of the small number of members in the first and last classifications (25-34 years and 65+ years, respectively), these two cells were collapsed to form larger groups. The two groups that were formed were 25-49 years old (n = 128) and 50+ years old (n = 97). Only two values were found to be different: A WORLD AT PEACE (.0005) and FORGIVING (.0166). The PRS who were 50+ years old ranked both of these values higher than did the younger group. Because only two values were different, the value systems of the two groups were considered not to be different.

3. Differences by experience (PRS). No significant differences in values were found among PRS with respect to experience.

Public school superintendents (PSS): The values ranked in the top third by the chief educational leaders in the public schools were as follows:

Terminal Values	Instrumental Values
Family security	Honest
A sense of accomplishment	Responsible
Self-respect	Capable
Happiness	Ambitious
Freedom	Courageous
Wisdom	Broad-minded

The only differences in values between PRS and PSS with respect to those ranked in the top third were FREEDOM and BROAD-MINDED. The bottom-ranked values were NATIONAL SECURITY, A WORLD OF BEAUTY, CLEAN, and OBEDIENT. Only A WORLD OF BEAUTY differed from the PRS bottom-ranked values.

The PSS ranked COURAGEOUS fifth and IMAGINATIVE thirteenth. The risk-taking index for the PSS was nine, which was slightly higher than the PRS index of ten but lower than the CEO index of eight.

To determine whether gender, age, and experience influenced values, the Kruskal-Wallis test was again applied to this group.

1. Differences by gender (PSS). Again, because only 3 of the 196 PSS in this study were females, statistically significant differences could not be considered valid.

2. Differences by age (PSS). Of the 196 PSS, only one was classified in the 25-34 age bracket. The majority were classified

in the next two brackets: 114 in the 35-49-year-old group and 79 in the 50-64-year-old age group. Only two respondents were entered in the 65+ age group. Only two values were deemed to be significantly different. A WORLD AT PEACE was ranked higher by those 50 years old and older. FREEDOM received a lower ranking by this group as compared to the younger respondents.

3. Differences by experience (PSS). The experience levels were divided into six categories as follows:

Superintendent Experience	n
0-5 years	62
6-10 years	58
11-15 years	38
16-20 years	22
21-25 years	7
26+ years	9
Total	196

Within these six experience levels, only one value was significantly different. A COMFORTABLE LIFE was ranked lower by those with 11-15 years of experience, yet it was ranked higher by superintendents with less and those with more experience. Because only one value appeared to be significant, experience was judged not to have an influence within this group.

By examining the influence of gender, age, and experience within this group, it was seen that these factors did not interfere in any significant way.

Nonpublic school superintendents (NSS): The values ranked in the top third by the chief educational leaders practicing their craft in the nonpublic schools in Michigan were as follows:

Terminal Values	Instrumental Values
Salvation	Honest
Self-respect	Responsible
Inner harmony	Courageous
Wisdom	Capable
Family security	Self-controlled
A sense of accomplishment	Helpful

The values that were included in the NSS's top third that were absent from the PRS's top third were SALVATION and AMBITIOUS. Consistent with the findings of other research (Massey, 1982; Rokeach, 1973), SALVATION was expected to be ranked high by this group. Rokeach (1973) considered SALVATION to be a distinctively Christian value. Because the NSS represented school districts in which a Christian philosophy undergirded the educational system, this result was anticipated. The NSS differed in the bottom two rankings of the terminal values, placing PLEASURE and A COMFORTABLE LIFE on the bottom. Their bottom two instrumental values were the same as those of the PRS.

The NSS ranked COURAGEOUS third while ranking IMAGINATIVE fourteenth. Their risk-taking index equaled 8.5, slightly higher than that of the PSS.

Effects of gender, age, and experience within this group are detailed next.

1. Differences by gender, age, and experience (NSS). Because the group size was so small (n = 29), any disaggregation into smaller groups, i.e., by gender, age, or experience, would likely have yielded erroneous statistics. Nevertheless, Kruskal-Wallis tests were applied, with only a few values differing. A WORLD OF

BEAUTY (.0239) and COURAGEOUS (.0479) were identified as being different with respect to gender. A WORLD OF BEAUTY (.0207) and EQUALITY (.0437) were deemed to be different with respect to age. EQUALITY (.0341), MATURE LOVE (.0438), and AMBITIOUS (.0257) were significantly different with respect to experience. In no case were there enough differences to conclude that value systems were different as a result of gender, age, and/or experience.

Aspiring superintendents (AS): The values ranked in the top third by the educational leaders who aspired to the superintendency were as follows:

Terminal Values	Instrumental Values
Family security	Honest
Self-respect	Responsible
A sense of accomplishment	Capable
Happiness	Ambitious
Inner harmony	Broad-minded
Freedom	Intellectual

The only differences in values between PRS and AS with respect to rankings in the top third were WISDOM, BROAD-MINDED, and INTELLECTUAL. The bottom-ranked values were NATIONAL SECURITY, A WORLD OF BEAUTY, CLEAN, and OBEDIENT. Only A WORLD OF BEAUTY differed from the bottom-ranked values of the PRS. The PRS ranked PLEASURE on the bottom.

The AS ranked COURAGEOUS seventh and IMAGINATIVE fourteenth. The risk-taking index for the AS was 10.5, which was lower than that of the PRS (10) and the lowest of all the groups.

The influence of gender, age, and experience was again tested with this group to ascertain whether there were significant differences.

1. Differences by gender (AS). The AS group comprised 30 females and 63 males. Only five values were determined to be significantly different within this group. These values and their respective p-values were A WORLD OF BEAUTY (.0262), SALVATION (.0006), CAPABLE (.0252), HONEST (.0298), and INTELLECTUAL (.0016). The female AS ranked A WORLD OF BEAUTY, CAPABLE, HONEST, and INTELLECTUAL higher than did the male AS, whereas the females ranked SALVATION lower than did the males. Because only five values were different, the value systems were considered not to be different. This finding confirms the notion that gender does not have a significant effect on value systems, particularly when taken from the same field of work (Morracco, 1982; Sundack, 1982).

2. Differences by age (AS). Of the 93 AS, 84 or 90% were in the 35-49-year-old age bracket. Therefore, even though the values SELF-RESPECT (.0497) and CLEAN (.0035) differed significantly between the age categories, the small number of respondents in the other classifications cast any statistical significance into question.

3. Differences by experience (AS). The experience levels were divided into six categories as follows:

Superintendent Experience	n
0-5 years	41
6-10 years	25
11-15 years	13
16-20 years	11
21-25 years	2
26+ years	1

Five values were found to be different within these six experience levels: EXCITING LIFE (.0426), A WORLD OF BEAUTY (.0495), SALVATION (.0367), HONEST (.0077), and RESPONSIBLE (.0356). AN EXCITING LIFE was ranked higher by those with 15 years of experience or less. A WORLD OF BEAUTY was ranked higher by those with 10 years of experience or less. SALVATION was ranked higher by those with 6 or more years of experience. HONEST was ranked lower by those with 15 years or less. The ranking of RESPONSIBLE increased in importance with experience. Again, careful qualification of these findings is necessary because of the small group sizes. In general, however, because only five values were significantly different, the value systems by experience level were considered not to be different.

By examining the data for the groups in isolation, it appeared that gender, age, and experience did not influence value systems in any significant way.

Discussion of group comparisons. The first group comparison corresponding to the first hypothesis was between the PRS and the AS. Following this discussion, PRS is subdivided to examine effects of PSS and NSS compared with AS. Selected groupings of the

independent variable, group membership, were then configured to acquire added information for comparison.

PRS-AS differences: Nine values were determined to be significantly different as a result of the Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance test. The four terminal values and five instrumental values were AN EXCITING LIFE, A SENSE OF ACCOMPLISHMENT, SALVATION, SOCIAL RECOGNITION, HONEST, INDEPENDENT, INTELLECTUAL, LOVING, and SELF-CONTROLLED. Of the nine values, only A SENSE OF ACCOMPLISHMENT, HONEST, and INTELLECTUAL were ranked in the top third by either group. Therefore, even though nine values differed, only three were considered to be more central to the respondents. According to the previously stated standard (nine values or more), the value systems of the two groups were deemed to be different, albeit minimally.

Several selected comparisons using the independent variable, group membership, are presented in the following paragraphs to show other possible relationships.

1. Differences by gender. The first two gender tests were conducted to determine whether or not practicing female or male superintendents differed from the aspiring group.

Female PRS/female AS differences. Only six values, two terminal and four instrumental, differed in this comparison: SALVATION (.0003), WISDOM (.0030), HONEST (.0018), INDEPENDENT (.0034), POLITE (.0150), and SELF-CONTROLLED (.0348). The female PRS ranked all but INDEPENDENT higher than did their aspiring counterparts. However, more noteworthy is the fact that the values

SALVATION, WISDOM, HONEST, and SELF-CONTROLLED were ranked in the top third of the PRS. Any inferences about this particular comparison must be made with caution because of the group size (n = 14 female PRS). Because only six values were different (30 were the same), the value systems were deemed not to be different.

Male PRS/male AS differences. Only three terminal values, AN EXCITING LIFE (.0137), A SENSE OF ACCOMPLISHMENT (.0054), and PLEASURE (.0362) differed between these two groups. One instrumental value, LOVING (.0052), was found to be significantly different. The male AS ranked PLEASURE and LOVING higher than did their counterparts, whereas the male PRS ranked AN EXCITING LIFE and SENSE OF ACCOMPLISHMENT higher than did the male AS. Even though there was a significant difference in the mean rankings, both groups agreed that A SENSE OF ACCOMPLISHMENT was more central to them because it was listed in the top third of both. The other values were not ranked in the top third. It is evident, because only four values were different, that the value systems were not different.

Male PRS/AS differences. In this comparison, the male PRS were compared with all of the AS. The results, however, were identical to those in the previous comparison. The same three terminal values and one instrumental value were different. They were AN EXCITING LIFE (.0137), A SENSE OF ACCOMPLISHMENT (.0054), PLEASURE (.0362), and LOVING (.0052).

Male PRS/Female AS differences. The following ten values were found to be different between these two groups:

Terminal Values	Instrumental Values
An exciting life (.0406)*	Honest (.0001)*
A world of beauty (.0283)	Independent (.0028)
Salvation (.0001)*	Intellectual (.0001)
Self-respect (.0273)	Obedient (.0129)*
Social recognition (.0045)	
True friendship (.0154)	

The values listed above with an asterisk were ranked higher by the male PRS than the female AS. Those without an asterisk were ranked higher by the female AS than the male PRS.

Of the ten values that were different, only three were classified as being more central to the respondents. Two values, SELF-RESPECT and HONEST, were listed in the top third of both groups. One value, INTELLECTUAL, was listed among the top third of the AS only. This result may corroborate Gilligan's (1982) theories on the moral development of females. Upon examination of the female AS value profile, a relationship-oriented emphasis can be seen; i.e., the female AS ranked SOCIAL RECOGNITION, TRUE FRIENDSHIP, SELF-RESPECT, and EQUALITY in their top third terminal values.

Because ten values were different, the value systems were considered to be different.

2. Differences by age. Two comparisons were made with respect to age. The age groups were collapsed because of the low numbers in the 65+ years and the 25-34 years classifications. The collapsed groups contained 50-64 and 65+ year olds for the first comparison and 25-34 and 35-49 year olds for the second comparison.

PRS (50+ years old)/AS (50+ years old) differences. Ninety-seven PRS and five AS constituted the two groups. Because of the

low number of members in the AS group, caution must be taken in making the comparisons. Two values were different between these two groups: A COMFORTABLE LIFE (.0491) and A WORLD AT PEACE (.0416). Neither of these was rated in the top three rankings of either group. Because only two values were different, the value systems of the two groups were deemed not to be different.

PRS (25-49 years old)/AS (25-49 years old). Included in this comparison were 128 PRS and 88 AS. Ten values were found to be different between these two groups:

Terminal Values   Instrumental Values

An exciting life (.0034)*   Courageous (.0093)*
A sense of accomplishment (.0210)*   Honest (.0006)*
Pleasure (.0391)   Intellectual (.0075)
Salvation (.0046)*   Loving (.0231)
Social recognition (.0218)   Self-controlled (.0203)*

The values listed above with an asterisk were ranked higher by the PRS than the AS. Those without an asterisk were ranked higher by the AS than the PRS.

Of the ten values that were different, four were classified as being more central to the respondents. Two values were listed in the top third of both groups: A SENSE OF ACCOMPLISHMENT and HONEST. One value, INTELLECTUAL, was listed among the top third of the AS only. One value, COURAGEOUS, was listed among the top third of the PRS. Because ten values were different, the value systems of the two groups were considered to be different.

This finding is particularly interesting because the only variable that was different was group membership. The differences in values can be attributed to role. Similar findings should then

be discovered when examining these two groups with respect to experience.

2. Differences by experience. Two comparisons were made with respect to experience: the first with respondents with 21+ years of experience and the second with less-experienced respondents (i.e., 0-10 years of experience).

PRS (21+ years of experience)/AS (21+ years of experience) differences. Because of the very low numbers in these two groups (n = 19 PRS, n = 3 AS), validity is questionable. However, the Kruskal-Wallis yielded two values that were different: INDEPENDENT (.0184) and SELF-CONTROLLED (.0332). The PRS ranked INDEPENDENT higher, whereas the AS ranked SELF-CONTROLLED higher. Neither of the values was in the top third. Therefore, the value systems were considered not to be different.

PRS (0-10 years of experience)/AS (0-10 years of experience) differences. Eight values were found to be different between these two groups, as expected:

Terminal Values	Instrumental Values
An exciting life (.0202)*	Honest (.0004)*
A sense of accomplishment (.0109)*	Intellectual (.0016)
A world of beauty (.0136)	Loving (.0155)
Salvation (.0067)*	Self-controlled (.0243)*

The values listed above with an asterisk were ranked higher by the PRS than the AS. Those without an asterisk were ranked higher by the AS than the PRS.

Of the eight values that were different, only two were classified as being more central to the respondents. The two values

listed in the top third of both groups were A SENSE OF ACCOMPLISHMENT and HONEST. Because eight values were different, the value systems were considered not to be different.

Although experience did not significantly affect value systems, age did, particularly for the younger group (25-49 years old).

In the final comparison, differences between PSS and NSS were examined.

PSS/NSS differences. Only the effect of group membership was examined between these two groups. Gender, age, and experience could not be analyzed with any accuracy because of the small size of the NSS group (n = 29).

Fourteen values, eight terminal and six instrumental, were deemed to be different according to the Kruskal-Wallis test. The 14 values and their p-values are listed below:

Terminal Values   Instrumental Values

A comfortable life (.0001)*   Ambitious (.0001)*
An exciting life (.0001)*   Broad-minded (.0296)*
A world of beauty (.0218)   Clean (.0211)*
Family security (.0032)*   Forgiving (.0007)
Inner harmony (.0002)   Loving (.0075)
Pleasure (.0170)*   Self-controlled (.0272)
Salvation (.0001)
Wisdom (.0024)

The values listed above with an asterisk were ranked higher by the PSS than the NSS. Those without an asterisk were ranked higher by the NSS than the PSS.

Of the 14 values that were different, seven were classified as being more central to the respondents. FAMILY SECURITY was listed in the top third of both groups. It was ranked first by the PSS and

fifth by the NSS. INNER HARMONY was ranked third by the NSS, whereas it was ranked seventh by the PSS. SALVATION was ranked most important by the NSS, whereas the PSS ranked it twelfth. WISDOM was ranked in the top third by both groups--third for the NSS and fifth for the PSS. AMBITIOUS and BROAD-MINDED were ranked fourth and sixth by the PSS, whereas these values were ranked twelfth and eleventh, respectively, by the NSS. SELF-CONTROLLED was ranked fifth by the NSS and eighth by the PSS.

Some of the major differences between the PSS and the NSS can be explained by the nature of the types of school districts. Rokeach (1973) explained that the values SALVATION and FORGIVING are distinctively Christian. Because the NSS represented the nonpublic schools with a Christian doctrine undergirding their educational system, this finding was anticipated.

Because 14 values were different, the value systems of the two groups were considered to be different.

Summary of findings for Hypothesis 1. When examining each group in isolation, it was found that gender, age, and experience made little difference and no significant difference. It was discovered that the PRS value rankings were very similar to those of CEOs (Goad, 1986). When comparisons were made between the groups, the Kruskal-Wallis test results indicated that nine values were significantly different on the Rokeach Value Survey between the PRS and the AS, and 20 were significantly different when comparing the PSS, NSS, and AS: 14 values were different between the PSS and the

NSS, 13 were different between the NSS and the AS, and 9 were different between the PSS and AS. Based on the standard initially stated in this study, i.e., one-fourth or nine values must be different if the value systems are considered to be different, it can be concluded that the overall value systems were different. When other moderating variables such as gender, age, and experience were included in the analysis, it was found that ten values were different between male PRS and female AS, and ten values were different between PRS and AS who were in the 25-49-year-old age bracket. The composite rankings of the top third values revealed that the groups were similar. The risk-taking index indicated that the AS (10.5) were the least willing to take risks.

Results for Hypothesis 2

Corresponding to the second research question, "Is there an imbalance between the head and heart instrumental values of the PRS, PSS, NSS, and AS?" a significant imbalance was found in three of the four groups when taken in isolation. The PRS, PSS, and AS's head/heart dichotomy was considered to be statistically out of balance, whereas that of the NSS was balanced. An imbalance was statistically defined as rejecting the null hypothesis, which stated that "There is no significant imbalance between the head and heart instrumental values of the PRS, PSS, NSS, and AS," as expressed by their means. If either the head or the heart values were ranked so that one classification was higher than the other, the alternative hypothesis would be accepted--that there WAS a difference between

the means. On the other hand, a balance would indicate an acceptance of the null hypothesis of no difference between means. Claiming that there existed no difference between means would indicate that the head and heart values were ranked so that neither classification of values was higher than the other.

T-test statistics were applied to the groups' instrumental values in two ways: (a) the ranking for HONEST was included in the calculations, and (b) the calculations were performed, excluding the ranking for HONEST. This manipulation was done as a result of Maccoby's (1976) description or claim that HONEST is a necessary anomaly. What happens to the balance (or lack of) when HONEST is not included? To determine the effect of this notable exception (i.e., HONEST), the calculations were done excluding HONEST. In the following paragraphs, the results are organized to show the significance with and without HONEST included in the heart values. A profile of the groups' p-values and t-statistics is shown in Table 11.

Discussion of the Findings for Hypothesis 2

The findings for Hypothesis 2 are divided into two sections. In the first section, the groups are examined in isolation. Selected effects of group membership are examined in the second section.

Discussion of groups in isolation.

Practicing superintendents (PRS): According to the results of the t-test, the PRS's instrumental value system was not in balance.

Table 11.--The head/heart balance as determined by the t-test.

Group	n	HONEST Included		HONEST Excluded	
		P-Value	T-Value	P-Value	T-Value
PRS	225	.014	2.48	.000	5.94
PSS	196	.000	3.45	.000	6.79
NSS	29	.066*	-1.91	.463*	- .73
AS	93	.000	4.97	.000	7.00
Gender					
Male PRS	211	.006	2.79	.000	6.12
Female PRS	14	.447*	- .78	.904*	.12
Male PSS	193	.000	3.37	.000	6.67
Male NSS	18	.190*	-1.37	.616*	- .51
Male AS	63	.009	2.69	.000	4.44
Female AS	30	.000	5.73	.000	6.64
Age					
35-49 PRS	126	.024	2.28	.000	5.04
50-64 PRS	95	.201*	1.09	.002	3.19
35-49 AS	84	.000	4.27	.000	6.15
50-64 AS	4	.108*	2.27	.063*	2.90
Experience					
0-10 PRS	137	.011	2.57	.000	5.32
11-20 PRS	69	.564*	.58	.017	2.44
21+ PRS	19	.529*	.64	.117*	1.65
0-10 PSS	127	.002	3.23	.000	5.82
11-20 PSS	60	.128*	1.55	.001	3.39
21+ PSS	16	.875*	.16	.263*	1.16
0-10 NSS	17	.137*	-1.57	.684*	- .41
11-20 NSS	9	.073*	-2.07	.200*	-1.40
21+ NSS	3	.374*	1.14	.320*	1.31
0-10 AS	66	.000	5.55	.000	7.42
11-20 AS	24	.442*	.78	.103*	1.20
21+ AS	3	.174*	2.07	.115*	2.69

*Since p > .05, the head/heart dichotomy is balanced.

They ranked the head values higher than the heart values. When HONEST was included in the calculations, the t-statistic (2.48) was close to the critical value (1.96), indicating that the PRS were not extremely out of balance. When HONEST was excluded, the t-statistic was 5.94, which was more than a full standard deviation from the critical value.

This finding is consistent with those of similar research on chief executive officers in the business world (Goad, 1986; Miller, 1982). It also appears to corroborate the claim that many educational writers have made about the emphasis on head values over heart values in educational leaders (Holmes, 1986; Stout, 1986; Willower, 1986).

From a practical perspective, however, it should be noted that three heart values, HONEST, RESPONSIBLE, and HELPFUL, were listed among the top third values of the PRS. These values were considered to be more central to the respondents.

1. Effects of gender on the head/heart relationship (PRS). The t-test indicated that the male PRS (n = 211) were out of balance, whereas the female PRS (n = 14) were in balance. With HONEST included in the calculations, a p-value of .447 and a t-statistic of -.78 were computed. Even when HONEST was excluded, the female PRS's value system remained in balance (p = .904), t = .12). According to the t-statistic, this group ranked the heart values higher than the head values.

The small number of female PRS makes the findings somewhat questionable. Also, because 11 of the 14 female PRS were NSS, it is questionable to deduce that gender had an effect on the head/heart relationship of the female PRS. It would seem more plausible that school district type was the influencing factor.

2. Effects of age on the head/heart relationship (PRS). For the purposes of this analysis, only two age categories were used. The youngest (25-34 years old) and oldest (65+ years old) categories had too few members to be statistically relevant. The 35-49-year-old age bracket had 126 members, whereas the 50-64-year-old classification had 95 members. The t-test revealed that the first group remained out of balance, whereas the second group was in balance when HONEST was included in the calculations. This finding confirms Rokeach's (1973) notion that age or maturation influences values. In this case, the older the superintendents, the higher they ranked the heart values.

3. Effects of experience on the head/heart relationship (PRS). Age and experience levels are closely related. Therefore, as might be expected, similar results were found with respect to experience. The experience levels were collapsed into three categories: 0-10 years, 11-20 years, and 21+ years of experience. The 0-10 group, which was the least experienced group, was out of balance; the 11-20 group was in balance when HONEST was included and out of balance when it was excluded; and the 21+ group was in balance under both conditions. As the chief educational leader gained more experience, the head/heart dichotomy shifted toward a balance.

Public school superintendents (PSS): This subgroup of the PRS was very similar to the PRS with respect to the head/heart analysis. The PSS were also considered not in balance. With HONEST included, their t-statistic (3.45) was not as close to the critical value as was that of the PRS. This indicates that the PSS were somewhat more out of balance. Excluding HONEST yielded results similar to those for the PRS.

Also similar to the PRS, the heart values HONEST and RESPONSIBLE were listed in the top third rankings of the PSS, and were considered to be more central. HELPFUL was listed in the top third of the PRS but dropped to seventh for the PSS. Four out of the top half (nine) values were heart values. The values ranked in the bottom five were also heart values.

1. Effects of gender on the head/heart relationship (PSS). Because only three members of this group were female, statistical information would not be considered valid. According to the t-test, the male PSS (n = 193) were not in balance.

2. Effects of age on the head/heart relationship (PSS). Similar results were found in this comparison as in that for the PRS; i.e., as the chief educational leaders got older, their head/heart dichotomy became more balanced.

3. Effects of experience on the head/heart relationship (PSS). Again, the results were identical to those for the PRS with respect to experience. Gaining experience balanced the head/heart relationship.

Nonpublic school superintendents (NSS): According to the t-test, the NSS instrumental value system was in balance. The p-value was .066; therefore, the null hypothesis that there is no difference between the means of the head and heart values (or that they are in balance) could not be rejected. The t-statistic of -1.91 showed that the NSS ranked the heart values higher than the head values. Even without including HONEST in the calculations, the NSS value system was in balance (p = .463).

The NSS ranked four heart values in the top six: HONEST, RESPONSIBLE, SELF-CONTROLLED, and HELPFUL.

1. Effects of gender on the head/heart relationship (NSS). According to the t-test, the male NSS (n = 18) were in balance with and without HONEST in the calculations. The female NSS were not tested by themselves, but rather they were tested with the female PRS. Because 11 of the 14 female PRS were NSS, and the female PRS head/heart relationship was in balance with and without HONEST, it was deduced that gender alone did not influence the balance. Rather, the school district type was the influencing factor.

2. Effect of age and experience on the head/heart relationship (NSS). Even though disaggregating data into very small groups is not considered to provide valid or reliable information, the NSS's instrumental value system was in balance at every age and experience level tested. This finding is consistent with the nature of all the findings for the NSS.

Of the three groups (PSS, NSS, and AS), the NSS not only had the most distinctively different value system, but they also had a

balanced head/heart instrumental value system. Attempting to account for this was outside the scope of the research, but the following is a plausible explanation for this finding.

Because the NSS represented religious school organizations, i.e., Catholic, Christian, and Lutheran, the chief educational leaders' values were likely to be similar to those of their respective institutions. Many researchers have found that religiosity influences some values. Religiosity is defined as the degree of commitment to religious ideology or dogma (Glock & Stark, 1968). Rokeach (1969) set out to determine whether those who are religious have a pattern of values that is discriminably different from the values of those who are less religious and irreligious. He found that all three groups possessed value systems that were distinctively different from one another.

Pollock, Finn, and Snyder (1981) conducted a survey in which they extensively studied the values of Americans; the survey was entitled "The Connecticut Mutual Life Report on American Values in the 80's." The general population was surveyed by means of the telephone and comprised 1,610 randomly selected citizens. Pollock et al. found that religiosity for the general population was the strongest determinant of values. Religiosity affected values more than did income, sex, race, or political ideology. The authors discovered that activities in the home, school, community, and work place were influenced by religious beliefs. This research provided

a plausible reason for why the NSS's value system was different and why their head/heart relationship was balanced.

Aspiring superintendents (AS): According to the t-test, the AS's instrumental value system was not in balance. Also, they ranked the head values higher than the heart values. With HONEST included in the calculations, the AS's t-statistic (4.97) was the largest of the four groups. This number indicates the greatest imbalance of the groups. Likewise, when HONEST was excluded, the t-statistic (7.00) was the largest as well.

Two heart values, HONEST and RESPONSIBLE, were ranked first and second, respectively. However, five head values were ranked before the next heart value. The next highest heart value was ranked ninth. Not only did the statistical test show an imbalance, but the practical test, as seen by the order of the rankings, did also.

According to Barnard (1938), values attributable to the role or position may account for the imbalance. Because AS did not yet occupy the position of superintendent, they had not acquired or learned all of the appropriate values that contribute to success. Another plausible reason for this finding is that the AS value system resembled that of their university professors (Hoelscher, 1983).

Because values are predictors of behavior (Rokeach, 1973), it can be inferred that the chief educational leaders of the future were less concerned with the heart values.

1. Effects of gender on the head/heart relationship (AS). The t-test indicated that both male (n = 63) and female (n = 30) AS's

instrumental value systems were not in balance. Female AS (p = .000, t-value = 5.73) were slightly more out of balance than the male AS (p = .009, t-value = 2.69).

2. Effects of age on the head/heart relationship (AS). Again, because of the small number of members in the age classifications, only two were considered: 35-49 and 50-64 age groups. The majority of AS (n = 84) were in the first classification. An imbalance was found to exist in the first group, but the second group was in balance with or without HONEST included. However, caution must be taken when drawing conclusions here because there were only four 50-64 year olds.

3. Effects of experience on the head/heart relationship (AS). Of the three groups separated by experience levels (i.e., 0-10, 11-20, and 21+ years), the least experienced (n = 66) showed an imbalance whereas the more experienced (n = 24 and n = 3, respectively) showed a balance between the head and heart values. It appears from the data that a more balanced dichotomy evolved with experience.

Summary of findings for Hypothesis 2. Several findings emerged from the data for Hypothesis 2. First, when the groups were taken in isolation, of the four groups (PRS, PSS, NSS, and AS), only the NSS had a balanced head/heart dichotomy of instrumental values. Second, the AS appeared to be the least concerned with heart values, as seen by their t-value. Finally, when gender, age, and experience were included in the analysis, gender was found to have no influence

on the head/heart relationship, but age and/or experience did have an effect, regardless of the group. As the administrator got older and more experienced, the head/heart dichotomy became in balance. This was the pattern among all the groups.

Summary

In this chapter the results for the two hypotheses were discussed, and value profiles were assembled for the four groups: practicing school superintendents (PRS), public school superintendents (PSS), nonpublic school superintendents (NSS), and aspiring superintendents (AS). The Kruskal-Wallis test was performed on the data for Hypothesis 1, whereas the t-test was applied for Hypothesis 2. The test results indicated that there were differences in the value systems of the groups. Also, only one group, the NSS, had a balanced head/heart dichotomy, although age and/or experience had an effect on this balance as well. Conclusions and recommendations based on these findings are presented in Chapter V.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND REFLECTIONS

This chapter is divided into several sections. A brief overview of the writer's purpose in the study is presented in the first section. The procedures and methods used in carrying out the study are outlined in the second section. Third, the findings are summarized. Conclusions drawn from the findings are discussed in the fourth section, followed by recommendations for practice and for future research. The last section contains the writer's reflections on the study.

Summary

There is little debate that values play very important roles in educational administration. The first role that chief educational leaders assume is to establish the vision, mission, or direction in which the school district will go. It is the leader's ability to infuse a set of shared values into the school district, which enables the organization members to work in a common direction or mission and ultimately to be successful in teaching all children.

Second, the superintendent occupies an important role by exercising influence over the members of the school district. Andrews (1989) explained:

> No one would deny that a CEO's action speak louder than words. The import of this aspect of a corporation as a moral environment is of course that CEOs should be conscious of the amplifications their positions give to their most casual judgments, their jokes, and their silences. But if a person cannot conceal his or her character, then an even more important implication is that the selection of a chief executive and indeed of any aspirant to management responsibility should include an explicit estimate of character. If you ask, "How do you do that," Emerson would reply, "Just look!" (p. 8)

In this study, the writer examined the character of superintendents as revealed by their value systems. The Rokeach Value Survey, the instrument used in this study, can be used to formulate value profiles for the "chief executive" and the "aspirant to management responsibility" as well. These value profiles along with the statistical comparisons reveal an "explicit estimate of character."

Third, the position of superintendent carries with it a large responsibility and one that requires moral or ethical conviction (Barnard, 1938) in addition to the necessary competence skills. Some educational writers have expressed concern over the imbalance that presently exists with respect to an overemphasis on competency coupled with a deemphasis on the moral side of the equation. The second statistical test provided a glimpse at the balance between the head and heart values of chief educational leaders and those who aspire to that position. Determining the ethical "inclinations" of both present and future chief educational leaders is important for the individual aspirant and for the field of educational administration.

It is for the preceding reasons that the study of the personal value systems of chief educational leaders is so important. For educational leaders to be successful in the future, they must be more concerned with the moral, ethical, heart component of their value system.

A lack of research indicated the need to study values or ethics of superintendents. This study was undertaken in an attempt to fill that void. The specific problem addressed in this study centered on two questions. In an attempt to identify an "explicit estimate of character," the first research question concerned whether there are differences in the values of practicing superintendents and those who aspire to the position. The findings enable those interested in the field of educational administration to have a better understanding of what values are important in the complex role of the superintendency. The second research question concerned whether or not an imbalance exists between the head and heart instrumental values in educational administration, and the results provide information to those who are planning curriculum in educational leadership.

Procedures

Two major groups of educators were surveyed. The first group comprised practicing superintendents (PRS) from around Michigan. This group was divided into two subgroups, public school superintendents (PSS) and nonpublic school superintendents (NSS). The second major group comprised educators who aspired to the

superintendency (AS). Participants were surveyed using the Rokeach
Value Survey (RVS), developed by Milton Rokeach. Respondents were
asked to rank order 18 instrumental values (modes of conduct) and 18
terminal values (end-states of existence). Each group's totals were
calculated, and Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance and
t-tests were performed on the data; the results of these analyses
were used in making decisions regarding significance corresponding
to the two null hypotheses.

Findings

The first major research finding was that the PRS and the AS
differed significantly on nine values. Based on the standard
initially stated in this study, i.e., one-fourth or nine values must
be different if the value systems are to be considered different, it
was concluded that the overall value systems of the PRS and AS were
different. When the PRS group was divided into PSS and NSS and
consequently compared with the AS, 20 values were different. A
summary of values that were significantly different between the
PSS/NSS, PSS/AS, and NSS/AS is given in Table 12. The NSS had a
value system that was distinctively different from that of the PSS
and AS. The largest differences occurred any time the NSS were
compared; i.e., 14 values were different between the PSS and the
NSS, and 13 values were different between the NSS and the AS,
whereas only 9 values were different between the PSS and the AS.

Table 12.--Summary of significantly different values as determined by the Kruskal-Wallis test between the PSS, NSS, and AS.

Value	PSS versus NSS	PSS versus AS	NSS versus AS
Terminal Values			
A comfortable life	X		X
An exciting life	X	X	X
A sense of accomplishment		X	
A world of beauty	X		
Family security	X	X	X
Inner harmony	X		X
Pleasure	X		X
Salvation	X	X	X
Social recognition		X	
Wisdom	X		X
Instrumental Values			
Ambitious	X		X
Broad-minded	X		X
Clean	X		
Courageous			X
Forgiving	X		X
Honest		X	
Independent		X	X
Intellectual		X	
Loving	X	X	
Self-controlled	X		X

When each group was examined in isolation, it was discovered that the PRS value rankings were remarkably similar to those of CEOs (Goad, 1986). Seventy-five percent of the values in the top third were the same between the PRS and the CEOs. This result confirms the findings of Mills (1987), who compared the value systems of principals and middle managers in the business world.

Also, it was found that gender, age, and experience made no significant difference in any of the groups when taken in isolation for Hypothesis 1.

When comparisons were made between the groups, and when moderating variables such as gender, age, and experience were included in the analysis, two findings emerged. First, the value systems of male PRS and female AS were different (ten values). Second, ten values were different between PRS and AS who were in the 25-49-year-old age bracket.

When the composite rankings of the top third values were analyzed, the groups were found to be very similar.

The second major research finding was that, of the four groups (PRS, PSS, NSS, and AS), only the NSS had a balanced head/heart dichotomy of instrumental values. Therefore, the NSS not only had a distinctive value system as seen from the data for Hypothesis 1, but they also had the only in-balance instrumental value system. Also, it was determined from the data that age and/or experience had an effect on this dichotomy, regardless of the group. As the administrator gained more experience, the head/heart dichotomy became in balance. This was the pattern among all the groups. Finally, the AS appeared to be the least concerned with heart values, as evidenced by their t-values. This finding is attributable either to role differences or to their training programs.

Conclusions

Based on the findings of the study, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. The PRS were more inclined to value the head qualities and less inclined to value the heart qualities. The AS's ethical inclinations indicated an even greater disparity between head and heart than did those of the PRS. Thus, the imbalance may be perpetuated. It appears that tomorrow's chief educational leaders may be reluctant to pinpoint and weigh the ethical implications of their decision alternatives, although, in terms of readiness to handle a superintendency, the AS are prepared.

2. Life is the greatest teacher. It is clear that administrative experience of any type puts the instrumental value system back in balance. Perhaps it is the years on the "battlefield," or learning the ropes the hard way, that causes one to change what is valued. It seems certain, however, that "older and wiser" is not a cliche.

3. The NSS's value system was different from all the others and the only one with a balanced head/heart dichotomy. This difference is probably most attributable to the nature of the school district type. The NSS is selected to work in that role because his/her values are congruent with the values of the organization. Since the nonpublic schools are religious in basic orientation, each NSS is probably considered to be religious. Therefore, the NSS are permitted, encouraged, and rewarded to express their values within

the structure of their institutions, whereas the PSS are not. Statistically and practically, their values reflect a greater concern for the heart values. Religiosity seems to affect the values one holds.

4. The AS's different value system either reflected the differences attributable to the position or role, or it reflected the type of training they had received in their administrative preparation programs or some combination of the two.

5. Statistically, the value systems of the PRS and the AS were different. Also, when the PRS were divided into PSS and NSS and compared with the AS, the result was the same, i.e., different value systems. However, from a practical point of view, by looking at the top third composite value rankings, i.e., those that were considered to be more central to the respondent, the differences between groups were minimal (see Table 13). Six out of 12 values were the same for all groups. Of the remaining six, only three, SALVATION, SELF-CONTROLLED, and INTELLECTUAL, were listed in the top third by only one of the groups. The composite rankings are another way to look at the data. The statistical means indicate the intensity of the rankings.

6. The PRS were very much like the CEOs in the business world. Even though CEOs are in the money-making business, it is certain they must effectively manage people to have a productive organization. PRS are in the "people-making" business but must also work through people to be effective. Therefore, one might expect these two groups to display similar value profiles. Accountability

for student outcomes and fiscal responsibility evidently have caused
today's and tomorrow's chief educational leaders to approach their
work like businesspersons.

Table 13.--The most central (top third) values of the PRS, PSS, NSS,
and AS.

Group			
PRS	PSS	NSS	AS

Terminal Values

PRS	PSS	NSS	AS
Family security[a]	Family security	Salvation	Family security
Self-respect[a]	Sense of accomp.	Self-respect	Self-respect
Sense of accomp.[a]	Self-respect	Inner harmony	Sense of accomp.
Happiness	Happiness	Wisdom	Happiness
Wisdom	Freedom	Family security	Inner harmony
Inner harmony	Wisdom	Sense of accomp.	Freedom

Instrumental Values

PRS	PSS	NSS	AS
Honest[a]	Honest	Honest	Honest
Responsible[a]	Responsible	Responsible	Responsible
Capable[a]	Capable	Courageous	Capable
Ambitious	Ambitious	Capable	Ambitious
Courageous	Courageous	Self-controlled	Broad-minded
Helpful	Broad-minded	Helpful	Intellectual

[a]Value appears in top third of all groups.

7. Although the female AS held a different value system than
the male PRS, they displayed a propensity to be more relational.
Communication and relationship-building skills are necessary to
build coalitions of support and partnerships for progress in

communities so that the school personnel can manage imminent change more efficiently. Females appear to be better equipped for these tasks than their male counterparts.

8. The risk-taking index was the lowest for the AS. The next generation of chief educational leaders may not be prepared to take the risks necessary to restructure schools to meet the demands of an ever-changing world. Ironically, the AS were more task oriented, which indicates their potential to get things done. Yet, they may have to develop the creativity and courage to place themselves on the cutting edge of educational change.

9. In a time of rapid change, knowledge of one's own values is essential. As one superintendent said, "You need your own guidance system; otherwise you lose your direction--become a victim of every pressure" (Iannaccone, 1981, p. 110). AS now have a better understanding of what the "internal guidance" system of the superintendent looks like.

Recommendations

Based on the research data and consequent conclusions, the following recommendations are made to people in the field of educational administration.

1. AS need to know and understand the value systems of those chief educational leaders who are already practicing their craft in Michigan. It would behoove an AS to compare his/her own value system with the profile of the PRS listed in the Appendix.

2. Those responsible for proper placement of administrative personnel, i.e., personnel directors, superintendent search committees, and so on, should take note of the findings from this study with respect to the head/heart dichotomy's changing due to experience. Wise placement of the task-oriented, head-value-dominated administrator could produce exciting possibilities in terms of getting things done. Likewise, if stability and reflection are desired, a more balanced person is needed.

3. Superintendent search committees should give serious thought to matching the value systems of the new superintendent with the values implicitly expected in the position as the board of education sees it.

4. Given the fact that the head/heart relationship balances with experience, pairing a new superintendent with a mentor could produce an important partnership and might hasten the balancing of the newcomer's value system.

5. Training institutions, including the National Academy of School Executives (NASE), a branch of the American Association of School Administrators (AASA); the Michigan Principals Assessment Centers; the Michigan Institute for Educational Management (MIEM), a branch of the Michigan Association of School Administrators (MASA); and college and university departments of educational administration, should begin to include training in the affective domain, specifically in the area of values and ethics. This does not mean that instruction in the competency skills or head values should be

supplanted, but rather that a balance between head and heart should be stressed.

AS need to understand why the study of personal values is important. They must know that the position they desire to assume is a key role that determines shared organizational values, that influences others, and that requires ethical choices in decision making.

In any case, a more concerted effort should be made to bring more ethical dialogue into educational leadership training programs. An attempt should be made to bring into balance earlier, through education, what would otherwise occur through experience, i.e., a balanced head/heart dichotomy, or upon assuming a new role.

The teaching methods espoused by Kimbrough (1985) and Strike, Haller, and Soltis (1988) would make a positive contribution to the higher education curriculum for aspiring administrators. Their use of case studies of ethical dilemmas, coupled with open discussion about the consequences of decisions, is considered by this writer to be a beneficial teaching technique that should be used.

Furthermore, internship programs should be considered as a teaching technique which would allow the aspirant to assimilate some of the role values that need to be acquired.

6. After it has been agreed to begin to emphasize heart values in educational leadership training programs, curriculum specialists should devise learning strategies to incorporate this emphasis into the curriculum. This could be accomplished by including a unit on ethics and values within appropriate classes, i.e., Theory and

Practice in Administration, or possibly initiating a complete course on values and ethics in school administration.

7. It would behoove educators to examine why the NSS value system was different and why their head/heart dichotomy was in balance. Public school leaders do not communicate enough with their counterparts in the nonpublic schools. An open dialogue with this group would seem advisable, given the results from this study.

8. Knowing one's own "guidance system" or one's own "estimate of character" seems to be a prerequisite to success. It is recommended that administrators assess their value systems to gain a better understanding of themselves and to gain an increased capacity for ethical reflection.

Recommendations for Future Research

As a result of this study, many areas surfaced for further research in the important area of values and ethics. Future researchers could study:

1. The link between personal values and behavior. A baseline of conceived values was established in this study. A researcher now needs to examine the extent to which these values are translated into behavior because it is understood that it is what we do, not what we say, that really matters.

2. The correlation between values and effectiveness.

3. The differences in values of practicing superintendents of schools and chief executive officers of corporations.

4. The influence that religiosity has on values and ethics.

5. The effect that other demographic variables, such as geographic location and/or size of the school district, family background and/or cultural heritage, and intelligence quotient and/or level of education, have on values.

6. The differences in values between AS and/or PRS and university professors in educational administration.

7. Why the head/heart dichotomy balances with experience and whether it occurs at a specific point in that experience.

8. The connection between age and experience.

9. The findings from the present study in a comparison study with other institutions, such as private schools of higher education, schools outside of Michigan, and so on.

10. The value systems of preservice (undergraduates) or early service (AS).

12. The differences between chief educational leaders and their respective boards of education.

13. More closely the gender differences from a perspective of moral development.

Reflections

The following remarks are an attempt to reveal some of the personal reflections of this writer now that the study is finished.

1. Values in educational leadership is an important area of study that has not yet received much attention in the research literature, although it has recently received some interest in the popular press. Concern about the lack of ethics and/or values is

expressed each week in the newspapers and news magazines. In the wake of these reports, interest is increasing by those in educational leadership. For example, the Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD) listed moral education as one of its top priorities for 1989, Boston University has recently opened the Center for the Advancement of Ethics and Character, and the American Association of School Administrators (AASA) has planned a session at its 1990 convention in San Francisco on "Ethics: A Focus of the Decade." The pendulum is swinging back. Therefore, empirical studies of value systems, ethics, and behavior could not be more timely. The current study scratched the surface of potential for educational researchers. The door is wide open for researchers to study many different aspects of values and the influence of values on behavior.

2. This writer is intrigued by the NSS's value system. Religiosity does affect values, but how? Is it conformity with a belief statement or doctrine? Is it faith alone? Is it personal or cultural? A study of this nature would be an interesting follow-up to the current study.

3. The response to the survey was heartening. More than 70 of the respondents requested summary information. Many more attached personal notes and well wishes. For this, the writer is grateful; their encouragement meant a great deal.

4. Although the writer is not sure that the donation incentive was, in itself, instrumental in increasing the return rate, the

Southwestern Michigan Branch of the Arthritis Foundation received $29 as a result of offering the incentive.

5. The writer recently discovered that there is a "network" of academicians and practitioners who are devoting a great deal of their personal time and energy to the field of values and ethics. Plugging into this network would be a top priority if the writer were to start anew on a dissertation project.

6. Finally, although the writer maintained a high level of interest in the study, for the benefit of his family he would take a sabbatical, a leave of absence, or an outright resignation if he were to start over, in order to have more concentrated study time. Nothing can take the place of quality and quantity time for study with a singular focus.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

COVER LETTER TO SUPERINTENDENT VALUES SURVEY

OTSEGO PUBLIC SCHOOLS
313 W. ALLEGAN STREET
OTSEGO, MICHIGAN 49078
(616) 694-5131

John D. Kingsnorth
Superintendent

July 28, 1989

Dear Colleague,

Over 50 percent of the practicing superintendents may retire by 1992. With this anticipated turnover, many new faces will enter the ranks. Will they have "what it takes" to replace those that retire? Will they have the values that will help them make wise decisions? Determining what superintendents value could have a bearing on the eventual success of future superintendents. Also, knowledge of the ethical inclinations of today's and tomorrow's chief educational leaders may provide worthwhile information to our field.

Because of the immediacy of this topic, I am conducting a dissertation research study comparing the values of practicing superintendents with those who aspire to the superintendency to determine what differences, if any, exist. This study has been endorsed by Don Elliott, Executive Director of MASA.

Enclosed you will find a questionnaire. It will take 10 minutes to complete. All results will be treated with strict confidence and your responses will remain anonymous. By writing your name on the return envelope, I will gladly send you a summary of the findings. Returning the completed survey in the enclosed, stamped envelope by Friday, August 11, 1989 would be greatly appreciated.

Thanks in advance for extending me this professional courtesy.

Sincerely,

John D. Kingsnorth,
Superintendent

enc.
Don Elliott letter
Superintendent Value Survey
Stamped, return envelope

Your Public Schools - An Investment In The Future

APPENDIX B

COVER LETTER TO ASPIRING SUPERINTENDENT VALUES SURVEY

OTSEGO PUBLIC SCHOOLS
313 W. ALLEGAN STREET
OTSEGO, MICHIGAN 49078
(616) 694-5131

July 28, 1989

Dear Fellow Student in Educational Administration,

Do you have any desire to become a superintendent?
___YES ___POSSIBLY ___NO (check one, please).
If you checked YES, or POSSIBLY, please continue reading.
If you checked NO, please return this letter along with the
blank questionnaire in the enclosed, stamped return envelope
and thank you for your time.

I am conducting a dissertation research study involving
students in MSU's Department of Educational Administration
who may aspire to the superintendency. Superintendents are
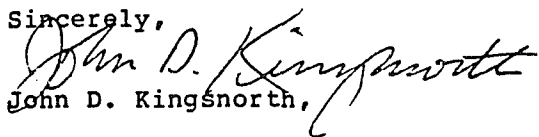also being surveyed.

Since over 50 percent of the practicing superintendents
may retire by 1992, many new faces will enter the ranks.
Will they have "what it takes" to replace those that retire?
Will they have the values that will help them make wise
decisions? Determining what superintendents value could have
a bearing on the eventual success of future superintendents.
Also, knowledge of the ethical inclinations of today's and
tomorrow's chief educational leaders may provide worthwhile
information to our field.

Therefore, this study compares the values of practicing
superintendents with those who aspire to the superintendency
to determine what differences, if any, exist. This study has
the endorsement of Don Elliott, Executive Director of the
Michigan Association of School Administrators.

Enclosed you will find a questionnaire. It will take 10
minutes to complete. All results will be treated with strict
confidence and your responses will remain anonymous. By
writing your name on the return envelope, I will gladly send
you a summary of the findings. Returning the completed
survey in the enclosed, stamped envelope by August 11, 1989
would be greatly appreciated.

Thanks in advance for extending me this professional
courtesy. I will be happy to return the favor.

Sincerely,

John D. Kingsnorth,

enc.
Don Elliott letter
Aspiring Superintendent Value Survey
Stamped, return envelope

APPENDIX C

ENDORSEMENT LETTER FROM THE EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR OF THE

MICHIGAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

MICHIGAN ASSOCIATION
OF
SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

Office of the Executive Director   421 West Kalamazoo, Lansing, Michigan 48933   Telephone 517 371-5250

July 6, 1989

Dear Colleague:

A leader's value system, whatever it may be, affects how he/she carries out his/her job. Each day our ethics and values influence our decision making and our behavior. Therefore, knowing the value systems of successful superintendents would be very beneficial to someone who aspires to the superintendency.

Furthermore, knowledge of our ethical inclinations could have an impact on higher education programming in educational leadership.

This study, which compares the value systems of practicing school superintendents with those who aspire to the superintendency, can make an important contribution to the field of educational administration.

Your assistance in this study would be appreciated very much.

Sincerely yours,

Don R. Elliott
Executive Director

pat

APPENDIX D

SUPERINTENDENT VALUES SURVEY

SUPERINTENDENT VALUES SURVEY

Instructions

You are participating in a research study to determine what
differences, if any, exist in the value systems of superintendents
and those who aspire to become superintendents. Please complete the
demographic questions listed below by checking the appropriate box
and then proceed to rank the values listed on the following pages
according to the instructions given there. It will take about 15
minutes to complete the survey. Thank you for your cooperation in
making this study a success.

Demographic Questions

1. Age:

    _____ 25-34 years
    _____ 35-49 years
    _____ 50-64 years
    _____ 65 years and over

2. Gender:

    _____ Male
    _____ Female

3. Superintendent experience:

    _____ 0-5 years
    _____ 6-10 years
    _____ 11-15 years
    _____ 16-20 years
    _____ 21-25 years
    _____ 26 years or more

4. School district type:

    _____ Public
    _____ Nonpublic

Below is a list of 18 values in alphabetical order. This survey is designed to find out the relative importance of these values to you as guiding principles in your life. Study the list carefully. Then place a 1 next to the value which is most important to you, place a 2 next to the value which is second most important, etc. The value which is least important to you should be ranked 18. When you have completed ranking all the values, go back and check over your list. Feel free to make changes so that the end result truly represents your values.

_____ A comfortable life (a prosperous life)

_____ An exciting life (a stimulating, active life)

_____ A sense of accomplishment (lasting contribution)

_____ A world at peace (free of war and conflict)

_____ A world of beauty (beauty of nature and the arts)

_____ Equality (brotherhood, equal opportunity for all)

_____ Family security (taking care of loved ones)

_____ Freedom (independence, free choice)

_____ Happiness (contentedness)

_____ Inner harmony (freedom from inner conflict)

_____ Mature love (sexual and spiritual intimacy)

_____ National security (protection from attack)

_____ Pleasure (an enjoyable, leisurely life)

_____ Salvation (saved, eternal life)

_____ Self-respect (self-esteem)

_____ Social recognition (respect, admiration)

_____ True friendship (close companionship)

_____ Wisdom (a mature understanding of life)

When you finish this page, go on to the next page.

Below is another list of 18 values. Rank them in order of importance, the same as before.

_____ Ambitious (hard-working, aspiring)

_____ Broadminded (open-minded)

_____ Capable (competent, effective)

_____ Cheerful (lighthearted, joyful)

_____ Clean (neat, tidy)

_____ Courageous (standing up for your beliefs)

_____ Forgiving (willing to pardon others)

_____ Helpful (working for the welfare of others)

_____ Honest (sincere, truthful)

_____ Imaginative (daring, creative)

_____ Independent (self-reliant, self-sufficient)

_____ Intellectual (intelligent, reflective)

_____ Logical (consistent, rational)

_____ Loving (affectionate, tender)

_____ Obedient (dutiful, respectful)

_____ Polite (courteous, well-mannered)

_____ Responsible (dependable, reliable)

_____ Self-controlled (restrained, self-discipline)

Thank you!

APPENDIX E

ASPIRING SUPERINTENDENT VALUES SURVEY

ASPIRING SUPERINTENDENT VALUES SURVEY

Instructions

You are participating in a research study to determine what differences, if any, exist in the value systems of superintendents and those who aspire to become superintendents. Please complete the demographic questions listed below by checking the appropriate box and then proceed to rank the values listed on the following pages according to the instructions given there. It will take about 15 minutes to complete the survey. Thank you for your cooperation in making this study a success.

Demographic Questions

1. Age:

   _____ 25-34 years
   _____ 35-49 years
   _____ 50-64 years
   _____ 65 years and over

2. Gender:

   _____ Male
   _____ Female

3. Administrative experience:

   _____ 0-5 years
   _____ 6-10 years
   _____ 11-15 years
   _____ 16-20 years
   _____ 21-25 years
   _____ 26 years or more

4. School district type:

   _____ Public
   _____ Nonpublic

Below is a list of 18 values in alphabetical order. This survey is designed to find out the relative importance of these values to you as guiding principles in your life. Study the list carefully. Then place a 1 next to the value which is most important to you, place a 2 next to the value which is second most important, etc. The value which is least important to you should be ranked 18. When you have completed ranking all the values, go back and check over your list. Feel free to make changes so that the end result truly represents your values.

____ A comfortable life (a prosperous life)

____ An exciting life (a stimulating, active life)

____ A sense of accomplishment (lasting contribution)

____ A world at peace (free of war and conflict)

____ A world of beauty (beauty of nature and the arts)

____ Equality (brotherhood, equal opportunity for all)

____ Family security (taking care of loved ones)

____ Freedom (independence, free choice)

____ Happiness (contentedness)

____ Inner harmony (freedom from inner conflict)

____ Mature love (sexual and spiritual intimacy)

____ National security (protection from attack)

____ Pleasure (an enjoyable, leisurely life)

____ Salvation (saved, eternal life)

____ Self-respect (self-esteem)

____ Social recognition (respect, admiration)

____ True friendship (close companionship)

____ Wisdom (a mature understanding of life)

When you finish this page, go on to the next page.

Below is another list of 18 values.   Rank them in order of importance, the same as before.

_____ Ambitious (hard-working, aspiring)

_____ Broadminded (open-minded)

_____ Capable (competent, effective)

_____ Cheerful (lighthearted, joyful)

_____ Clean (neat, tidy)

_____ Courageous (standing up for your beliefs)

_____ Forgiving (willing to pardon others)

_____ Helpful (working for the welfare of others)

_____ Honest (sincere, truthful)

_____ Imaginative (daring, creative)

_____ Independent (self-reliant, self-sufficient)

_____ Intellectual (intelligent, reflective)

_____ Logical (consistent, rational)

_____ Loving (affectionate, tender)

_____ Obedient (dutiful, respectful)

_____ Polite (courteous, well-mannered)

_____ Responsible (dependable, reliable)

_____ Self-controlled (restrained, self-discipline)

Thank you!

APPENDIX F

FOLLOW-UP LETTER

OTSEGO PUBLIC SCHOOLS
313 W. ALLEGAN STREET
OTSEGO, MICHIGAN 49078
(616) 694-5131

August 25, 1989

Dear Colleague,

A few weeks ago you received a letter from me asking you to participate in a dissertation research study. Enclosed was a questionnaire. The study compares the values of superintendents and those who aspire to the superintendency to determine what differences, if any, exist.

If you have already returned the survey, you can disregard this reminder and thank you for the professional courtesy you have extended me. If you have not yet returned the survey, please take a few minutes to respond. Your opinions are very important to this study. Your participation ensures that the published results actually reflect the values that you think are important as educational leaders.

I have included duplicate copies of the survey and a stamped, return envelope for your convenience.

Furthermore, your prompt return saves me time and money. Consequently, when you return the survey before September 10, 1989, I will gladly contribute one dollar ($1.00) to the Arthritis Foundation - Southwestern Michigan branch on your behalf.

Thanks in advance for your help in making this study a successful one.

Sincerely,

John D. Kingsnorth

enc. Values Survey
    Stamped, return envelope

APPENDIX G

PROFILES OF SUPERINTENDENT GROUPS' VALUE SYSTEM RANKINGS

Composite Mean Rankings[a] for Practicing Public and Nonpublic
School Superintendents (PRS)

Comp. Rank	Terminal Values	Mean Rank	Instrumental Values	Mean Rank
1	Family security	4.4578	Honest	2.8133
2	Self-respect	5.3289	Responsible	5.0889
3	A sense of accomplishment	5.4178	Capable	6.2533
4	Happiness	7.5244	Ambitious	7.3467
5	Wisdom	7.6844	Courageous	8.0978
6	Inner harmony	7.9244	Helpful	8.7733
7	Freedom	8.1378	Broad-minded	9.0311
8	Salvation	9.5867	Self-controlled	9.1600
9	True friendship	9.7067	Intellectual	9.8978
10	A world at peace	9.8444	Logical	9.9600
11	An exciting life	10.0089	Forgiving	10.5287
12	Mature love	10.0346	Independent	10.7156
13	Equality	10.8267	Cheerful	10.7422
14	A comfortable life	11.2044	Loving	10.7867
15	Social recognition	13.0044	Imaginative	11.0000
16	A world of beauty	13.0578	Polite	11.3733
17	National security	13.3689	Clean	14.3556
18	Pleasure	13.4311	Obedient	14.9289

[a]Composite rank order followed by mean rankings.

Composite Mean Rankings[a] for Practicing Public
School Superintendents (PSS)

Comp. Rank	Terminal Values	Mean Rank	Instrumental Values	Mean Rank
1	Family security	4.1786	Honest	2.7908
2	A sense of accomplishment	5.2500	Responsible	5.0816
3	Self-respect	5.3367	Capable	6.1122
4	Happiness	7.3827	Ambitious	6.7755
5	Freedom	7.9898	Courageous	8.2551
6	Wisdom	8.0102	Broad-minded	8.7908
7	Inner harmony	8.3010	Helpful	8.9031
8	An exciting life	9.3163	Self-controlled	9.3980
9	True friendship	9.8418	Logical	10.0000
10	A world at peace	9.9439	Intellectual	10.0510
11	Mature love	10.2194	Cheerful	10.5357
12	Salvation	10.4286	Independent	10.5408
13	A comfortable life	10.5765	Imaginative	10.9031
14	Equality	11.0153	Forgiving	10.9133
15	Social recognition	13.0612	Loving	11.1429
16	Pleasure	13.1786	Polite	11.3827
17	National security	13.2347	Clean	14.1633
18	A world of beauty	13.2551	Obedient	15.1378

[a]Composite rank order followed by mean rankings.

Composite Mean Rankings[a] for Practicing Nonpublic
School Superintendents (NSS)

Comp. Rank	Terminal Values	Mean Rank	Instrumental Values	Mean Rank
1	Salvation	3.8966	Honest	2.9655
2	Self-respect	5.2759	Responsible	5.1379
3	Inner harmony	5.3793	Courageous	7.0345
4	Wisdom	5.4828	Capable	7.2069
5	Family security	6.3448	Self-controlled	7.5517
6	A sense of accomplishment	6.5517	Helpful	7.8966
7	Happiness	8.4828	Forgiving	7.9310
8	Mature love	8.7931	Loving	8.3793
9	True friendship	8.7931	Intellectual	8.8621
10	Freedom	9.1379	Logical	9.6897
11	A world at peace	9.1724	Broad-minded	10.6552
12	Equality	9.5517	Ambitious	11.2069
13	A world of beauty	11.7241	Polite	11.3103
14	Social recognition	12.6207	Imaginative	11.6552
15	National security	14.2759	Independent	11.8966
16	An exciting life	14.6897	Cheerful	12.1379
17	Pleasure	15.1379	Obedient	13.5172
18	A comfortable life	15.4483	Clean	15.6552

[a]Composite rank order followed by mean rankings.

Composite Mean Rankings[a] for Aspiring Superintendents (AS)

Comp. Rank	Terminal Values	Mean Rank	Instrumental Values	Mean Rank
1	Family security	4.1935	Honest	4.2043
2	Self-respect	4.7204	Responsible	5.2258
3	A sense of accomplishment	6.4516	Capable	6.1075
4	Happiness	7.2043	Ambitious	7.0753
5	Inner harmony	7.7849	Broad-minded	8.0860
6	Freedom	7.8710	Intellectual	8.3548
7	Wisdom	7.9462	Courageous	9.1828
8	True friendship	8.8817	Independent	9.2043
9	Mature love	9.2581	Loving	9.3333
10	Equality	10.4731	Helpful	9.5161
11	A world at peace	10.4839	Logical	9.7742
12	A comfortable life	11.3226	Self-controlled	10.2688
13	Social recognition	11.6344	Forgiving	10.3763
14	An exciting life	11.6559	Imaginative	10.6344
15	Salvation	12.0215	Cheerful	11.0860
16	Pleasure	12.5806	Polite	11.9355
17	A world of beauty	12.7849	Clean	14.1828
18	National security	13.6989	Obedient	15.9247

[a]Composite rank order followed by mean rankings.

APPENDIX H

THE FORMULA, CALCULATION, AND RATIONALE USED IN
DETERMINING APPROPRIATE SAMPLE SIZE

To determine appropriate sample size, the following equation was used (Hansen, Hurwitz, & Madow, 1953, p. 127):

$$\text{Sample size } n = \frac{k^2 N V^2}{N D^2 + k^2 V^2}$$

where k = 3
       N = 579
       V = .7
       D = .1

1. Using k = 3 ensures that 99% of the population is included (Chebycheff's theorem).

2. N = the number of members in the population, i.e., 579.

3. V = the rel-variance. A smaller V could have been used since the population was homogeneous. However, .7 allowed for greater sample size and greater precision.

4. The relative difference between the estimated mean from a sample and the true mean will be no greater than D, i.e., .1 or 10%.

4. When calculated, n = 250, which represented 43% of the population; hence 43% was used for both PSS and NSS. All members of NSS were included.

APPENDIX I

PERMISSION LETTER FROM UCRIHS

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

UNIVERSITY COMMITTEE ON RESEARCH INVOLVING
HUMAN SUBJECTS (UCRIHS)
206 BERKEY HALL
(517) 353-9738

EAST LANSING • MICHIGAN • 48824-1111

June 27, 1989

IRB# 89-314

John Kingsnorth
1682 Oak Street
Otsego, MI 49078

Dear Mr. Kingsnorth:

Re: "A STUDY OF THE VALUE SYSTEMS OF SUPERINTENDENTS AND
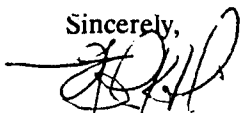ASPIRING SUPERINTENDENTS IN MICHIGAN IRB# 89-314"

The above project is exempt from full UCRIHS review. I have reviewed the proposed research protocol and find that the rights and welfare of human subjects appear to be protected. You have approval to conduct the research.

You are reminded that UCRIHS approval is valid for one calendar year. If you plan to continue this project beyond one year, please make provisions for obtaining appropriate UCRIHS approval one month prior to June 27, 1990.

Any changes in procedures involving human subjects must be reviewed by the UCRIHS prior to initiation of the change. UCRIHS must also be notified promptly of any problems (unexpected side effects, complaints, etc.) involving human subjects during the course of the work.

Thank you for bringing this project to our attention. If we can be of any future help, please do not hesitate to let us know.

Sincerely,

John K. Hudzik, Ph.D.
Chair, UCRIHS

JKH/sar

cc: J. Suehr

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BIBLIOGRAPHY

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