



1980

An Analysis of the Background Characteristics and Management Styles of the Mobile Superintendents in the Counties of Cook and DuPage

Edward S. Noyes
Loyola University Chicago

Follow this and additional works at: https://ecommons.luc.edu/luc_diss



Part of the [Education Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Noyes, Edward S., "An Analysis of the Background Characteristics and Management Styles of the Mobile Superintendents in the Counties of Cook and DuPage" (1980). *Dissertations*. 1926.

https://ecommons.luc.edu/luc_diss/1926

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Theses and Dissertations at Loyola eCommons. It has been accepted for inclusion in Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Loyola eCommons. For more information, please contact ecommons@luc.edu.



This work is licensed under a [Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial-No Derivative Works 3.0 License](#).
Copyright © 1980 Edward S. Noyes

AN ANALYSIS OF THE BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS
AND MANAGEMENT STYLES OF THE MOBILE
SUPERINTENDENTS IN THE COUNTIES
OF COOK AND DUPAGE

by

Edward S. Noyes

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School
of Loyola University of Chicago in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Education

January
1980

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author wishes to express his sincere appreciation to his dissertation advisor, Dr. Robert L. Monks, who consistently provided him with the direction and encouragement needed. Gratitude is expressed to Drs. Melvin P. Heller and Max A. Bailey, members of his dissertation committee, for their assistance throughout the development of the study.

The author is especially grateful to his wife, Rene, and son Jeffrey, for the consistent patience and understanding which they provided throughout.

VITA

Edward S. Noyes, son of John and Joan Noyes, was born August 1, 1946, in Chicago, Illinois.

He was graduated from Leo High School, Chicago, Illinois, in June 1964. In 1968 he received a Bachelor of Science degree, majoring in history and education, and minoring in English and sociology, from Northern Illinois University, and in 1972 he graduated from Roosevelt University of Chicago with a Master of Arts degree in school administration.

In 1968 the author was a teacher in District 205, Dolton, Illinois. From 1969 to 1972 the author was a teacher in District 152½, Hazel Crest, Illinois, and District 123, Oak Lawn, Illinois.

In 1972 the author was an educational specialist with the then Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction.

He became an administrator in Prairie-Hills School District 144, Hazel Crest, Illinois in July 1973, and has served in this capacity since that time.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
VITA	iii
LIST OF TABLES	vii
 Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Purpose of the Study	5
Justification of the Study	7
Methods and Procedures	8
Limitations of the Study	17
Definitions	18
II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND RESEARCH	23
Leadership Development: A Historical Review. The Trait Approach to the Study of Leadership	24
The Situational Approach to the Study of Leadership	30
Defining Leadership/Ideas Relative to Leadership Style	38
Selected Contingency Models of Leadership	43
The Fiedler Contingency Theory of Leadership	44
The Tannenbaum Leadership Process Model	49
The W. J. Reddin 3-D Theory of Leadership Effectiveness	55
Summary of Leadership Review	59

	Page
The Position of Superintendent of Schools and Factors Relating to Mobility	61
Mobility for the Educational Administrator/Superintendent . . .	71
Challenges and Pressures of the Superintendency	78
Summary of Position of Superintendent of Schools and Factors Related to Mobility	83
III. PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA . . .	85
Cell Number One and Cell Number Two Memberships	86
Explanation and Reason for Cell Membership Differentiation . . .	89
Description of Process to Determine Cell Membership	89
Cell Membership for Qualifying Superintendents	93
Experience and Background Variables- Relation to Cell Membership . . .	95
Experience as Principal Central Office Experience Other than Superintendent	100
Experience as Superintendent-Total Years-Current District	104
Out of State Administrative Experience	108
Non-Educational-Administratively Related Experiences	111
Highest Earned Degree	116
Summary of Experience and Background Variables and Relation to Mobility	121
Leadership/Management Styles of Qualifying Superintendents- Relation to Cell Membership . . .	125
Introduction and Use of Reddin Management Style Diagnosis Test .	125
Leadership/Management Style-Relation to Educational Training and Background Experience	135

	Page
Summary of Leadership/Management Style and Relation to Mobility . .	141
Reasons Given for Changing Superintendencies-Relation to Cell Membership	144
Reasons for Change	145
Summary of Reasons for Changing Superintendencies	152
Interview Data	154
Summary: Questionnaire and Interview Data-Relation to Mobility	156
 IV. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	 159
Introduction	159
Conclusions	161
Recommendations	165
 SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY	 168
 APPENDIX	 176

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page	
1.	Classification of Superintendents Into Cell Number one or Cell Number two Dependent Upon Student Enrollment of Current and Previous District	94
2-A.	Experience/Background Data From Questionnaire Number Two-All Members of Cell Number One (C ₁) and Cell Number Two (C ₂)	97
2-B.	Experience/Background Data From Questionnaire Number Two-All Members of Cell Number One (C ₁) and Cell Number Two (C ₂) Compared	109
3.	Highest Degree Earned: Superintendents from Cell Number One (C ₁) and Cell Number Two (C ₂)	117
4.	Hypothetical Profile of Mobile Superintendent: Experience/Background Data-Relationship to Mobility	120
5.	Leadership/Management Style of Qualifying Superintendents from Cell Number One (C ₁) and Cell Number Two (C ₂)	130
6.	Hypothetical Profile of Mobile Superintendent: Leadership/Management Style-Relationship to Mobility	134

Table	Page
7-A. Degree of Importance or Unimportance Given to Relationship Between Background Experience(s) and the Development of the Leadership/Management Style Most Often Used as a Superintendent	137
7-B. Degree of Importance or Unimportance Given to Relationship Between Educational Training and the Development of the Leadership/ Management Style Most Often Used as a Superintendent	139
8-A. Reasons (Specific and General) Given by Superintendents for Changing School Districts Cell Number One	145
8-B. Reasons (Specific and General) Given by Superintendents for Changing School Districts Cell Number Two	146

CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

The man who experiences great personal growth as a result of some accidental circumstance may have been ready to grow in any case. Pasteur said that chance favors the prepared mind. The man defeated by circumstance might have triumphed had he been made of other stuff. We all know individuals whose growth and learning can only be explained in terms of an inner drive, a curiosity, a seeking and exploring element in their personalities.¹

Of the many positions to be found in elementary and secondary public schools, none is more visible to the public, more associated with the strengths or weaknesses of local schools, and more directly responsible for the financing and management of all the district's schools than the superintendency. Selected most often by a board of citizens elected by voters from the local school district, superintendents not only execute the policies enacted by their board but also become sources of professional advice for their boards and communities.

¹John W. Gardner, EXCELLENCE: Can We be Equal and Excellent Too? (New York: Harper & Row, 1962), p. 140.

Often these suggestions concerning education are adopted but not infrequently the notions proffered by the superintendents are deemed unacceptable. Conflicts between superintendents and board or among superintendents, boards and communities are not rare. The careers of many public school superintendents are ones which reflect frequent changes among districts.

Mobility for the superintendency is a fact of life. It is brought about through the voluntary or involuntary movement of superintendents from one district to another, movement from the superintendency to some other position in the field of education or elsewhere, and retirement.

This study concentrated on the backgrounds, and on the management styles, of school superintendents who have achieved their positions through movement from one school system to another, thus demonstrating mobility.

A study by Richard O. Carlson, 1969, noted:

The tendency to change a school system in the first few years in office is not the same for both career and placebound superintendents. The difference seems to stem from several sources:

1. The career bound man has a higher commitment to the career of superintendent, a position the training for which stresses advancement in the educative process and "keeping up with the times."
2. The superintendent is only hired from within when the board defines the school as being properly

administered. An outsider is usually hired when the board is unhappy with the way the schools are administered. Thus the outsider often has a mandate from the board, but the insider does not.

3. It is at this point that the history of an outsider acts as a constraining force in respect to contemplated changes. Being without a mandate, and having been an understudy for a superintendent who satisfied the board, the placebound man is required to make a stronger case for his proposed changes than is the career bound type.²

As previously stated, mobility is very much a fact of life for those individuals functioning as superintendents. Carl J. Dolce, 1976, in his study makes the observation:

Superintendents, as well as the entire class of administrators in both the public and private sectors, are under siege. Some of the reasons for this, says Dolce, are based on improved communication and transportation technology and thus heightened public awareness and reaction to events. Also the increase in the number of special interest groups, as well as the consolidation of school districts into larger units, has emphasized the problems caused by competition between these groups. The resulting conflicts create unstable political situations that affect both the public and private sectors. Public and private administration today is becoming even more complex. Today's superintendents are often "outsiders" with no established support in the community, so replace-

²Richard O. Carlson, "Career and Place Bound Superintendents: Some Sociological Differences" (Eugene: Oregon University, ERIC Reproduction Service, ED 031 782, 1969), p. 3.

ment of a superintendent is relatively easy.³

Management/Leadership style is a major factor in the successful accomplishment, or lack of accomplishment, of the many tasks required of the superintendent.

Blanchard and Hersey stated:

The multiplicity of the role demands, requires today's educational administrator to be an adaptive leader; that is, an individual who has the ability to vary his behavior appropriately in differing situations.⁴

The research available on leadership styles is extensive. This research indicated that there are specific types of managerial styles which result from adaptation to a variety of forces: organizational structure, the administrator's personality and value structure, his concept of personal success, experiences both in and out of his managerial capacity, and the role expectations of others.

Given the factors of mobility, and the availabil-

³Carl J. Dolce, "Superintendents Under Siege--Get The Leaders", (paper presented at the 108th meeting of the American Association of School Administrators, Atlantic City, N. J., 20-23 February, 1976).

⁴Kenneth H. Blanchard and Paul Hersey, "Leadership Styles." The Best of ERIC, No. 5 Eugene: Oregon University ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 099 953, 1975), p. 305.

ity of varying leadership styles, and background characteristics, is there a tendency for individuals with certain backgrounds and leadership/management styles to demonstrate mobility?

Purpose of the Study

This study was designed to answer the previously stated question relative to the relationship between mobility and leadership styles and characteristics.

The study had three major purposes:

1. To determine if there is a relationship between management style and mobility.
 - A. Is there a relationship between a particular management style and mobility direction as measured by the Reddin Management Style Diagnosis Test?
 - B. How do the management styles of the members of cell number one and members of cell number two compare. Cell membership is defined in the section on Methods and Procedures which follows.
 - C. How do the management styles of the sample superintendents compare to the management

style of the hypothetical profile of the mobile superintendent?

2. To determine if a relationship exists between selected variables and mobility.
 - A. Prior building level experience
 - B. Prior central office experience
 - C. Advanced Degrees (Post Masters)
 - D. Extensive and prior experience as a Superintendent
 - E. Out of state administrative experience
 - F. Non-educational, but administratively related experience.
3. To examine the reasons why superintendents move from one school district to another.
 - A. What reasons do superintendents in cell number one convey for changing school districts?
 - B. What reasons do superintendents in cell number two convey for changing school districts?
 - C. How do the reasons for leaving given by the superintendents in cell number one and cell number two compare?

Justification of the Study

The study contributed to the body of knowledge concerning the superintendency. It provided for the first time, a hypothetical profile of the mobile superintendent, developed by a panel of experts, which was compared with actual data on the mobile superintendent that was compiled during the course of the study. The profile served as the basis for discriminating between those background characteristics and management styles which are common to superintendents in cell number one as compared to the background characteristics and management styles of superintendents in cell number two.

The area of career planning by school administrators was improved from the results of this study. The study provided administrators functioning within, and aspiring to the superintendency, with background characteristics and approaches to management which have tended to exemplify the mobile superintendent.

Those individuals currently functioning as superintendents can avail themselves of the content and implications of this study should they be contemplating a change in school districts. What are some of the identified influencing factors they should be cognizant of in

order for them to be considered and possibly appointed to superintendencies in school districts of varying size?

Career counseling by professors of educational administration has been enhanced by the results of this study. Information from the study allowed for specific kinds of guidance to be given to students, aspiring to, or currently functioning in administrative positions.

This study provided the necessary empirical data to be used in the development of training programs for those individuals aspiring to the superintendency. The career success of the identified mobile superintendents in the study, and their resultant increases in responsibility, salary and status within the field, would make training programs of this nature highly functional.

Methods and Procedures

In order to accomplish the purposes of this study, the following methods and procedures were utilized.

- A. The target population consisted of all current superintendents of elementary school districts in Cook County, Illinois (excluding the Chicago Public School System), and DuPage County, Illinois.

- B. The sample selection consisted of superintendents of elementary districts in Cook and DuPage Counties who met the following criteria: the superintendent must have evidenced mobility as a superintendent; previous superintendency must have been in an elementary school district.
- C. Reviewed the literature in the areas of leadership and management style, role of superintendent, and factors relating to mobility for those in leadership positions.
- D. The classification of the qualifying superintendents into cell number one or cell number two was required in order to determine the direction of mobility. Once the direction of mobility was determined, the data were compared to ascertain if there was a relationship between the management styles and selected variables of those superintendents in cell number one as compared with those superintendents in cell number two. The following procedures were used to determine whether qualifying superintendents would be in cell

number one or cell number two.

1. All superintendents who had changed school districts constituted the sample.
2. A ratio based upon the size of the new district, as compared to the size of the previous district in each case was computed.

Example

New District 4500 Ratio 3:00

Old District 1500

New District 4000 Ratio 2:00

Old District 2000

3. All ratios were rank ordered from largest to smallest.
4. The median ratio was determined.
5. Those superintendents above the median ratio were referred to as members of cell number one. Those superintendents below the median were referred to as members of cell number two.
6. The purpose of the study was to determine if a relationship does exist between selected variables and cell membership.

- E. A panel of thirty superintendents was used to develop the hypothetical profile of the mobile superintendent. The profile was developed at the May 1979, meeting of the Bremen Association of School Administrators (BASA). The agenda for the meeting, letter of request to each superintendent, and the original profile appear in Appendix A. The purpose of presenting the profile to this panel of superintendents was to establish an objective benchmark as this group acted as a control comparison group in reacting to the selected probe areas of the profile. Later in the study, qualifying superintendents were asked to react to these selected probe areas also.
- F. Questionnaire Number I was mailed in early July, 1979, and consisted of the following.
1. It was introduced with a cover letter stating the background of the writer as a doctoral candidate from Loyola University of Chicago, the purpose of the study, the anonymity of all respondents, and that a small number of those respondents quali-

fyng for inclusion in the study would be randomly selected for interview. All superintendents within the target population were asked to return the questionnaire. A self-addressed, stamped return envelope was enclosed in the mailing. Of the 147 elementary districts in Cook and DuPage Counties, 110 responded to this first request.

2. A request was made for the information necessary to determine if the respondent qualified for inclusion in the study. That is, has the superintendent changed superintendencies, and was the previous superintendency in an elementary school district. Also requested was information concerning the enrollment of the superintendent's current district, and the enrollment of the previous district during the final year as superintendent.

G. Questionnaire Number II was mailed in late July, 1979. This questionnaire was mailed only to those superintendents who qualified

for inclusion in the study. The questionnaire included a fact sheet which asked for the following: years of experience as a principal; years of experience as an administrator other than principal or superintendent; years of experience as a superintendent; years of experience as superintendent in present district; years of out of state administrative experience; years of non-educational, but administratively related experiences and highest educational degree earned. The fact sheet also required the superintendent to rate his background experiences and educational training relative to their importance in the development of the managerial style most often used as a superintendent. This rating was done on a six point scale, ranging from extremely inadequate to extremely adequate. According to the original proposal for the study, at least sixteen superintendents were to qualify for inclusion in the study for interview purposes. The second mailing was made to the sixteen qualifying superintendents requesting that

the fact sheet be completed, and that an interview time would be necessary.

- H. The sixteen qualifying superintendents were scheduled for interviews beginning August 22, 1979, with the final interview on September 20, 1979. All superintendents did arrange their schedules to allow for the interview. Interviews lasted an average of one hour and fifteen minutes.
1. The purposes of the interview were as follows:
- a) To administer the Reddin Management Style Diagnosis Test
 - b) To validate the questionnaire
 - c) To explain and review with the interviewed superintendents the specific elements of the hypothetical profile
 - d) To ascertain the validity of each aspect of the hypothetical profile based on the reactions of those superintendents interviewed
 - e) To determine the various reasons that these interviewed superintendents have

changed school districts

- f) To probe and clarify tangential areas from the questionnaire
- I. Letters of appreciation were sent to all superintendents qualifying for inclusion in the study. Accompanying this letter was a summary of the findings and the superintendent's managerial style profile.
- J. The data received from the questionnaires and interviews were tabulated.
- K. The data were analyzed using the following procedures.
 - 1. The validity of the hypothetical profile of the mobile superintendent was compared with the actual data from the interviews and the questionnaire. Each aspect of the hypothetical profile was treated separately to test its validity.
 - 2. The percentage of superintendents from cell number one possessing each background characteristic was determined.
 - 3. The percentage of superintendents from cell number two possessing each background

characteristic was determined.

4. The number of superintendents from cell number one possessing each background characteristic was compared to the number of superintendents from cell number two possessing each background characteristic using the Chi Square Technique (.05 Alpha) to determine if a significant difference occurred.
 5. An analysis of variance was conducted utilizing a T-test (.05 Alpha) to determine if there was a correlation between various leadership styles and cell membership.
 6. The data were analyzed using statistical and narrative analysis. The data were presented narratively and statistically with the use of graphs, charts, and tables, where appropriate.
- L. Conclusions, recommendations, and implications were made.

Limitations of the Study

The limitations of this study were those inherent in using a mailed questionnaire and personal interview.

The construct and content validity of the questionnaire was tested on a panel of school administrators. Their suggestions were noted and necessary adjustments made to remove ambiguous and unclear wording.

A structured interview schedule was used to standardize the interview and to gain added measure from the responses of the subjects. Deobold VanDalen supported the use of interviews. He noted that respondents are often more open in face-to-face discussion when only written contact is made.⁵ Lawrence S. Meyers and Neal E. Grossen pointed out some limitations of interviews. They noted that securing information during an interview is limited by the bias, age, and sex of the interviewer as well as the environment where the interview is held.⁶

⁵Deobold VanDalen, Understanding Educational Research (New York: McKay Co., 1971), p. 123.

⁶Lawrence S. Meyers and Neal E. Grossen, Behavioral Research: Theory, Procedure, and Design (San Francisco: W. H. Freeman and Co., 1974), pp. 70-71.

The recording and analysis of data secured from an interview is also a limitation because they involve the subjective interpretation of the researcher.

Additional limitations of the study included:

1. Only elementary district superintendents in Cook and DuPage Counties were used in the target population.
2. In order to qualify for inclusion in the study, the superintendent must have held a previous superintendency in an elementary school district.
3. The minimum number of superintendents, sixteen, qualified for inclusion in the sample and thus for an interview.
4. The willingness of the superintendents to participate in the study.
5. The honesty and candidness of superintendents to discuss their reasons(s) for changing superintendencies.

Definitions

The following terms used in the study are defined as follows:

1. Elementary school district: a school district in which no provision is made for public school beyond the elementary grades.⁷
2. Superintendent of Schools: The chief executive and advisory officer charged with the direction of schools in a local school administration as in a district . . .⁸
3. Leadership Style: a relatively enduring set of behaviors which is characteristic of the individual regardless of the situation. It focuses on what the leader does rather than what he is.⁹
4. Mobility: Movement from one school district superintendency to another.
5. Cell number one: Those superintendents above the median ratio. This ratio was based upon the size of the current district, as compared to the size of the previous district.

⁷Carter V. Good, ed., The Dictionary of Education, 3rd ed. (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., Inc. 1973), p. 574.

⁸Ibid., p. 571

⁹Fred E. Fiedler and Martin M. Chemers, Leadership and Effective Management, (Glenview, IL: Scott Foresman and Co., 1974). p. 40.

6. Cell number two: Those superintendents below the median ratio. This ratio was based upon the size of the current district, as compared to the size of the previous district.
7. Hypothetical profile of the mobile superintendent: A profile of the mobile superintendent which served as the basis for discriminating between those background characteristics and management/leadership styles which are common to superintendents in cell number one as compared to background characteristics and management/leadership styles of superintendents in cell number two.

The completion of the study required that Chapter II, Review of Related Literature and Research, provide information appropriate to the purposes of the study. The review was conducted in the areas of leadership . . . its development, and various styles; the position of superintendent of schools . . . its origins and history; and research completed on mobility for those in leadership positions . . . specifically, the superintendent of schools.

Chapter III, Presentation and Analysis of Data,

presented and analyzed the data from three sources: questionnaires, interviews, and a management style instrument. The questionnaire responses, interview tapes, and management style instruments from qualifying superintendents in Cook and DuPage Counties, were presented and analyzed with the following questions to be considered:

1. Is there a relationship between management style and mobility?
2. Is there a relationship between certain selected variables and mobility?
3. Is there a relationship between the responses of superintendents in cell number one, as compared with the responses of superintendents in cell number two?

In addition, Chapter III contains an analysis of all data from qualifying superintendents, as compared to data from the hypothetical profile of the mobile superintendent.

Finally, Chapter III analyzes questionnaires, interviews, and management style data for the sixteen qualifying superintendents, eight of whom were in cell number one and the remaining eight superintendents in cell number two.

Chapter IV presents the conclusions and recommendations of the study resulting from the review of the literature as applied to the questions addressed in the study and analysis of questionnaire responses and interview data.

CHAPTER II

I. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND RESEARCH

The purpose of the study was to determine if a relationship existed between management styles, selected background variables, and the mobility patterns of selected, qualifying superintendents. The purpose of the study was accomplished by comparing the selected background variables and management styles of superintendents to a hypothetical profile of the mobile superintendent. All data were gathered through questionnaires, the use of a management style diagnosis test, and interviews with qualifying superintendents.

In Chapter II, the literature in the field was reviewed in two parts: First, leadership; and Second, the position of superintendent of schools, and factors relating to mobility.

The review of the literature did not attempt to present a chronological history of the evaluation of leadership management styles, or all aspects of the su-

perintendency, but rather to illustrate that in the leadership area particularly, there has been little change over the last several decades. Therefore, where appropriate, older quotes were interspersed with more recent statements to emphasize the rather static nature of the research in these areas.

II. Leadership Development: A Historical Review:

The Trait Approach To The Study of Leadership

Early studies of leadership reflected the trait approach in an attempt to distinguish leaders from non-leaders. Trait authorities have contended that leaders possess certain traits or characteristics which allow an individual to become a leader and to function successfully as the leader of a group. Researchers have also attempted to compare recognized leaders and, by analysis of the behavior, to discover performance traits held in common by leaders. Lindesmith and Strauss have explained:

Leadership is commonly thought of in terms of leadership qualities. In taking over this common-sense notion, social psychologists have been led to seek those traits of personality that are most

usually associated with being a leader.¹

In 1940, Bird reported twenty leader studies in which seventy-nine traits were identified related to leadership. "Among the traits so identified were: courage, originality, tact, self-reliance, enthusiasm, fairness, self-confidence, sympathy, extroversion, sense of humor, initiative, and intelligence."²

A review of studies of traits reported by Stogdill in 1948, resulted in the identification of five major classifications of leadership characteristics.

1. Capacity (intelligence, alertness, verbal facility, originality, judgement).
2. Achievement (scholarship, knowledge, athletic accomplishment).
3. Responsibility (dependability, initiative, persistence, aggressiveness, self-confidence, desire to excell).
4. Participation (activity, sociability, cooperation, adaptability, humor).

¹Alfred R. Lindesmith and Anselm L. Strauss, Social Psychology (New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston, 1941), p. 274.

²Charles Bird, Social Psychology (New York: D. Appleton Century Co., 1940), p. 379.

5. Status (socio-economic position, popularity).³

Stogdill stated that, "Characteristics may vary with the situation."⁴ Although Stogdill established a classification scheme for leadership traits, traits were not found to be consistently related to leadership.

Stogdill further emphasized:

The evidence suggests that leadership is a relation that exists between persons in a social situation, and that persons who are leaders in one situation may not necessarily be leaders in other situations. Must it then be assumed that leadership is entirely incidental, haphazard, and unpredictable? Not at all.⁵

Jennings observes:

The individuals choice behavior, in contrast to his social expansiveness, appears as an expression of needs which are, so to speak, so 'central' to his personality that he must strive to fulfill them whether or not the possibility of fulfilling them is at hand.⁶

Similar to the observation made by Jennings is

³Ralph M. Stogdill, "Personal Factors Associated With Leadership: A Survey of the Literature," The Journal of Psychology 25 (1948): 64.

⁴Ibid., p. 65.

⁵Ibid.

⁶H. H. Jennings, Leadership and Isolation (New York: Loughmaus Green, 1943), p. 55.

That of Newstetter, Feldstein, and Newcomb who report:

Being accepted or rejected is not determined by the cordiality or antagonism of the individuals treatment of his fellows, nor evidently, is the individual's treatment of his fellows much affected by the degree to which he is already being accepted or rejected by them. Their treatment of him is related to their acceptance or rejection of him. Their treatment of him is, of course, a reaction to some or all of his behaviors, but we have been completely unsuccessful in attempting to measure what these behaviors are.⁷

Stogdill had reported:

Fifteen or more studies suggested leadership to be related to intelligence, scholarship, dependability, activity, and social participation. In more than ten studies, leadership was found to be related to sociability, initiative, persistence, procedural ability, self-confidence, alertness, insight into situations, cooperativeness, popularity, adaptability, and verbal facility. Other characteristics were suggested to apply only to specific groups such as athletic ability to boy play groups. The characteristics identified by Stogdill which had the highest correlations with leadership were originality, popularity, socialbility, judgement, aggressiveness, desire to excell, humor, cooperativeness, leveliness, and athletic ability.⁸

Dissatisfactions and criticisms of a traits or characteristics approach to leadership research developed.

⁷W. I. Newstetter, M. J. Feldstein, and T. M. Newcomb, Group Adjustment: A study in Experimental Sociology, (Cleveland: Western Reserve University, 1938), p. 78.

⁸Stogdill, pp. 34-64.

Tyler, cited in Hencley, pointed out:

The studies had not been able to determine the relative importance of different traits and that various traits had not been shown to be mutually exclusive. Such studies were also found to present contradictory evidence showing that leaders possessing strikingly dissimilar traits have been successful and effective leaders.⁹

Tyler further reported:

The early work of psychologists sought to find the characteristic traits of the effective leaders. The only trait which was found almost universally among leaders of business, education, politics, and the military was higher-than-average level of energy. No traits of personality or of intellectual functioning were identified. Efforts to discover other traits which might be common to leaders in a single field were not successful.¹⁰

Daniel E. Griffiths noted:

Lists of personality traits, while derived from self-report tests of personality and descriptions of leaders by superiors and subordinates, did not result in the development of a suitable taxonomy. Such information frequently included mutually contradictory traits.¹¹

⁹Stephen P. Hencley, Lloyd E. McCleary, and J. H. McGrath, The Elementary School Principalship (New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., 1970), p. 110.

¹⁰Ibid.

¹¹Daniel E. Griffiths, Behavioral Science and Educational Administration (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1964), p. 126.

Regarding the trait approach, Jennings concluded, "Fifty years of study have failed to produce one personality trait or set of qualities that can be used to discriminate leaders and non-leaders."¹² Gouldner identified five inadequacies of trait approach leadership studies. The inadequacies were:

Those proposing trait lists usually do not suggest which of the traits are most important and which least; some of the traits mentioned in a single list are not mutually exclusive; trait studies usually do not discriminate between facilitating ascent to leadership and those enabling it to be maintained; most trait studies raise questions concerning the organization of behavior, the range of recurring behavior patterns manifested by the individuals; the study of personalities of leaders in terms of traits involves certain debatable assumptions regarding the nature of personality.¹³

Gibb reported his analysis and description of leadership:

The effort emphasized the consistent failure to find any generalized personality syndrome typical of leaders in any or all leadership settings to have resulted from inadequate measurement, lack of comparability of data from different kinds of research, and the inability to describe leadership

¹²Eugene E. Jennings, "The Anatomy of Leadership," Management of Personal Quarterly 1 (Autumn 1961): 403

¹³Alvin W. Gouldner, Studies In Leadership (New York: Harper & Bros., 1950), p. 34.

adequately.¹⁴

The Situational Approach to The
Study of Leadership

The trait approach was followed by the situation approach to the study of leadership. "Almost uniformly the summarizers of the trait approach recommended that if anything, their research showed that leadership is dependent upon a given situation,"¹⁵ noted Robert L. Ebell.

J. G. Geier made the following observation regarding the situational aspect of leadership:

The situation approach recognized that qualities of the leader were variously elicited, valued, and perceived as a function of different group settings. The point of view did not deny the importance of traits, but affirmed that the situation helped to determine which were considered to be more important than others.¹⁶

Douglas C. Basil focused on the situational needs of given groups.

¹⁴Cecil A. Gibb, Leadership Handbook of Social Psychology, ed. Gardner Lindzey (Cambridge, Mass.: Addison Wesley Publishing Co., 1954), p. 205.

¹⁵Robert L. Ebell, Encyclopedia of Educational Research (New York: Macmillan Co., 1969), p. 700.

¹⁶J. G. Geier, "Trait Approach to the Study of Leadership in Small Groups," Journal of Communication 17 (December 1967): 322-23.

Situation theorists contended each situation called for a leader possessing appropriate leadership traits unique to the situation. The theory accepted the findings of group dynamics experts, contending that any number of leaders could exist within a given group, and that a given group would choose a particular leader for its particular needs.¹⁷

Athos described the situational approach as follows:

The assumption is made in this approach that the demands of particular situations are what determine the kind of leadership needed. The situational approach emphasized more specific environmental and situational factors, such as physical phenomena, time, individual and group goals, cultural factors, and organizational factors.¹⁸

Davey further described situational leadership by stating:

The essence of the situational approach was that a person achieves leadership status by virtue of his superior ability to contribute to the group needs and goals at a particular time. But, if the goals and activities of the group change, then the leader may find it difficult to maintain his position.¹⁹

¹⁷Douglas C. Basil, Leadership Skills for Executive Action (New York: American Management Association, 1971), p. 55.

¹⁸Anthony G. Athos and Robert E. Coffey, Behavior in Organizations: A Multidimensional View (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice Hall, 1968), p. 163.

¹⁹A. G. Davey, "Leadership in Relation to Group Achievement; Fiedlers Model of Leadership," Educational Research 11 (June 1969): 186.

Doll contends:

Social situations determine the nature and quality of leadership needed, that is, leadership which succeeds in one situation would not necessarily do so in another. It had been pointed out that each situation has within it a particular structure of interpersonal relations including the organization within which the leader works is special and different; tasks to be performed are peculiar or particularized; and the whole culture within which the work is to be done has its own characteristics. Given a stable set of leadership traits, the traits would have to bend to meet differences in situations.²⁰

There are three primary situational demands that influence leadership:

First, a leader is constrained by time in his decision making process. Should a manager's work area burst into flames, he could not seek opinions and suggestions from his subordinated. The situation requires an immediate decision and action. Therefore, in a crisis situation a task-oriented leadership style might be most appropriate.²¹

Hersey and Blanchard emphasized the aspect of time: "With a longer period of time for the decision making process, a manager might find a consideration

²⁰Ronald C. Doll, Leadership to Improve Schools (Worthington, Ohio: C. A. Jones Publishing Co., 1972), p. 16.

²¹William H. Hendrix, Contingency Approaches to Leadership. A Review and Synthesis, 1975 (Texas: Lackland Air Force Base, ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 130 013, 1976 Air Force Human Relations Lab), p. 10.

oriented style more appropriate."²²

"A second situation factor influencing leadership is the organizational level of a leadership position."²³

Katz and Kahn found, ". . .that the leadership traits required and the style employed depend upon the organizational level of the position."²⁴ Randle stated, ". . . that certain leadership traits, such as motivation, increased in importance as one goes up the managerial hierarchy."²⁵

"A third situational factor having an affect on leadership effectiveness is that of the subordinates in the organization."²⁶

²²P. Hersey and K. H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, 2d ed. (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice Hall, 1972): 120-21

²³Hendrix, p. 10.

²⁴D. Katz and R. L. Kahn, The Social Psychology of Organizations (New York: Wiley, 1966), pp. 118-19. S. M. Nealey and M. R. Blood, "Leadership Performance of Nursing Supervisors at Two Organizational Levels," Journal of Applied Psychology 52, (1968): 414-22. and C. W. Randle, "How to Identify Promotable Executives," Harvard Business Review 34 (3) (1956): 122-34

²⁵Randle p. 86.

²⁶Hendrix, p. 10.

Vroom found that opportunities for participation in decision making are greeted differently by subordinates with differing needs on authoritarianism and independence dimensions.²⁷

Fiedler has explained:

1. Group effectiveness is contingent upon the appropriateness of the leader style for the situation
2. The appropriateness of the leader style depends on the degree to which the group situation allows the leader to exert influence, and
3. Because leadership style is difficult to change to work situational variables²⁸

Further studies have suggested the contention that characteristics of leader behavior are related in the same way to the social situation.

Crowley contrasted the traits of leaders in criminal, military, and student groups. Tests were administered to twenty-eight leaders and followers in three group situations. Crowley found that, while leaders in each situation possessed traits differing from followers, the various types of leaders did not possess a single trait in common.²⁹

Caldwell and Wellman studied seven characteristics

²⁷ V. H. Vroom, Some Personality Determinants of the Effects on Participation (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice Hall, 1960), p. 115.

²⁸ Lashbrook and Lashbrook, p. 6.

²⁹ John K. Hemphill, Situational Factors in Leadership, Monograph No. 32 (Columbus, Ohio: The Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, 1949), p. 9.

of child leaders in six types of school activities, including those of class president, student council members, staff members of school magazines, athletic group captains, science club officers, and citizenship representatives.

The seven characteristics studied were mental age, intelligence quotient, scholarship, extroversion, height, age, and physical achievement. Leaders were compared with one another by type of activity. The investigators found athletic leaders to be taller than other types of leaders, and to be more excelling in physical achievement. Staff members of the school paper tended to be cautious, deliberative, and sensitive. The student leaders were found to be shorter than the average of the leaders and to rank high in scholarship. Science club officers displayed high ability in science and a slight tendency to high general scholarship. Girls selected as officers of a science club were discovered to be higher than average in intelligence and scholarship. No consistent or pronounced differences were noted among class presidents, student council members or citizenship representatives.³⁰

In 1947, a study was conducted in the Army Air Force to determine the types of leadership exhibited by flying personnel. Anecdotes describing instances of leadership exhibited were collected from flying officers with experience as combat pilots after having returned to the United States. The anecdotes described the behavior of superior officers in administrative situations, and subordinate officers in administrative situations, superior

³⁰ Ibid., p. 10.

officers in emergency situations, and subordinate officers in emergency situations. Twelve hundred anecdotes were analyzed in terms of behavior which constituted the leadership action described.

The analysis of anecdotes revealed that the frequency with which certain items were cited varied among the four situations. Superior officers were more frequently cited for disregard of personal welfare, while subordinate officers were more frequently cited for skill in flying. "Interest in maintaining proficiency in others was mentioned twice as frequently of superior officers in administrative situations as in any of the other three categories of leader situations."³¹ More recent researchers have found situation studies to be less than satisfactory in many ways. Hemphill, in identifying specific shortcomings of situational factors studies, has concluded:

While many investigators have recognized the importance of situational factors in leadership, their efforts have, for the most part, been confined to the studies of the personal characteristics of individuals designated as leaders.

A few studies in which situational factors have been given more consideration have yielded disproportionately little information about how factors in the

³¹Ibid., p. 12

situation are related to leadership, but they do lend strong support to the view that the situation must be taken into account.

One stumbling block in the approach to the study of situational factors in leaders appears to be the lack of a method of coming to grips with important aspects of the social situations.³²

Situational studies resulted in still further modifications of ideas relative to leadership. Knickerbocker defined leadership as a "functional relationship which is created when a leader is perceived by a group as controlling means for satisfying individual and/or group needs."³³

Knickerbocker emphasized:

The leader was accepted as a means to increase need satisfaction or as a means to prevent decreased need satisfaction. Functional leadership places an emphasis not on a fixed set of personal characteristics nor on particular kinds of leadership behavior, but upon circumstances under which groups of people might integrate and organize activities toward objectives, and upon ways in which integration and organization might be achieved. The leadership function has been analyzed and understood in terms of a dynamic relationship.³⁴

³²Ibid., p. 13.

³³Irving Knickerbocker, "Leadership: A Conception and Some Implications," in The Study of Leadership, ed. by C. G. Browne and Thomas S. Cohn (Danville, IL.: The Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc., 1958), p. 5.

³⁴Ibid., p. 6.

"A leader may acquire followers, or a group of people may create a leader, but the significant aspects of the process can only be understood in dynamic relationship terms."³⁵

Defining Leadership/Ideas Relative To

Leadership Style

Carter developed four ideas or constructs to describe the meaning of the concept of leadership.

The first idea involved the polarization of members of the group around a person. The second idea considered the leader as the individual able to lead the group toward goals. Carter explained the approach as rather common, but from a research point of view, it provided an unsatisfactory definition due to the determination and number of group goals. The third construct defined leadership in terms of sociometric choice, that is, the leader is the person selected by the members of the group to be the leader. Carter pointed to a weakness in the definition. While the leader was known, the judgements as to why the leader was selected were subjective and numerous. The fourth definition was that of leadership in terms of leader behavior. Leadership behaviors are any behaviors the experimenter wished to so designate or, more generally, any behaviors which experts in this area wish to consider as leadership behaviors. Carter further identified two advantages in using the leader-behavior approach: (1) it allows the experimenter to define with considerable exactness the particular acts considered to be signs of leadership; (2) in a given experiment, one set of behaviors may be defined as a leadership act, while in an experiment involving a different type of situation, a second set of acts may quite properly

³⁵ Ibid., p. 7.

be called leadership behaviors.³⁶

The definitions of leadership are many:

"Leadership is the process of influencing group activities toward goal setting and goal achievement."³⁷

"The leader is the one who succeeds in getting others to follow him."³⁸

"The leader is the man who comes closest to realizing the norms the group values highest; this conformity gives him his high rank, which attracts people and implies the right to assume control of the group."³⁹

"Leadership is the exercise of authority and the making of decisions."⁴⁰

³⁶Launor F. Carter, "On Defining Leadership," The Study of Leadership, ed. C. G. Browne and Thomas S. Cohn (Danville IL.: The Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc., 1958). p. 22.

³⁷Stogdill, p. 38.

³⁸W. H. Cowley, "Three Distinctions in the Study of Leaders," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 23 (1928). p. 145.

³⁹G. C. Homans, The Human Group, (Chicago: Harcourt Brace, Jovanovich, 1950). p. 8.

⁴⁰R. Dubin, Human Relations in Administration: The Sociology of Organization, with Readings and Cases, (New York: Prentice Hall, 1951). p. 3.

"The leader is the person who creates the most effective change in group performance."⁴¹

"Leadership is the initiation of acts that result in a consistent pattern of group interaction directed toward the solution of mutual problems."⁴²

Fiedler and Chemers address the commonality of these leadership definitions in two aspects:

First that leadership is a relationship between people in which influence and power are unevenly distributed on a legitimate basis. The power may be given to the leader by the consent of the group members, by a contractual work agreement, or by law, but it is his to exercise. Second, there cannot be leaders in isolation. . . leaders must have someone following them.⁴³

Ralph White and Ronald Lippitt specify that there are three types of leadership styles: "authoritarian, demo-

⁴¹R. B. Cattell, "New Concepts for Measuring Leadership in Terms of Group Syntality," Human Relations 4 (1951). p. 162.

⁴²J. K. Hemphill, Second Preliminary Report on A Proposed Theory of Leadership in Small Groups (Columbus Ohio: Ohio State University,)(1965). p. 11.

⁴³Martin M. Chemers and Fred E. Fiedler, Leadership and Effective Management (Glenview IL.: Scott-Foresman and Co., 1974). p. 4.

cratic, and laissez-faire."⁴⁴

Hubert Bonner specified two additional leadership styles which are stressed in the literature: "bureaucratic, and charismatic."⁴⁵

Robert G. Owens suggested that the leader can select from a repertoire of four key methods to influence or direct the group:

1. Force
The force available to the leader can come from various sources. The administrator's official status and position with the school's bureaucracy is in itself often powerful enough to assure compliance by staff members
2. Paternalism
This method tends to reduce the visibility of the leader's power. Influence tends to center around the expectation that staff members will be loyal to and show respect for the administrator by complying with his wishes
3. Bargaining
This type of leadership suggests a reciprocity agreement whereby staff members will gain certain satisfactions in return for deference to the administrator's leadership
4. Mutual Means
This leadership method is one in which both the group and the leader have identical objectives; this congruence, of course, obviates the need

⁴⁴Ronald Lippitt and Ralph White, "Leader Behavior and Member Reaction in Three 'Social Climates' quoted in Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander," Group Dynamics (New York: Harper and Row, 1960). p. 134.

⁴⁵Hubert Bonner, Group Dynamics (New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1959). p. 134.

for the use of force or power to influence the group.⁴⁶

Literature and research in the area of leadership style indicated concern over whether particular styles can be changed at all.

"Leadership styles are manifestations of personality, and personalities are difficult to change."⁴⁷

The difficulty inherent in changing leadership style was emphasized by Fiedler . . . "who advocates changing situations to fit the leaders' style. An example of this approach would be the use of job rotation in the military and private industry."⁴⁸

Amitai Etziona made the following recommendation relative to leadership style:

We found that persons have deep-seated preferences in their work behavior that are very difficult to change, and we conclude that it may be unethical

⁴⁶Robert G. Owens, Organizational Behavior in Schools (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1970). p. 135.

⁴⁷Bernard Bass, Leadership, Psychology and Organizational Behavior (New York: Harper and Row, 1960). p.83.

⁴⁸Fred D. Fiedler, "The Trouble with Leadership Training is that it Doesn't Train Leaders", Psychology Today 10 (February 1973). p. 38.

to try to change them. Situations should be altered rather than people.⁴⁹

Sexton and Switzer admitted to the very likely possibility that leadership styles, being linked to personality, are very difficult to change:

They see the problem as being artificial in trying to use a style that rubs one's personality the wrong way. The danger of attempting to misrepresent . . . is that in today's era, dishonesty in leadership is pathetically transparent. There is no categorically 'correct' style. Instead the modern educational leader should know which style is better in which situations and should be able to draw from both poles at will. By poles, a reference is made to the leadership style continuum with task styles at one end and relationship at the other.⁵⁰

Selected Contingency Models of Leadership

The contingency approach is referred to by Thomas J. Sergiovanni: "This contingency or situational approach to training represents a definite improvement over those of the past that tended to prescribe a best approach to

⁴⁹Amitai Etzioni, "Human Beings are Not Very Easy To Change After All," Saturday Review, June 3, 1972, p. 47.

⁵⁰Michael J. Sexton and Karen Dawn Dill Switzer, "Educational Leadership: No Longer A Potpourri," Educational Leadership 35,(October, 1977), 24.

leadership suitable to all situations."⁵¹

A. The Fiedler Contingency Theory
of Leadership

Hollander made the following observations relative to leadership style and the Fiedler Contingency Model:

Today there is a resurgence of interest in the characteristics of people who fill organizational roles. Especially in the case of those occupying leader roles, considerations of style are significant, even though the situational approach to leadership has been dominant for the past two decades or more. Fiedler is among those researchers concerned with leadership style. Fiedler's Contingency Model is probably the best example of an attempt to integrate individual characteristics with structural and task properties of the situation.⁵²

Hendrix elaborated on the use of the Fiedler Contingency Model:

Fiedler has proposed that environmental situations can be ordered in their degree of favorability. His measure of leadership style involves an instrument which assesses the leader's esteem for his 'least preferred co-worker' (LPC). In completing Fiedler's LPC instrument, a leader is asked to think of all persons with whom he has worked. The leader is then

⁵¹Thomas J. Sergiovanni, "Is Leadership the Next Great Training Robbery," Education Leadership 36, (March 1979). 389.

⁵²Edwin P. Hollander, "Style, Structure, and Setting in Organizational Leadership" Administrative Science Quarterly 16, (March 1971) 2.

asked to describe the one person with whom he has found it most difficult to cooperate, that is, the person who has been his least preferred co-worker. The LPC need not be someone with whom the subject is working at the time, but any person with whom he has worked at any point in time.⁵³

Fiedler has indicated that individuals receiving high LPC scores differ from those receiving low LPC scores in that they tend to seek different needs in the group situation.

Individuals who perceive their LPC's in a relatively favorable manner, that is, high LPC's gain satisfaction and self-esteem from successful interpersonal relations. Individuals who perceive their LPC's in a relatively unfavorable manner, that is low LPC's, gain satisfaction and self-esteem from successful task performance.⁵⁴

Which leadership style, according to the Fiedler Contingency Model, is most effective?

The leadership style depends upon the situations, and the situation in Fiedler's model is defined in terms of the favorability of the situation for the leader. For Fiedler, favorability of environmental situations depends upon three characteristics. These characteristics are (1) leader-member situations,

⁵³Hendrix, p. 17.

⁵⁴F. E. Fiedler, "Note on the Methodology of the Oraen, Orris, and Alvares Studies Testing the Contingency Model", Journal of Applied Psychology 55 (1971) 203.

(2) task structure, and (3) position power.⁵⁵

Hendrix defined each of Fiedler's Characteristics of environmental situations as follows:

1. Leader-member relations has been proposed by Fiedler as the most important of the three characteristics in determining one's leadership influence. The leader-members' relation characteristic is characterized as the degree to which a leader's group members trust and like him and are willing to follow his guidance. This characteristic has usually been measured by either: (a) a sociometric technique which asks group members to name the most influential person in their group or the man they would most like to have as a leader, or (b) a group atmosphere scale indicating the degree to which a leader feels accepted by a group.
2. The second most important characteristic according to Fiedler, is the task structure. Task structure is the degree to which a task is spelled out in detail for a group, and can be accomplished according to a detailed set of standard operating instructions. The rationale behind this characteristic is that vague and ambiguous or unstructured tasks make it difficult for the leader to exert leadership influence because neither he nor his subordinates know exactly what has to be accomplished or how it is to be done. This characteristic has been measured on the basis of four scales: (a) goal clarity, or the degree to which the task's desired outcome is specified; (b) decision verifiability, or the objectivity with which the outcome can be measured; (c) solution specificity, or whether there are one or many possible solutions, and (d) goal-path multiplicity, or whether there are one or many possible methods for reaching the goal.
3. The third characteristic is position power. This

⁵⁵F. E. Fiedler, A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness (New York: McGraw-Hill 1967). p. 92.

is the power a leader possesses because of his position within the organizational hierarchy. It is separate from his personal attraction and ability to command respect and loyalty. The rationale associated with this characteristic is that leader who possesses the power to hire and fire, promote and demote, can obtain worker compliance under conditions which might be impossible for a leader this powerful. An eighteen item checklist filled out by an independent judge has been used to measure this characteristic. This characteristic has been considered to be the least important of the three dimensions.⁵⁶

Fiedler discussed the idea of organizational engineering which involves what the organization can do to change leadership performance, "It is almost always easier to change a man's work environment than it is to change his personality or his leadership style."⁵⁷

In order to change the leader's work situation so as to be more favorable to his leadership style Fiedler offered the following suggestions for organizational engineering:

1. In some organizations the individuals task assignment can be changed. Some leaders can be assigned structured tasks which have implicit or explicit instructions telling them what to do and how to do it . . . others may be assigned tasks which are nebulous and vague. The former are the

⁵⁶Hendrix, p. 18.

⁵⁷Fiedler, p. 255.

- typical production tasks. The latter are exempted by committee work, by the development of policy, and by tasks which require creativity.
2. The leader's position power can be changed. The leader can be given a higher rank and corresponding recognition. His position power can be modified by giving him subordinates who are equal to him in rank and prestige or subordinates who are two or three ranks below him. The leader can also be given subordinates who are expert in their specialities or subordinates who depend on the leader for guidance and instruction. The leader can be given the final say in all decisions affecting his group, or he can be required to make decisions in consultation with his subordinates, or that he even obtain their concurrence. All directives, communications, and information about organizational plans can be channelled through the leader only, giving him expert power, or it can be communicated directly to all of his subordinates.
 3. The leaders' members relations in the group can be changed. The leader can be assigned to work with groups whose members are very similar to him in attitude, opinion, technical background, race and cultural background. Or, the leader can be assigned subordinates with whom he differs in any one or several of those previously listed aspects. Finally, the leader can be assigned to a group in which the members have a tradition of getting along well with their supervisors, or to a group which has a history and a tradition of conflict.⁵⁸

Fiedler has also addressed the topic of training and experience.

". . . Training and experience results in improved performance of some leaders, while

⁵⁸Ibid., pp. 255-56.

decreasing that of others. Specifically, training and experience, that is, management training that results in leaders becoming more task motivated (low least preferred co-worker) would have a positive correlation between performance and training when leading in very favorable and unfavorable situations, and a negative correlation when performing in intermediate situations. Leaders whose training and experience resulted in their becoming more relationship-motivated (high least preferred co-worker) would perform better in intermediate favorability situations. However, their performance would decrease when placed in very unfavorable or favorable situations. Training for example technical training, which generally increases the favorability of the situation for both task-oriented leaders and relationship-oriented leaders could either cause an increase or decrease in performance.⁵⁹

In summary, Fiedler's model involved the leader with his personality and unique style and the situation. The situation is viewed in terms of favorableness, and different personality types perform better under different situations. Fiedler would select leaders for particular situations (or change the situation) since they lack the ability to widely vary their leadership style.

B. The Tannenbaum Leadership Process Model

Tannenbaum and Schmidt offered managers a way of

⁵⁹L. S. Csoka and F. E. Fiedler, "The Effect of Leadership Experience and Training in Structured Military Tasks", (ONR Technical Report No. 71-20. AD 729 237, July 1971 University of Washington). p. 156.

thinking about varying their leadership style. "Leadership behavior is depicted as falling along a continuum which ranges from that of a boss-centered leadership style to that of a subordinate-centered leadership style."⁶⁰

The alternatives available to a manager include:

(a) making a decision and announcing it; (b) selling his decision; (c) presenting his ideas and inviting questions; (d) presenting a tentative decision subject to change; (e) presenting the problem, getting suggestions and then making his own decision; (f) defining the limits and requesting the groups to make a decision within prescribed limits.⁶¹

Further specificity is given by Tannenbaum and Schmidt regarding the leadership behavior continuum.

. . . Depending upon the situation, the manager varies his behavior along this continuum. The factors that affect the style to be selected are the factors related to the manager himself, those related to other members of the group, and lastly, those related to the situation at hand. The manager chooses a leadership style that is consistent with his personality, his values, his confidence in his subordinates, his leadership inclinations, and his feelings of security in the situation.⁶²

⁶⁰Robert Tannenbaum and Warren H. Schmidt, "Harvard Business Review," 36 (March-April 1958): 95.

⁶¹Ibid., pp. 95-99.

⁶²Ibid., pp. 96-100.

The model directed attention to what the effective leader does.

. . . The effective leader bases his choice on his subordinates' individual needs for independence, their tolerance for ambiguity, their willingness to accept responsibility, their interest and expertise in the problem, their understanding of organizational goals, and their experience in decision making. Being an effective leader requires a manager to be aware of the situation, the people involved, himself, and the dynamic interactions of these factors. An effective leadership style is one that results in influencing behavior toward goal attainment.⁶³

Tannenbaum defined leadership as follows: "interpersonal influence, exercised in situations and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals."⁶⁴

The Tannenbaum leadership process model lists three basic components: The personality of the leader, the personality of the follower, and the characteristics of the situation."⁶⁵

Tannenbaum and Weschler stressed the importance of the leader's personality.

⁶³Ibid., p. 101.

⁶⁴R. Tannenbaum, I. R. Weschler, and F. Massarik, Leadership and Organization: A Behavioral Science Approach, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961) p. 24.

⁶⁵Ibid., p. 55.

. . . The leader's personality is composed of his needs, perceptual capacities, and action capacities. His needs and his perceptual capacities, that is, his potential for responding to a variety of external stimuli, affect his response to the stimuli which confront him. His overt response involves his action capacity which is defined as his capacity or potential for responding behaviorally under a variety of conditions. Once the leader receives stimuli from his followers and from the situation, then his needs, perceptual capacities, and action capacities as well as the quality and quantity of the stimuli received determine his perceptual flexibility. Perceptual flexibility is defined in the model as the range of stimuli of which the leader is cognitively aware in an actual leadership situation. It serves as a basis for influence attempts by the leader.⁶⁶

The Tannenbaum model developed the aspect of sensitivity and its relationship to leadership.

If there is agreement between the leader's perception of reality and that of some actual criterion of relevance, then the leader is said to be sensitive or possess sensitivity. Sensitivity is defined as accuracy of perception by the leader. There are two types of sensitivity: Social sensitivity involves the accuracy of perception of followers, other individuals, groups, organizations, and cultures; non-social sensitivity involves the accuracy of perception of physical phenomena. When no such agreement⁶⁷ exists, then the leader is said to be insensitive.

The term psychological map is used by Tannenbaum.

The leader with a certain degree of sensitivity

⁶⁶Robert Tannenbaum and Warren H. Schmidt, p. 98.

⁶⁷Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarik, p. 113.

forms a cognitive structure of the followers and the situations. The end product of this structuring process is termed a psychological map. That is, the leader assesses the followers and the situation as a preliminary to action. He establishes a mental image of the barriers and facilitating circumstances that have a bearing on the specified goals of his leadership behavior. The leader is then able to visualize the alternative action pathways available to him which he feels will lead to effective leadership. This map, therefore, provides the basis for the course of action which the leader follows in his attempts to exert influence through communications.⁶⁸

As previously mentioned, communication serves as the instrument through which influence is exerted.

The leader uses communication as a tool whereby he affects the personal-cognitive structure of the follower he selects from his different alternative communication behaviors those that he feels will affect the follower in changing his attitude appropriately and in turn will lead to the desired behavioral change. Therefore, for the leader, certain communication behaviors are judged appropriate and selected, and others are judged inappropriate and rejected. The degree to which a leader's selected behaviors are appropriate, that is, succeed in moving followers toward goal attainment, is a measure of leadership effectiveness.⁶⁹

Since this model was initially published there have been many social developments which were not considered in the initial model. Recognizing this, Tannenbaum and Schmidt have made modifications on the original model in

⁶⁸Ibid., p. 156.

⁶⁹Tannenbaum and Schmidt, p. 101.

order to incorporate the social changes.

. . . The current leadership model reflects a more permissive philosophy of management and a more complex view of the environment in which the manager operates. The original model was basically a closed system and was concerned only with situations residing within the organizational environment. The revised model includes forces lying outside of the organization and indicates that there is an interdependency between the external and internal environment. Tannenbaum offered the following statement regarding his work and that of his associates: I do not think we can simply discuss leadership out of context. If we wish to determine leadership qualities and to differentiate between levels of those qualities, we must do two things: First, we must relate these qualities to a societal frame of reference; second, I think we must accept the evaluation of the study of leadership as a three variable problem consisting of the leader, the situation, and the followers. I hold quite strongly that effective leadership requires mastery of social sensitivity and action flexibility. The level of skill of application of these two qualities determines both short and long run effectiveness.⁷⁰

In summary, the Tannenbaum Leadership Process Model is based on influence attempts by a leader over followers in a given situation. The leader's personality which contribute to leadership effectiveness are: his needs; his perceptual capacities; his action capacities.

⁷⁰R. E. Stockhouse, V. F. Phillips, and E. Owens, Frontiers of Leadership: The United States Air Force Academy Program (Air Force Office of Scientific Research, Technical Report AFOSR-TR-71-1857, August 1971) quoting R. Tannenbaum, p. 83.

They are important to the extent to which they affect what the leader sees in his attempts to understand the follower, the situations, and to the extent that they have an impact on his communication behaviors.

The primary factor, for leadership effectiveness is leader flexibility. Basic to this flexibility of style is the concept of leader sensitivity which determines the leaders psychological map for leadership action.

C. The W. J. Reddin 3-D Theory of
Leadership Effectiveness

The third and final contingency model of leadership to be discussed is the 3-D Theory of Leadership Effectiveness by W. J. Reddin. This is the instrument used to determine the management styles of those superintendents qualifying for inclusion in this study.

Reddin proposed two dimensions of managerial style: (a) task orientation, and (b) relationship orientation.

Reddin defined task orientation as, ". . . the extent to which a manager is likely to direct his own and

his subordinates' efforts toward goal attainment."⁷¹

Reddin defined relationship orientation as follows:

. . . the extent to which a manager is likely to have highly personal job relationships characterized by mutual trust, respect for subordinates' ideas, and consideration of their feelings.⁷²

Reddin has proposed four basic leadership styles which are to be considered with the task orientation and relationship dimensions.

The four styles are: (a) the integrated style, (b) the dedicated style, (c) the related style, and (d) the separated style. These styles can be depicted in a matrix where the integrated style is one where the leader is high on both the relationship orientation dimension and the task orientation dimension. On the other hand, if a leader is high in his task orientation and low in his relationship orientation then he is said to be employing the dedicated leadership style. While if the reverse is true, that is, he is high on the relationship orientation dimension and low on the task orientation dimension then he is employing the related leadership style. Lastly, if the leader is low on both dimensions then his style is said to be a separated leadership.⁷³

⁷¹W. J. Reddin, "The 3-D Management Style Theory: A Typology Based on Task and Relationships Orientations," Training and Development Journal, April 1967, p. 11.

⁷²Ibid., p. 11.

⁷³Ibid., p. 14.

The task orientation and relationship orientation dimensions proposed by Reddin were not to be taken in isolation.

. . . they needed to be related to managerial effectiveness in a variety of situations. Toward that end a third dimension, that of leader effectiveness, has been added. A leadership style is effective when it is appropriate to a given situation. A leadership style is ineffective when it is inappropriate to a given situation.⁷⁴

Reddin emphasized that the leadership style is not only effective or ineffective.

The leadership style varies along a continuum of effectiveness. At one extreme the leadership style is depicted as effective with four related effective leadership styles. At the other extreme, the leadership style is depicted as ineffective with four ineffective styles. How well a leader performs, establishes his position along this continuum.⁷⁵

Reddin listed four effective leadership styles . . . the bureaucrat, the developer, the benevolent autocrat, and the executive. The ineffective leadership styles listed are the deserter, the missionary, the autocrat, and the compromiser.⁷⁶

⁷⁴Ibid., p. 15.

⁷⁵Ibid., p. 15.

⁷⁶W. J. Reddin, Managerial Effectiveness, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970) p. 66.

Given that there are different styles of managerial or leadership behavior, then what are the requirements for effectively selecting and utilizing them?

Reddin has indicated that there are three basic skills required in order to become an effective manager:

1. The leader or manager must know how to read a situation, that is, situational sensitivity
2. He must have the skill to change the situation that needs to be changed, that is, situational management skill
3. He must possess the capacity to vary his leadership style in accordance with the situational requirements, that is, style flexibility skill.⁷⁷

Reddin expanded on the notion of situational sensitivity.

'The effective manager must be aware of the basic components of a situational environment. These basic components are: (a) the organization philosophy; (b) the technology; (c) the superior; (d) the co-workers; and (e) the subordinates."⁷⁸

As Tannenbaum suggested the use of a psychological map by managers, Reddin also proposes the use of a situational flex map.

. . . this map is composed of a diagram with the two basic leadership dimensions, that is, task and

⁷⁷Ibid., p. 73.

⁷⁸Ibid., p. 81.

relationship orientation, the situational element or elements involved, that is, technology, and the range of flexibility of the leader depicted. The flex map enables a leader to get a realistic picture of the situation and, therefore, be better able to establish what action style is appropriate.⁷⁹

In summary, the Reddin 3-D Theory of Leadership Effectiveness provides: (a) effective and ineffective managerial styles which are contingent upon the situation, (b) a basis for establishing leader flexibility, (c) an array of situational elements important to leadership effectiveness, and (d) a means of assessing the situation and the managerial style, that is, the situational flex map. Managerial effectiveness, then, can be increased by increasing a manager's range of styles or his flexibility, and by developing his skills in changing situations to match his most dominant style.

Summary of Leadership Review

The review of the literature in the area of leadership has identified the trend leading to the behavioral approach to the study of leadership. Research designed

⁷⁹Ibid., p. 443.

to explore the trait approach to leadership has not shown significant findings. However, those who have summarized the trait approach have suggested that research revealed leadership to be dependent, that is, contingent on a given situation. The situationist researchers have supplied the idea that group situations determine the nature and quality of leadership needed. Situationist studies resulted in further modifications of ideas related to leadership. Significant contributions were made in such areas as polarization of group members toward the leader, leadership of the group toward goals, and sociometric choice of the group for the leader. The leader behavior approach to the study of leadership developed from earlier studies. The approach concerned with individual and organizational dimensions has recognized that both role and personality may be determinants of observed behavior within an organization.

It may be concluded that leadership can best be depicted as a decision-making process which involves the leader, the followers, the situation, and a criterion of effectiveness. Leadership/management style cannot be viewed as a static entity since the decision-making leadership process is a dynamic one where the components are

interdependent, and their relationships are frequently changing.

III. The Position of Superintendent of Schools and Factors Relating to Mobility

The Origins and History of the Position of Superintendent of Schools

Few people question the importance of the superintendent to the future of a school system.

A superintendent somehow influences directly and indirectly the board of education, the bureaucracy he manages, the staff he heads, and the students he is responsible for. What a school chief does and does not do in these areas affects the community. In short, most educators, board members, teachers, and members of the community believe that a superintendent makes a difference in their children's education.⁸⁰

The superintendency, which has served as the general professional executive branch of school administration, is almost 150 years old.⁸¹

⁸⁰Larry Cuban, "The Urban School Superintendency: A Century and a Half of Change," Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation: Fastback 77 (ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 120 912, 1976) p. 7.

⁸¹Leonard D. White, Introduction to the Study of Public Administration, rev. ed., (New York: Macmillan, 1939) p. 20.

Knezevich discussed the evolution of the position of superintendent of schools.

It evolved after unsuccessful attempts to administer a complex system of public education through the part time services of lay people. Delegation of executive responsibility to a full time employee rather than a committee that met occasionally or the annual town meeting was not accomplished without debate and disagreement. A strong anti executive attitude was part of an emerging tradition among American colonists-an attitude evident in the state constitutions adopted from 1775 to 1800. It is not surprising, therefore, that the appointment of a full time administrator as an executive officer for the school system as a whole was delayed almost 200 years-two centuries after the start of the American system of public education.⁸²

Cuban referred to this early period of public education in America:

In the beginning there were boards of education and teachers. Boards begat principals and superintendents. And superintendents, among others, begat expert school executives. Most formal schools were small-one teacher and two or three score students. Principals and superintendents, as we know them, had to wait for the swollen villages bursting with immigrants that worked the early decades of the nineteenth century. Once schools swelled in size, administrators came to the scene.⁸³

⁸²Stephen J. Knezevich, Administration of Public Education, 3rd ed., (New York: Harper and Row, 1975) p. 339.

⁸³Cuban, p. 9.

Grieder, Pierce, and Jordan commented on the origin of the state superintendency as a precursor to the local superintendency.

The first state superintendent of common schools was appointed by the New York State Board of Regents in 1812. This post was later abolished in 1821 and its duties assigned to the secretary of state until 1854, when the office was re-established. Michigan has the longest continuous experience with the state superintendency which had its beginning in 1836. By 1850 all the northern and some of the southern states had either full time or ex officio state superintendents.⁸⁴

Knezevich discussed the early superintendency.

Thirteen school systems established the city school superintendency between 1837 and 1850. Buffalo and Louisville are credited with the creation, in 1837, of the first public superintendencies in public education. Only about a dozen cities created the school superintendency prior to 1850.⁸⁵

The impact of growing populations with resultant pressures on local boards of education in the 1850's is discussed by Cuban:

Mushrooming school populations forced local boards of education to seek help in supervision, they turned to principals and superintendents. The common

⁸⁴Calvin Grieder, Truman Pierce, and K. Forbis Jordan, Public School Administration, 3rd ed., (New York: Ronald Press Co., 1969) p. 151.

⁸⁵Knezevich, p. 341.

practice in the early nineteenth century was for the board to designate one teacher, usually the male, as the Principal Teacher. With the rapid growth in enrollment, it was only a matter of time before administrative duties began crowding out teaching responsibilities.⁸⁶

Gilland also commented on the mid-nineteenth century's importance in the development of the superintendency.

By 1850 many school boards in large cities were ready to admit that executive problems such as supervising instruction, grading schools, and keeping track of school property in rapidly growing systems were beyond the capabilities of a lay, part time administration agency.⁸⁷

The need for alternatives for local boards of education in the 1850's is emphasized by Knezevich.

The creation of the American school superintendency was the alternative destined to survive in spite of resistance from those unacquainted with the complexities of school operation. Some school committees urged the establishment of an executive position for ten to twenty years before the post became a fact.⁸⁸

The centralization of urban school systems gained

⁸⁶Cuban, p. 10.

⁸⁷Thomas M. Gilland, The Origin and Development of the Power and Duties of the City-Superintendent (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935) p. 207.

⁸⁸Knezevich, pp. 340-341.

its greatest momentum in the late nineteenth century. Tyrack has described the centralization movement as one that placed power with the superintendent to expertly administer urban schools.⁸⁹

Additional explanation was given by Tyrack concerning the relationship between the superintendency and centralization:

The movement toward centralization in urban school systems afforded the superintendent a greater degree of authority. In the attempt to exercise this new-found authority the superintendent, seeking to centralize control over schooling, relied on the function of supervision. Beginning at least by 1890, and continuing through to the end of the century, the superintendent used the function of supervision as one of the chief bases for legitimizing his control over schooling.⁹⁰

The relationship between the superintendent and the Board of Education in this period is discussed by Cuban,

. . . but hiring and firing of teachers, letting of contracts, purchasing of books-potent sources of political and economic influence within the community remained the privileged domain of school trustees.

⁸⁹David B. Tyrack, The One Best System: A History of American Urban Education, (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1974) p. 86.

⁹⁰Ibid., p. 346.

Some boards asked their superintendents for advice in these areas; most did not. By the 1880's with the superintendency a bare generation old, supervision of pupils, teachers, and physical plant were the mainstays of the urban schoolman's job.⁹¹

Moehlman reported that the superintendent-board relationship allowed the early superintendent to be little more than an assistant to the board.

There wasn't any question as to "whose man" the superintendent was. He came into being as an agent of the school board faced with perplexing educational problems. The typical board continued to exercise extensive executive power through executive committees during all of the nineteenth century.⁹²

Knezevich elaborated on the functions of the superintendent.

The superintendent was assigned menial school chores or detail work, and was allowed little opportunity to exhibit professional skill and leadership ability. The concept of the superintendent as an agent whose prime function is to ascertain what the board hopes to accomplish and then to act accordingly persists in many communities today.⁹³

⁹¹Cuban, p. 12.

⁹²Arthur B. Moehlman, School Administration, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1940) p. 246.

⁹³Knezevich, pp. 342-43.

The emphasis on change and growth in this period is emphasized by a statement from Carnegie.

The old nations of the earth creep at a snail's pace; the republic thunders past with the rush of the express. The United States, in the growth of a single century, has already reached the foremost rank among nations, and is destined soon to outdistance all others in the race. In population, in wealth, in annual savings, and in public credit; in freedom from debt, in agriculture, and in manufactures, America already leads the civilized world.⁹⁴

The last two decades of the nineteenth century saw the development of educational reform groups which were comprised of individuals from private industry, university professors, and concerned superintendents.

To these reformers, there was a mindless order to the factory-like city schools presided over by drill sergeants called superintendents. The overall problem was the manner in which the schools were governed.⁹⁵

Cuban described the problem areas of school governance during this period:

Boards of education should be smaller and drawn from upper class gentlemen interested in partisan politics, rather than the twenty-six board members in Cleveland or forty-two in Philadelphia, the other half of the governance problem was persistent lay

⁹⁴Andrew Carnegie, Triumphant Democracy or Fifty Years' March of the Republic, (New York: Charles Scribner and Sons, 1886) p. 1.

⁹⁵Knezevich, p. 343.

interference in a superintendent's business. As it stood, according to reformers, board members boggled over which grammar book to use, whether to mandate a sloping or vertical method of penmanship, whether the board president's uncle would sell his lot for a new school building, or whether the new desks should be maple or oak. These matters, reformers argued, were best left to the experts, the superintendents.⁹⁶

Cronin, in his examination of board-superintendent conflict during this period, identified the source, that is control of policy in public education.⁹⁷

The efforts of these reform groups were largely successful, reports Cuban.

By 1910, urban school boards had shrunk from an average of sixteen in 1895 to the average size of nine by 1915. The annual reports of the Department of Superintendence were filled with praise of expert leadership, efficiency minded schoolmen, and the rapid development of professional leadership. A survey of urban superintendents in 1910 found almost half of the top administrators in twenty large cities satisfied with their powers.⁹⁸

Grider, et al., noted:

The National Association of School Superintendents started in 1865, later became the American Association of

⁹⁶Cuban, pp. 13-14.

⁹⁷Joseph M. Cronin, The Control of Urban Schools: Perspective on the Power of Educational Reformers, (New York: The Free Press, 1973) pp. 343-344.

⁹⁸Cuban, p. 14.

School Administrators.⁹⁹

Brown and Cohn listed and defined the three ideal types of superintendent leadership styles as the twentieth century began:

1. The Teacher-Scholar . . . the superintendent was to be a specialist in matters of education. His most important job was to make good teachers out of poor ones
2. Administrative Chief . . . the superintendent was to be the chief executive officer taking all initiative, exercising complete authority, emphasizing planning of instruction and curriculum utilizing careful management techniques
3. Negotiator-Statesman . . . the superintendent was to be sensitive to the impact of the community and the diversity of groups that schools needed for both financial and moral support.¹⁰⁰

Cubberly viewed the superintendency in the chief administrator role:

. . . the superintendent is the central force in the school system up to which and down from which authority, direction and inspiration flow. He is the organizer and director of the work in the schools in all their different phases, and the representative of the schools and all for which the schools stand before the people of the community. He is the executive officer of the school board and also its eyes and ears and brains.¹⁰¹

⁹⁹Grider, Pierce, and Jordan, p. 151.

¹⁰⁰C. G. Browne and Thomas S. Cohn, The Study of Leadership, (Danville, Illinois: Interstate Printers and Publishers, 1959) pp. 20-21.

¹⁰¹Ellwood P. Cubberly, Public School Administration, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1929) p. 386.

Cuban reported on a survey of Superintendents.

This survey completed in 1920, indicated that most large city administrators could appoint and dismiss principals and teachers, determine new programs and policies in both curriculum and instruction, select textbooks, and prepare the budgets. All of these initiatory powers required board approval for implementation. Still, the power to act had passed from the board room to the superintendent's office.¹⁰²

Grider, et al., have provided a summary of the factors which allowed the superintendency to evolve from largely a clerical, supervisory position in the early twentieth century, into that of chief executive officer of the board of education, with responsibility for managing and directing the work of the school system by mid century.

1. The growth of cities caused city school enrollments to rise rapidly and complicated the problems of providing school facilities, and procurement of teachers, pupil accounting and finance
2. The enactment of compulsory attendance laws, achieved in all states by 1918, brought into the schools many children who otherwise probably would not have been there
3. A broadening of the conception of the function of public education demanded curriculum reforms on which school boards needed help
4. Substantial beginning were made in the scientific investigation of learning, teaching methods, child growth, and individual difference

¹⁰²Cuban, p. 19.

5. As schooling became more universal and as children tended to stay in school more years, education became a big business. Procedures had to be devised and adapted for the funding of this monumental enterprise, and for the wisest allocation of resources
6. The growth of other tax-supported public services of major importance and the tremendous expansion of governmental activity aggravated problems of financing the schools. Special knowledge of school finance became one of the essential qualifications of school administrators
7. There was a growing conviction that home and school were partners in the education of children and youth. This led to the development of interpretative media and communication
8. Recognition of education as a state responsibility introduced problems of the relationship of school districts to state government
9. The study of administration as a science produced a body of knowledge, ideas, procedures which was not available a few decades ago. To utilize these findings and build on them required special preparation. The study of administrative and organizational theory was beginning.¹⁰³

Mobility for the Educational
Administrator/Superintendent

Few people question that the position of superintendent of schools is a most difficult and demanding one. During the last decade, one city superintendent has been murdered, many have suffered heart attacks and ulcers, and scores have been fired. The job has always been

¹⁰³Grieder, Pierce, and Jordan, pp. 152-153

tagged as a difficult executive post.¹⁰⁴

The previous observation by Cuban applies to the current period of time, the late 1960's through the mid 1970's. Cubberly made the following statement more than a half century ago:

The superintendent knows from statistics, observation, and experience that he is in the most hazardous occupation known to insurance actuaries. Deep sea diving and structural steel work have nothing on the business of school superintending. Lloyds will insure the English clerk against rain on his weekend vacation, but no gambling house would be sufficiently reckless to bet on the chances of re-election or re-appointment for three years or even two years ahead . . . ¹⁰⁵

With consideration given to the previous quotations from Cuban and Cubberly, and the half century separating them, research data reported by Knezevich would appear to indicate overall stability within the position of superintendent of schools.

The length of time devoted to the superintendency in a given district is somewhere between 4.5 and 6.5 years depending upon whether the median or mean is taken as the indicator of tenure. The total years as superintendent in the sample studied in 1969-1970 ranged from 9.3 to 11.6 years depending upon whether

¹⁰⁴Cuban, p. 7.

¹⁰⁵Cubberly, p. 186.

the median or mean is used as the indicator.¹⁰⁶

The opportunities to achieve the position of superintendent of schools are available to those individuals who have the ambition to achieve. Presthus suggested that people view ambition in three different ways:

1. Upward mobiles generally accept 'the system' its goals and values, its authority and demands. This acceptance is genuine and, which is significant, the upward mobile sees his subordinates in a good light as friendly and sympathetic
2. Indifferents, however, largely ignore the organization and find their satisfactions away from the job. They work to 'make a living' (or often in the case of women, 'to make a little extra money'), but they rarely are involved in the organization more than is necessary
3. Ambivalents are tempted by the attraction of power, authority, and the prestige of success which accompany promotion; but they are not 'organization men' for they value their own individuality and their friendships more than the rewards which the organization can offer.¹⁰⁷

Henry commented on the relationship between mobility and achievement.

¹⁰⁶Stephen J. Knezevich, ed., The American School Superintendent, An AASA Research Study, (Arlington, Va.: American Association of School Administrators, 1971), pp. 39-41.

¹⁰⁷Robert Presthus, The Organizational Society, (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1962), pp. 164-202.

Administrators who tend to show considerable drive for achievement, are strongly inclined toward mobility, are favorably inclined toward control from above, and tend to identify with their superordinates rather than with their subordinates even though the realities of organizational life may preclude further promotion for the principal, he still tends to associate himself with the central office and the values held there.¹⁰⁸

Powers discussed the aspects of school organization and upward mobility ". . . because of the sharply pyramidal structure of the school organization, there are many upward mobile-oriented persons in the organization who have been passed over and will never have their mobility needs met."¹⁰⁹

Thompson defined an organization as a structure made up of positions and roles that people move in and out of without destroying the organization.¹¹⁰

¹⁰⁸ William E. Henry, "The Business Executive: The Psychodynamics of a Social Role," American Journal of Sociology 4 (January, 1949): 286-291.

¹⁰⁹ Thomas E. Powers, "Administrative Behavior and Upward Mobility." Administrators Notebook XV (September 1966): 1-4.

¹¹⁰ Victor A. Thompson, Modern Organization, (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1961), p. 113.

Carlson compared and contrasted types of organizations and the relationship to executive mobility.

School systems belong to a class of organizations that can be called 'domesticated'; that is, they are not compelled to attend to all of their needs. A steady flow of clients is assured, and although they do compete for resources, support is not closely tied to quality of performance. The business firm in a competitive industry can be seen as existing in a 'mild' setting. It is not protected at vulnerable points as is the school system. There is probably less demand for adoption to the environment in the protected setting and, therefore, more placebound chief executives would be found in 'domesticated' than in 'wild' organizations.¹¹¹

Carlson, in another related study, identified the circumstances which surround the employment of school superintendents which he classified into two distinct types of administrators:

1. One type is an insider who, having moved up through the school system's hierarchy, has waited for the superintendency to become vacant. If he eventually does become superintendent, he usually retires on the job and probably does not become superintendent in another district. The superintendent, under these circumstances, is described as being place bound.

¹¹¹Richard O. Carlson, "Succession and Performance among School Superintendents", Administration Science Quarterly 6 (June 1961): 227.

2. Another type does not wait, but seeks the job he wants and does not hesitate to move from one district to another to advance his career. He is an outsider and may make a career of the superintendency, probably holding a position in more than one district before he retires. The superintendent, under these circumstances, is said to be career bound.¹¹²

Within the category of career bound superintendents, Carlson has discerned three sub-types; hoppers, specialists, and statesmen:

1. Hoppers earn the name from their frequent moves from one school system to another. In addition to frequent moves, hoppers have at least two other characteristics. One is that their movements do not take them to increasingly larger districts. The other characteristic is that hoppers always have an application 'working for them'.
2. Specialists make a longer, more systematic commitment to a community than does a hopper. But, like a hopper, a specialist must move on once his task has been accomplished. The specialist moves among rather small districts where the superintendent is the whole administrative force beyond that at the individual schools, in systems lacking the size to warrant sub-superintendents in the roles of specialists. When the special task is completed, the school board needs something else or the man looks for a chance to start the same process all over again. The reputation the specialist builds is important to him because his future positions depend on it.
3. Statesmen have commitment to a community that is

¹¹²Richard O. Carlson, Executive Succession and Organizational Chance: Place-Bound and Career-Bound Superintendents of Schools, (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, The University of Chicago, 1962), pp.7-8.

longer than that of the specialists, and it is not narrowed. They usually stay in a position from four to ten years, and during this time, move all phases of the educational program about as far as they can, and then at this point, consider other jobs. They take pride in the fact that they are never a candidate for a new superintendency. School boards come to them. Each time they move it is to a larger school system. They are called statesmen because of the quality of their work and their concern for the long run consequences of their acts for the entire educational program in the schools served by them.¹¹³

Coates and Pellegrini presented the informal factors most correlated with career mobility and advancement.

The less important, but not to be ignored factors were nationality origins which had more local than general influence on career programs; religious affiliation had its affect at the initial stage of occupational choice, but little influence on subsequent career progress; fraternal orders were considered relatively unimportant, but with local exceptions to the rule; political affiliation was considered to be a definite liability.

The more important informal factors which had consistent affects on career mobility and advancement were: family social standing and connections; memberships in social and civic organizations; memberships in professional organizations; recreational activities and hobbies; judicious consumption, that is, a balanced lifestyle and spending

¹¹³Ibid., pp. 10-12.

habits; influence of wives; the acquisition of the attitudes, values, and behavior patterns of successful superiors; the establishment of higher level friendships; the retention of lower-level friendships.¹¹⁴

The antecedents which result in mobility behavior, and those that preclude mobility behavior were identified by Bradshaw: "superintendent-board conflict, economic conditions, and community pressures resulted in mobility; conflict avoidance, 'good' staff relationships, and adequate planning by the superintendent precluded mobility."¹¹⁵

Dolce has proposed three observations which relate to the mobility behavior of school superintendents. First, there are widespread conditions which become focused on the chief administrative officer of organizations of all types in the United States creating accentuated tensions and pressures on the chief administrator. Second, unstable external environments inevitably tend to

¹¹⁴Charles H. Coates and Roland F. Pellegrini, "Executives and Supervisors: Informal Factors in Differential Bureaucratic Promotion," Administrative Science Quarterly Vol. II (September 1957): 202-209.

¹¹⁵F. H. Bradshaw, "Illinois Twelve Grade Superintendent's Mobility and Relationship to Selected Cost-Quality Indices" (Ph.D. dissertation, Illinois State University, 1968) p. 14.

threaten the stability of conditions within organizations. The external environments became too unstable for organizational maintenance efforts to cope with, therefore, organizational disequilibrium results. Third, given the nature of organizations, the natural point of stress is at the interstitial position between representatives of society and the organizations themselves. This position is held by the superintendent of schools.¹¹⁶

Gouldner distinguished between the cosmopolitan and local characterizations of organizational behavioral style.

Gouldner has pointed out that individuals in organizations occupy certain latent roles which center around the personal loyalty one feels toward the organization. 'Cosmopolitans' may be described as those whose commitment is essentially to their profession, whereas 'locals' are those whose prime loyalty is to the organization.¹¹⁷

Gouldner's definitions are listed as follows:

1. Cosmopolitans
those low on loyalty to the employing organization, high on commitment to specialized role skills, and likely to use an outer reference group orientation

¹¹⁶Dolce, Superintendents Under Siege-Get the Leader, pp. 3-8.

¹¹⁷Alvin W. Gouldner, "Cosmopolitans and Locals: Toward an Analysis of Latent Social Roles," Administrative Science Quarterly, 11 (December 1957): 281-306.

PAGE NUMBERS 78 and 79 ARE REPEATED

TEXT IS NOT REPEATED. FOLLOWS ACCORDINGLY.

2. Locals

those high on loyalty to the employing organization, low on commitment to specialized skill roles, and likely to use an inner reference group orientation¹¹⁸

Knezevich reported his findings relative to the superintendency.

The superintendency is a man's world, almost ninety-nine percent of superintendents are men; superintendents tend to come from rural and small city backgrounds, only fourteen percent come from the larger cities or suburbs; the median age of the superintendent in 1969-1970 was forty-eight years old; almost eighty percent of the superintendencies in 1969-1970 were in districts with enrollments of less than 3,000.¹¹⁹

Challenges and Pressures of

The Superintendency

Griender, et al., listed those general aspects of the superintendency which are both challenging and yet bring great pressure to those in the position:

1. Criticism from many angles . . . the ills of society are frequently laid at the schoolhouse door with the superintendent the target of real or imagined shortcomings
2. Scope of superintendent's work ill defined . . . conditions vary in different communities with

¹¹⁸Ibid., p. 290.

¹¹⁹Stephen J. Knezevich, The American School Superintendent, an AASA Research Study, p. 43-45.

- superintendents having much freedom to determine the scope of the job and responsibilities
3. Maintaining democracy in administration . . . constant self-restraint is necessary to avoid resorting to authoritarian methods to get action
 4. A heavy work load . . . practicing superintendents report an increasing, not decreasing, work load
 5. Tenure not secure . . . length of service in any one community often is too short for long range, substantial improvements
 6. Professional advancement slow . . . more men legally qualified for the superintendency than there are positions available
 7. A lonely position . . . most school systems have only one superintendent as compared to other professions that have at least a few colleagues;
 8. Modest financial rewards . . . even the 'best' superintendencies do not compare in terms of salary to executives in business and industry¹²⁰

Norton listed, in rank order, some specific problem areas most often indicated by superintendents:

Problems of teacher personnel; public relations; pupil personnel; increasing educational costs and problems of finance; problems related to the board of education; curriculum development and evaluation; professional negotiations; budget research preparation and control; building needs and facilities; scheduling considerations.¹²¹

Mullins commented on the most prevalent grievances coming from superintendents.

¹²⁰Grieder, Pierce, and Jordan, Public School Administration, pp. 171-172.

¹²¹M. Scott Norman, "Current Problems of the School Superintendent," Clearing House 46 (September 1971): 18.

. . . domineering board members or board presidents who publicly humiliate the superintendent, who want to run the show single-handedly and to whom other board members acquiesce; failure of board members to support the superintendent publicly during heated community controvercies while assuring them privately that they are supportive; secret sessions held by board cliques from which the administration and other board members are excluded.¹²²

Fowler suggested some personal characteristics likely to be found in a good superintendent of schools:

1. Leadership
He inspires teamwork, maintains high morale, directs the school system toward given objectives, and helps others grow on the job. The community sees the superintendent as an educational leader and the superintendent raises community expectations of its schools
2. Scholarship
He is scholarly and analytical but not pedantic; he is widely read and understands the need for empirical support for recommendations; he keeps abreast of current educational trends
3. Judgement
His actions and decisions reflect knowledge and use of common sense
4. Alertness
He is intellectually and intuitively able to interpret and respond effectively to new conditions, situations, problems, and opportunities as they arise
5. Initiative
He can originate and/or develop ideas and 'sell' them to board and staff. In the language of the early sixties, he is a self-starter

¹²²Carolyn Mullins, "The Ways that School Boards Drive Their Superintendents Up the Wall; American School Board Journal 161 (August 1974) 17

6. Cooperation
He has the ability and desire to work with others in a team situation; authority, role and power are not his paramount considerations
7. Drive
His continuing urge is to improve the educational program without frightening others
8. Self-confidence
He is self-reliant and tactful
9. Communications
He expresses himself clearly and concisely as a writer and speaker
10. Flexibility
He adapts to new situations and does not regard his own opinion as inviolate
11. Stability
He remains calm and poised under pressure; he appreciates but is not bound by tradition and custom
12. Reliability
He performs according to promise on matters within his control¹²³

Fultz reported his findings on the most common reasons for superintendents losing their positions.

1. Weak rapport with the board poses the biggest threat
2. Lack of staff respect bodes ill for the superintendent
3. Poor communications up and down the line presents problems
4. Annual written evaluations make a difference. Those superintendents without written evaluations stand a greater risk of dismissal
5. Hiring practices dictate firing practices. The majority of dismissed superintendents were those who had been hired by boards who had no outside

¹²³ Charles W. Fowler, "How To Let Your Superintendent Be A Superintendent," American School Board Journal 162 (September 1975): 22.

- counsel, such as university or consultative personnel
6. Enrollment size makes it a numbers game-sometimes. Superintendents with enrollments of 2,501 to 5,000, or more than 10,000 are most susceptible to dismissal
 7. It helps to be a recognized leader in education. School boards respond favorably to acknowledged educational prowess in their superintendent
 8. It also helps to be a good negotiator for management. That is, be a good negotiator¹²⁴

Fultz also reported,

Superintendent dismissals are increasing, that short dismissal notices are becoming common practice, and that districts with minority student enrollments show no significant differences in dismissal rates for superintendents.¹²⁵

Travers specified the factors which placed a stress on superintendents, and six ways that these stresses can be eased. The stress factors were:

School board members want to run the show; budget cuts are increasing; information coordination is more hectic; dissention among board members is increasing; declining enrollments are matched by increasing expenditures; taxpayers are souring on teachers; union tactics are growing stronger; special interest groups are growing in strength; students are changing with an upsurge in vandalism and discipline cases; the news media continue to seek more headlines; continued additional time necessary to meet local, state, and

¹²⁴David A. Fultz, "Eight Ways Superintendents Lose Their Jobs," American School Board Journal 163 (September 1976) 42-43.

¹²⁵Ibid., p. 44.

federal paperwork needs.¹²⁶

Travers also suggested methods which could be used to manage pressures:

Frank communication is maintained by an open mind; the superintendent must go more than fifty percent of the way to understand board members; keep cool as much as possible; learn more and talk less . . . listen, listen, listen; smile more and help your colleagues relax; accept the fact that it is upon trust that the total success of the superintendency is built.¹²⁷

Summary of Position of Superintendent of
Schools and Factors Related
to Mobility

The position of superintendent of schools has evolved from that of an assistant to the board in the 1850's to one of a functioning executive by the 1920's. One of the significant reasons for this transformation was the increased responsibility given to the superintendency for the supervision of personnel.

Two distinct categories have been developed relative to the mobility patterns of the superintendency . . . the place-bound superintendent, and the career-bound superintendent. The career bound superintendent has been

¹²⁷ Ibid., pp.43-44.

further classified into three types: the hopper, the specialist, and the statesman.

Challenges and pressures of the superintendency have been in the areas of board relations, teacher-personnel relations, fiscal considerations, and community-human relations. These challenges and pressures will continue from board members, employees, federal and state governments, as well as community groups. The person in the position of superintendent of schools must be ready and willing to accept the challenges and pressures with the appropriate leadership styles, as well as an awareness of the background and mobility characteristics of the position of superintendent of schools.

CHAPTER III

I. PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

The study has three major purposes, with related sub-purposes: (1) to determine if there is a relationship between management style and mobility, (2) to determine if a relationship exists between selected variables and mobility. The selected variables were as follows: prior building level experience, prior central office experience, advanced degrees (post Masters), extensive and prior experience as a superintendent, out of state administrative experience, non-educational-but administratively related experience, (3) to examine the reasons why superintendents move from one school district to another. Purpose number one had the following sub-purposes: (a) to determine if there is a relationship between a particular management style and mobility direction, (b) to determine if there is a relationship between management style and student enrollment ratio. The student enrollment of the previous district during the superintendent's final year,

was divided into the student enrollment of the current district giving each qualifying superintendent a student enrollment ratio. All ratios were rank ordered from largest to smallest and the median ratio was then determined. Those superintendents above the median were placed in cell number one, and those superintendents below the median were placed in cell number two, (c) to determine how the management styles of the qualifying superintendents compare to the management styles of a hypothetical profile of the mobile superintendent. Purpose number two did not have any related sub-purposes. Purpose number three had the following sub-purposes: (a) to determine the reasons superintendents in cell number one changed school districts, (b) to determine the reasons superintendents in cell number two changed school districts, (c) to compare the reasons for changing school districts given by superintendents in cell number one and superintendents in cell number two.

To accomplish the purposes of the study a target population consisting of all current elementary district superintendents in Cook (115) County (excluding the Chicago Public School System) and DuPage (32) County was selected. All elementary district superintendents within

the target population (147) were mailed a questionnaire to determine if they qualified for inclusion in the study. The first questionnaire was returned by 124 superintendents from Cook (99/86%) and DuPage (25/78%) counties.

The study sample of qualifying superintendents consisted of sixteen superintendents from Cook (ten) and DuPage (six) Counties who met the following criteria: the superintendent must have evidenced mobility as a superintendent, and the previous superintendency must have been in an elementary school district. The qualifying superintendents were mailed a second questionnaire requesting the following information: years of experience as a principal, years of experience as an administrator other than principal or superintendent, years of experience as a superintendent in present district, years of out of state administrative experience, years of non-educational-but administratively related experiences, and highest educational degree earned. The superintendent was also asked to rate his background experiences and educational training relative to their importance in the development of the managerial style most often used as a superintendent. This rating was done on a six point scale, ranging from extremely adequate.

All qualifying superintendents (sixteen) were contacted in order to schedule an interview. All qualifying superintendents consented to the interviews which had the following purposes: (1) to administer a management style diagnosis instrument, (2) to validate the second questionnaire, (3) to explain and review with the superintendents specific elements of the hypothetical profile of the mobile superintendent, (4) to ascertain the validity of each aspect of the hypothetical profile of the mobile superintendent based upon the reactions of the superintendents, (5) to determine the various reasons the superintendents had changed school districts, (6) to probe and clarify tangential areas from the second questionnaire.

The hypothetical profile of the mobile superintendent was developed with the assistance of thirty superintendents from the southwest Cook County area. The superintendents were asked to rank selected background variables and leadership styles as these factors related to mobility. This ranking was completed on a questionnaire which was then returned in a self-addressed, stamped envelope. This profile served as the basis for discriminating between those background characteristics and

management/leadership styles which are common to superintendents in cell number one as compared to the background characteristics and management/leadership styles of superintendents in cell number two. Data collected from the hypothetical profile were compared with all actual data collected from the questionnaires and interviews of the sixteen qualifying superintendents.

Chapter III is divided into six sections. Within each section there is a presentation of data with an analysis of the data. While analysis sections are presented, some data sections also contain analysis for clarity and emphasis.

- I. Cell number one and cell number two membership
 - A. Explanation and reason for cell membership differentiation
 - B. Description of process to determine cell membership
- II. Experience and background variables-relation to cell membership
 - A. Experience as principal
 1. Comparison of data
 2. Analysis of data
 3. Comparison and analysis with data from

hypothetical profile of mobile superintendent

- B. Central office experience
 - 1. Comparison of data
 - 2. Analysis of data
 - 3. Comparison of data with hypothetical profile of mobile superintendent
- C. Experience as superintendent-total
 - 1. Comparison of data
 - 2. Analysis of data
 - 3. Comparison of data with hypothetical profile of mobile superintendent
- D. Experience as superintendent-current district
 - 1. Comparison of data
 - 2. Analysis of data
 - 3. Comparison of data with hypothetical profile of mobile superintendent
- E. Out of state administrative experience
 - 1. Comparison of data
 - 2. Analysis of data
 - 3. Comparison of data with hypothetical profile of mobile superintendent

- F. Non-educational-Administratively related experiences
 - 1. Comparison of data
 - 2. Analysis of data
 - 3. Comparison of data with hypothetical profile of mobile superintendent
 - G. Highest earned degree
 - 1. Comparison of data
 - 2. Analysis of data
 - 3. Comparison of data with hypothetical profile of mobile superintendent
 - H. Summary of experience and background variables and relation to mobility
- III. Leadership/Management Styles of Qualifying Superintendents-Relation to cell membership
- A. Introduction and use of Reddin Management Style Diagnosis Test
 - 1. Comparison of data
 - 2. Analysis of data
 - 3. Comparison of data with hypothetical profile of mobile superintendent
 - B. Leadership/Management Style-Relation to Educational Training and background

experience

1. Comparison of questionnaire and interview experiences

2. Analysis of questionnaire and interview responses

C. Summary of leadership/management style and relation to mobility

IV. Reasons given for changing superintendencies-
Relation to cell membership

A. Reasons for change

1. Comparison and analysis of questionnaire and interview responses

2. Comparison of questionnaire and interview responses with hypothetical profile of mobile superintendent

3. Involvement of Illinois Association of School Boards (I. A. S. B.)

4. Comparison and analysis of interview responses and relation to leadership/management style

5. Specific and general reasons from interviews

B. Summary of reasons for changing superin-

tendencies

- V. Analysis of interviews
- VI. Final Summary: Questionnaire and interview data relation to mobility

Cell Membership for Qualifying

Superintendents

The classification of the qualifying superintendents into cell number one or cell number two was required in order to determine the direction of mobility. Once the direction of mobility had been determined, the data were compared to ascertain if there was a relationship between the selected variables and management styles of those superintendents in cell number one as compared with those superintendents in cell number two (see Table I).

Cell membership for each superintendent was determined by a student enrollment ratio. The ratio was concluded with the division of the student enrollment figure for the final year as superintendent in the previous district, into the student enrollment figure for the current district. Enrollment figures for the superintendents during the first year in the previous district were not

TABLE I

CLASSIFICATION OF SUPERINTENDENTS INTO CELL NUMBER ONE OR
CELL NUMBER TWO DEPENDENT UPON STUDENT ENROLLMENTS
OF CURRENT AND PREVIOUS DISTRICT

<u>Cell Number</u>	<u>Identification Code for Superintendent</u>	<u>Student Enrollment Current District</u>	<u>Student Enrollment Previous District in Final Year</u>	<u>Ratio</u>
1	1 - G	2,300	500	4.60
1	1 - Q	350	100	3.50
1	1 - N	1,820	600	3.03
1	1 - E	3,700	1,500	2.47
1	1 - C	2,700	1,300	2.08
1	1 - B	760	450	1.69
1	1 - F	400	240	1.67
1	1 - M	5,200	3,200	1.63
				*Median 1.53
2	1 - P	500	350	1.43
2	1 - A	4,500	3,500	1.29
2	1 - L	2,170	1,700	1.28
2	1 - H	480	535	.90
2	1 - D	285	320	.89
2	1 - K	1,050	1,300	.81
2	1 - R	1,700	6,900	.25
2	1 - J	210	2,800	.08

available. The largest ratio was 4.60 and the smallest was .08. The median student enrollment ratio was 1.53. The eight superintendents with ratios above 1.53 were placed into cell number one; those superintendents with ratios below 1.53 were placed into cell number two.

Of the sixteen qualifying superintendents, the student enrollment for the current districts ranged from a high of 5,200 to a low of 210. Of the eight superintendents in cell number one, student enrollment ranged from a high of 5,200 to a low of 350. Of the eight superintendents in cell number two, student enrollment ranged from a high of 4,500 to a low of 210.

Experience and Background Variables

Relation to Cell Membership

Superintendents in cell number one were compared with superintendents in cell number two to ascertain if there was a relationship between cell membership (direction of mobility), and selected background and experience variables. The variables were as follows: experience as a principal; central office experiences-other than superintendent; experience as a superintendent-all districts; experience as a superintendent-current district; out of

state administrative experiences-educational; non-educational, administratively related experiences.

Experience as Principal

The mean score for superintendents in cell number one was 4.0 years as a principal while superintendents in cell number two had a mean score of 5.6 years in the principalship. The median for experience as a principal was 3.5 years for cell number one, and 7.5 years for cell number two. Evidence was obtained indicating that those superintendents in cell number two placed more value on building level experience than did those in cell number one. This value priority was established from interview data. Most superintendents in cell number two reported in interviews of the success and satisfaction which are available at the building level. This success and satisfaction was consistently related to involvement with staff, children, parents and community (see Table 2-A).

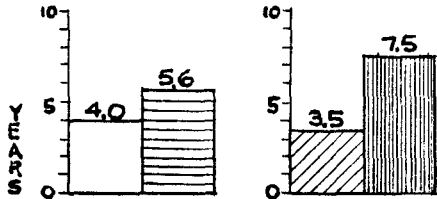
Superintendents in cell number one did not, on the whole spend as much time reflecting on the organizational management, and instructional experiences available at the building level.

All qualifying superintendents stressed the import-

TABLE 2-A

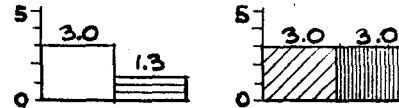
EXPERIENCE/BACKGROUND DATA FROM QUESTIONNAIRE NUMBER TWO:
ALL MEMBERS OF CELL NUMBER ONE (C₁) AND
CELL NUMBER TWO (C₂) COMPARED

A. Experience As Principal



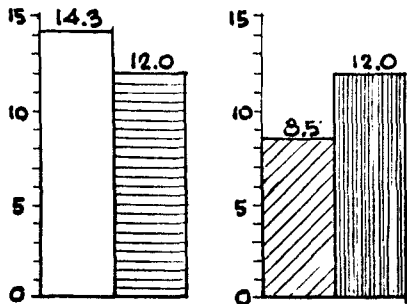
Note: Hypothetical Profile Rank #1

B. Central Office Experience Other Than Superintendent



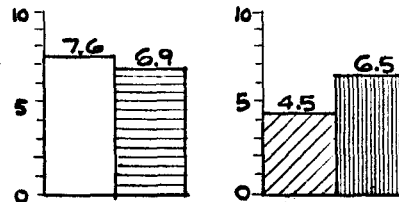
Note: Hypothetical Profile Rank #3

C. Experience As Superintendent-Total

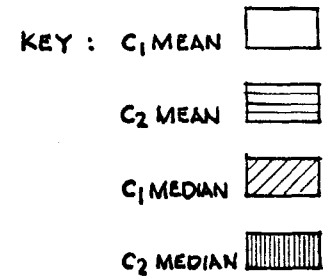


Note: Hypothetical Profile Rank #2

D. Experience As Superintendent-Current District



Note: Hypothetical Profile Rank #2



ance of fiscal and personnel management related experiences. Superintendents in cell number two tended to be more concerned with the instructional and human relations aspects of administration which are more available at the principalship level because of the number of students, staff, parents etc. with whom interaction occurs. This concern may explain the mean difference of almost two years more experience as a principal for superintendents in cell number two, compared to superintendents in cell number one. The interview data support this explanation since cell number two superintendents consistently reported satisfaction gained through contact with students, staff, and instructional program matters.

Some recognition should be made of the fact that superintendents in cell number one may have viewed experience at the central office level as a more appropriate experience than the principalship for ascending to the superintendency. Questionnaire and interview data did indicate that cell number one superintendents did have more experience at the central office level.

Three of the sixteen qualifying superintendents indicated minimal principal experience-two to three years-in their background leading to the superintendency. Two

of these superintendents were in cell number one, and the third was in cell number two.

Of the superintendents in cell number one, only two stated that the principalship experience was most significant to mobility. Of the superintendents in cell number two, six stated that the principalship was most significant to mobility. The superintendents in cell number one tended to direct more of the interview to the central office and professional organization experiences they had experienced and found useful. Superintendents from cell number two seemed to direct more of the interview to the interpersonal relationship skills that had been developed as a result of working at the building level.

Responses from the hypothetical profile of the mobile superintendent ranked experience as a principal to be the most contributing and important background and experience variable for the mobile superintendent. Of the contributing superintendents who participated in the development of the profile, eighty percent found the principalship to be most important to mobility. The hypothetical profile, therefore, would more accurately describe cell number two superintendents than cell number

one superintendents since the profile and cell number two superintendents consistently supported lengthy principalship experience, beyond that required for superintendent certification, as an important factor relating to mobility.

Central Office Experience Other
Than Superintendent

Superintendents in cell number one had a mean score of 3.0 years of central office experience other than superintendent while superintendents in cell number two had a mean score of 1.3 years of experience for the same variable. The median score was 3.0 for each group. (see Table 2-A).

Responses from the questionnaires and during the interviews found five of the sixteen superintendents to have no central office experience whatsoever. There was no particular correlation to cell membership since of the five superintendents with no central office experience, two were from cell number one and three were from cell number two.

The types of central office experiences were one athletic director, three directors, two administrative

assistants to the superintendent, and five assistant superintendents.

It would appear that while superintendents in cell number one were serving in central office related positions, superintendents in cell number two were more consistently serving as a principal. Three superintendents in cell number two specifically expressed concern that a lack of central office experience was possibly a limiting factor in their attempts to obtain superintendencies in school districts having more than two thousand students.

It is interesting to note that of those superintendents with central office experience from cell number one, all six superintendents had been in positions having direct authority, such as, deputy superintendent, or assistant superintendent. Superintendents from cell number two, on the other hand, had been in five central office positions, only two of which had direct authority as assistant superintendents.

During the interviews with superintendents, those superintendents in cell number one made more consistent references to some one person who was most instrumental in their early training and experiences in educational administration, particularly first superintendents whom

they had worked under in a central office position. The same cannot be said for those superintendents in cell number two since many had spent longer periods of time in the principalship and seemed to be not as influenced due to the fact that they had not worked directly with superintendents on as regular a basis as those superintendents in cell number one. While building level administrators interact frequently with superintendents, the extent of interaction is less than the interaction that occurs between various central office positions and the superintendent. Those individuals holding central office positions also have more opportunity to interact with the superintendent on an informal, social basis. In this respect, superintendents may serve as role models and career counselors for central office administrators. Because of the close daily contact with the superintendent, the central office administrator has a unique opportunity to fully appreciate the tasks, responsibilities, and duties inherent to the superintendency.

Responses from the hypothetical profile of the mobile superintendent ranked central office experience as the third most important background and experience variable for the mobile superintendent. Sixty-three percent

of the superintendents contributing to the development of the profile found central office positions to be of significance to mobility as a superintendent. Considerable emphasis was placed on the importance of a knowledge of budgeting, bonding, and other fiscal matters for the central office positions held according to responses from the hypothetical profile. While the hypothetical profile ranked central office experience (particularly fiscal related positions) as the third most important factor relating to mobility, the profile was inconsistent with the central office experiences of the sixteen superintendents who qualified for inclusion in the study since only two superintendents had previous central office positions involving fiscal and budgetary responsibilities. It would then appear that while "lip service" is being given to the importance of a fiscal and budgetary background, the implication could be that the mobility of superintendents is more related to politics, curricular matters, and personal and geographical characteristics, etc. Cell membership was also not related to fiscal and budgetary background either, since each cell had one of the two superintendents who did have a fiscal background (see Table 4).

Experience As A Superintendent-Total
Years-Current District

Superintendents in cell number one had a mean score of 14.3 years in the superintendency while superintendents in cell number two had a mean score of 12.0 years for the same variable. The median score was 8.5 years for superintendents in cell number one, and 12.0 years for superintendents in cell number two.

Responses from the questionnaires and during the interviews found that of the sixteen qualifying superintendents only three superintendents had held the same position outside of Illinois. Also, only two superintendents had held more than two superintendencies, both of them having held three. The number of years served as superintendent outside Illinois was rather small, that is, a total of sixteen years for the three superintendents or an average of five plus years per superintendent. (see Table 2A).

The mean scores for superintendents in both cell number one and cell number two would seem to indicate a certain amount of stability for the position regardless of the background and experience differences that have

been shown in previous comparisons. The stability of these qualifying superintendents is again demonstrated by the fact that of all sixteen qualifying superintendents only two superintendents were serving in a third superintendency. The remaining fourteen superintendents continue in the second superintendency. The factor of stability, regardless of cell membership, would also seem to apply to the experience of the qualifying superintendents in their current districts. The mean score for superintendents from cell number one was 7.6 years in the current district. Superintendents in cell number two had a mean score of 6.9 years for the same variable. The median scores were 4.5 years for superintendents in cell number one, and 6.5 years for superintendents in cell number two.

One significant, yet characteristic difference between superintendents in cell number one and cell number two is that superintendents in cell number one had more years of experience as superintendent, and also in other central office positions. In other words, key central office leadership positions, such as, assistant superintendents, directors, coordinators, etc. had been more frequently held by superintendents in cell number one than

by superintendents in cell number two prior to assuming the superintendency. One could conclude that superintendents from cell number one, because of their central office experience, were better able to understand and prepare for the demands and responsibilities of the superintendency than were superintendents from cell number two.

During the interviews with superintendents in cell number one and cell number two there did not appear to be any significant difference in approach or awareness of the importance of the position of superintendent of schools relative to the number of years in the position itself. All superintendents seemed to display, regardless of cell membership, a hectic, demanding, and sometimes frustrating work schedule which centered on board and staff related matters.

Four superintendents, in particular, displayed a special lack of regard for the "anywhere for a price" superintendent who leaves district after district, and is constantly on the "lookout" for larger and better superintendencies. This kind of approach was clearly, the superintendents indicated, not in the best interests of the position of superintendent of schools. Great concern should be maintained in the areas of sharing the exper-

tise, training, and ideas to school systems which need direction. This professional commitment is not often provided when career building necessitates that superintendents change school district whenever larger and more prestigious positions become available.

The sample superintendents did not exhibit, on the whole, a planned career pattern. Thus, superintendents do move to larger districts without a career pattern. However, it is possible that mobility might have occurred earlier in a superintendent's career had a plan been established. The absence of a planned career pattern may result in circumstances directing the careers of superintendents which may not be in the best interests of the superintendency.

Responses from the hypothetical profile of the mobile superintendent ranked experience as a superintendent for at least four to six years as the second most important background and experience variable for the mobile superintendent. Sixty-seven percent of the superintendents contributing to the development of the profile found the variable of experience as a superintendent to be significant to mobility as a superintendent (see Table 4).

Those superintendents in cell number one and cell

number two were beyond the experience level suggested by the profile.

Out of State Administrative Experience

Superintendents in cell number one had a mean score of 1.9 years of out of state administrative experience. Superintendents in cell number two had a mean score of 1.3 years for the same variable. The median score was not determined for this variable due to the small incidence in the backgrounds and experiences given by the qualifying superintendents (see Table 2B).

Of the sixteen qualifying superintendents, eleven indicated from the questionnaires and during the interviews that they had not had any out of state administrative experience whatsoever. There seemed to be no relationship between cell membership and the eleven superintendents since five superintendents were from cell number one, and six superintendents were from cell number two.

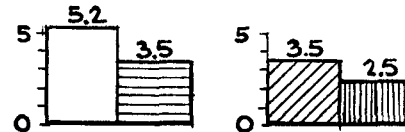
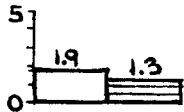
It would seem from the responses that out of state administrative experiences did not have a significant relationship to the mobility patterns of the qualifying superintendents. Further, cell membership was not a significant factor in relation to the out of state adminis-

TABLE 2-B

EXPERIENCE/BACKGROUND DATA FROM QUESTIONNAIRE NUMBER TWO:
ALL MEMBERS OF CELL NUMBER ONE (C₁) AND
CELL NUMBER TWO (C₂) COMPARED

E. Out of State Administrative Experiences-Mean Only

F. Non-Educational-Administratively Related Experiences



Note: Hypothetical Profile Rank #6

Note: Hypothetical Profile Rank #5

trative positions held by qualifying superintendents prior to reaching the position of superintendent of schools. The lack of out of state administrative experience for most of the qualifying superintendents might indicate that the geographical area of the counties of Cook and DuPage offer ample opportunities for advancement for administrators working within this two county area. Another explanation might be that school boards in this geographical area tend to promote from within. An additional possibility might be that superintendent vacancies have not been advertised outside the State of Illinois. A concluding reason may be that the elementary district superintendency, which is prevalent in Illinois, may not be attractive to superintendents from other states where the unit school district is the common type of district organization.

Of the five superintendents who did hold administrative positions outside of Illinois, there seemed to be hardly any pattern displayed in the positions held except for the fact that three of the five had held superintendentcies. Of these three, two of the superintendents were members of cell number one. Due to the infrequency of out of state administrative experience for the qualifying

superintendents, and the absence of any pattern of experience for this variable, it can be concluded that there is little, if any relationship between mobility, and out of state administrative experience.

Responses from the hypothetical profile of the mobile superintendent ranked out of state administrative experience sixth, and least necessary of the background and experiences variables for the mobile superintendent. Only thirty percent of the superintendents contributing to the development of the profile found the variable of out of state administrative experience to be significant to mobility as a superintendent. A positive relationship exists between the hypothetical profile and the actual responses from the superintendents in the study (see Table 4).

Non Educational-Administratively

Related Experiences

Respondents to the questionnaire were asked to list their involvement in non-educational administrative experiences. The purpose of this item was to determine if cell membership correlated with the extent and kinds of non-educational administrative activities. The data

indicated that no general conclusions can be made for several reasons. First, members of cell number one had a mean number of years experience in non-educational administrative experience of 5.2 years. Members in cell number two had a mean number of years in these activities of 3.5 years. The means are too similar to warrant the decision that cell membership and length of time spent in non-educational administrative experiences are related. Second, the terminology, "non-educational administrative experience", was too general to be discriminatory. Analysis of the responses indicated that what is a non-educational administrative experience was a matter of perception of the respondents. Some respondents listed popularly considered administrative positions such as office manager, industrial supervisor, etc. Other respondents listed such positions as salesmen, auditor, etc. The interview supported both points of view. In all cases, respondents viewed their non-educational administrative experience as contributing to the skills they find necessary in performing their roles as superintendents. Third, respondents were not asked about the recency of their non-educational administrative experience. However, during some interviews, interviewees volunteered that these non-edu-

cational administrative experiences occurred immediately prior to their assuming the superintendency; others indicated the experiences occurred early in their work careers; others indicated that they had interrupted their educational careers to engage in non-educational administrative experiences.

While no specific conclusions can be drawn from these data, one could say, with some degree of certainty based upon the data that superintendents gain administrative competencies in planning, organizing, supervision, etc. not only through college preparatory courses and on the job experiences, but also through transfer of competencies from non-educational administrative experiences.

Of the five superintendents having non non-educational, but administratively related experiences, two were from cell number one, and three were from cell number two. It would appear that there is little, if any significance, which can be determined relative to overall cell membership in this variable.

However, due to the mean number of years spent by qualifying superintendents in these positions, and the variety of the experiences, some amount of analysis is necessary.

The mean scores of this variable for superintendents in cell number one, and cell number two are somewhat interesting in relation to other background experience variables which have been presented and analyzed. Superintendents in cell number one have almost two years of additional administrative experience, although not educational, when compared to superintendents in cell number two. During the interviews, those superintendents in cell number one reported more consistent and direct responses concerning their non-educational background. Three superintendents from cell number one, in particular, were very specific about their private sector business backgrounds, that is, banking, insurance, and industry. These superintendents used a certain amount of the interview to establish a connection between themselves as superintendents of schools and their non-educational experiences. As indicated earlier, these superintendents felt that through their non-educational experiences they had acquired administrative skills that have been beneficial to their current position. These superintendents also responded with a rather obvious pride, and commitment to their previous non-educational experiences.

Superintendents from cell number two did not place

as much importance on their non-educational experiences as did the superintendents from cell number one. However, two superintendents from cell number two did indicate that their experiences in the armed services were of benefit to them.

The implication can possibly be made that the superintendents from cell number one, were, on the whole, more able to take advantage of all that their background and experiences had provided for them which would allow for some explanation of the almost two years of additional time spent by superintendents from cell number one in non-educational types of experience when compared to superintendents from cell number two.

Responses from the hypothetical profile of the mobile superintendent ranked non-educational but administratively related experiences as the fifth, or next to last, most important background and experience variable for the mobile superintendent. Only forty-three percent of the superintendents contributing to the development of the profile found the non-educational experiences of the superintendent to be significant to mobility as a superintendent (see Table 4).

The comparison of responses from the hypothetical

profile for this variable agrees with actual responses from superintendents in both cells. While respondents supported the value of non-educational administrative experience, this experience ranks lower than the variables considered in this study.

Highest Earned Degree

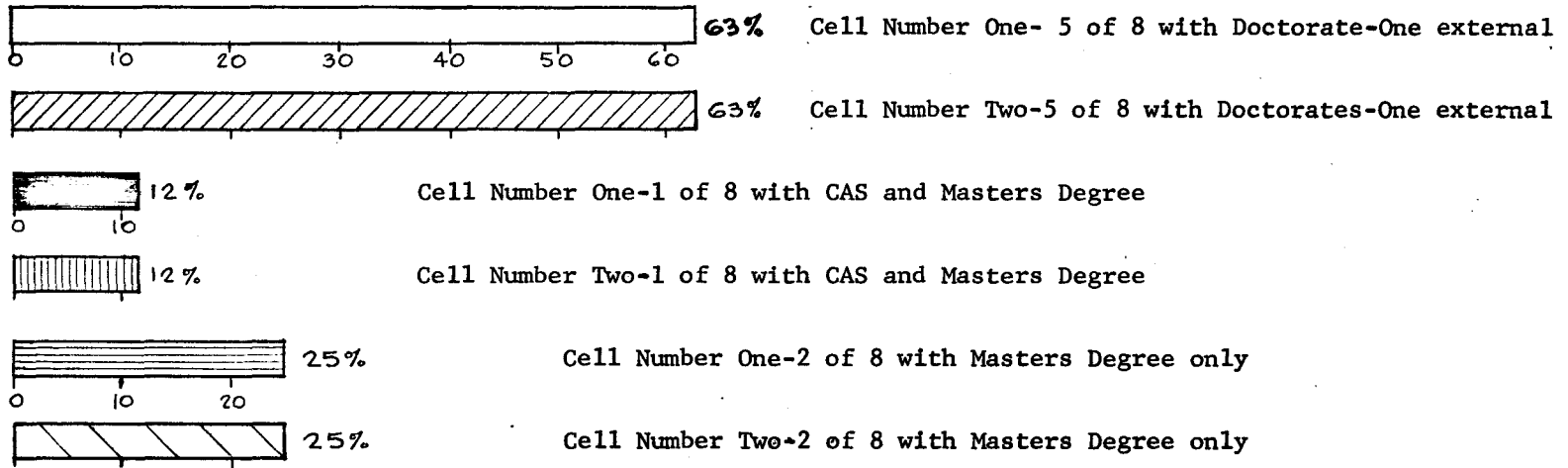
Responses indicate that there was no difference between superintendents in cell number one and cell number two in levels of formal educational training. Interview responses did not reveal any patterns or trends concerning areas of additional course work preparation that the qualifying superintendents felt was instrumental in the attainment of the superintendency (see Table 3).

It is interesting to note that only one superintendent had, by design, taken additional course work and training in labor law, collective bargaining, and industrial relations. This superintendent took pride in the fact that he "sat at the table" not a board member or outside consultant.

Cell number one had five doctoral level degrees, one external, and four Doctorates in Education (Ed.D.). Cell number two had five doctoral level degrees, one

TABLE 3

HIGHEST DEGREE EARNED: SUPERINTENDENTS FROM
CELL NUMBER ONE (C₁) AND
CELL NUMBER TWO (C₂)



Note: Hypothetical Profile Rank #4

external, three Doctorates in Education, one Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.). There was no relationship between cell membership and highest degree earned. The data regarding degrees earned would indicate that superintendents are changing school districts for reasons other than degrees earned. It should also be noted that since ten of the sixteen qualifying superintendents held doctoral level degrees, it would seem likely that the presence of a doctorate is related to achieving and retaining a superintendency although no relationship to mobility can be established.

Course work toward the masters degree, certificate of advanced studies, or doctoral degree did not indicate a significant amount taken in out of state institutions. As a point of reference, all advanced degrees were from schools in the midwestern area, except for the one Ph.D. from the east coast. This fact might indicate a parochialism on the part of school boards and/or superintendent applicants for a number of reasons: First, it might indicate a narrow scope of searching for new superintendents by school boards; Second, it might indicate a narrow scope of searching by applicants for superintendencies; Third, it might indicate an unattractiveness of Illinois'

superintendencies because of location, salary, responsibilities, district organizational structures, that is, elementary, secondary, and unit districts.

Responses from the hypothetical profile of the mobile superintendent ranked the need for a doctoral level degree as the fourth most important background and experience variable for the mobile superintendent. Only forty-seven percent of those superintendents contributing to the development of the profile concluded that a doctoral level degree was significant to mobility as a superintendent (see Table 4). Again, the hypothetical profile was consistent with the data since, although sixty percent of superintendents in this study held doctorates, no relationship between mobility and the doctorate could be established.

Of all topics responded to during the interviews with qualifying superintendents, the presence or lack of a doctoral level degree was the least specific. It is probably appropriate to say that those superintendents holding doctoral level degrees saw no benefit in elaborating on the fact that they held the degree, and those without it demonstrated little, if any, concern for holding a doctoral level degree.

TABLE 4

HYPOTHETICAL PROFILE OF MOBILE SUPERINTENDENT
EXPERIENCE/BACKGROUND DATA-
RELATIONSHIP TO MOBILITY

<u>Experience/Background</u>	<u>Frequency of Reference</u>		
	<u>Raw Score</u>	<u>Percentage</u>	<u>Rank</u>
Experience As Principal	24 - 30	80%	1
Central Office Experience other than Superintendent	19 - 30	63%	3
Experience As Superintendent	20 - 30	67%	2
Out of State Administrative Experience	10 - 30	30%	6
Non-Educational-Administratively Related Experiences	13 - 30	43%	5
Necessity of Ph.D. or Ed.D. Degree	14 - 30	47%	4

Summary of Experience and BackgroundVariables and Relation to Mobility

All sixteen qualifying superintendents were placed in either cell number one or cell number two. Cell membership was necessary in order to determine the direction of mobility for each superintendent. Cell membership was determined for each superintendent according to a student enrollment ratio which was based on the student enrollment of the current and previous district. The median for all student enrollment ratios was 1.53. Those superintendents with a ratio above 1.53 were placed in cell number one. Those superintendents with a ratio below 1.53 were placed in cell number two.

All background and experience data were presented and analyzed according to cell membership. The actual data were also compared to data collected apriori which resulted in the development of a hypothetical profile of the mobile superintendent.

The following summary applies to the selected background and experience variables and their relationship, or lack of, to the mobility patterns of the qualifying superintendents:

1. Experience as a principal indicates that those superintendents with more extensive experience in the principalship, beyond that required for certification, would tend to move from small district to small district.

The hypothetical profile ranked principalship experience as first in contributing to the mobility of superintendents. This finding applies primarily to superintendents in cell number two.

2. Central office experience was more extensive for those superintendents who moved to larger district superintendencies. Superintendents with less extensive central office experience tended to move to superintendencies of approximately equal size.

The hypothetical profile ranked central office experience as third in contributing to the mobility of superintendents. This ranking would be more applicable to superintendents in cell number one.

3. Experience as superintendent-total years and current district indicates overall stability.

This stability was demonstrated in the current districts served, as well as for the transition from district to district. Superintendents in cell number one had more extensive experience in overall years in the superintendency, as well as service in the current district than superintendents in cell number two.

The hypothetical profile ranked experience in the superintendency as second in contributing to the mobility of the superintendent. Four to six years of experience in the superintendency was the minimum experience according to the profile. While all qualifying superintends were found to exceed the 4-6 year level of experience in the superintendency, as suggested by the hypothetical profile, no relationship could be established between cell membership and total number of years served as superintendent.

4. Out of state administrative experience was not found to be a significant variable to the mobility patterns of the qualifying superintend-

ents.

The hypothetical profile ranked out of state administrative experience as sixth, and least necessary to the mobile superintendent.

5. The hypothetical profile ranked non-educational administrative experiences as the fifth, or next to last, variable contributing to superintendent mobility. No relationship could be established between cell membership and non-educational administrative experiences. However, thirteen of the sample superintendents had held various non-educational administrative positions and felt that these positions had contributed to the skills necessary to perform successfully in their present jobs.

6. Highest degree earned was not found to be a significant variable to the mobility patterns of the qualifying superintendents. Cell membership was not related to this variable.

The hypothetical profile ranked the need for a doctoral level degree as fourth in importance to the mobile superintendent. While no relationship could be established between highest

degree earned and mobility, ten superintendents did hold doctorates which may indicate a relationship between highest degree earned and achieving and retaining a superintendency.

Leadership/Management Styles of Qualifying
Superintendents-Relation to
Cell Membership

The instrument used to determine the management styles of the qualifying superintendents was the Management Style Diagnosis Test by W. J. Reddin.

Reddin proposed two dimensions of managerial style: task orientation . . . the extent to which a manager directs his subordinates' efforts toward goal attainment, characterized by planning, organizing, and controlling; relationships orientation . . . the extent to which a manager has personal job relationships, characterized by mutual trust, respect for subordinates' ideas, and consideration of their feelings.

Four effective leadership styles were listed by Reddin: the bureaucrat; the developer; the benevolent autocrat; and the executive. The ineffective leadership styles were: the deserter; the missionary; the autocrat;

and the compromiser.

A description of each leadership style follows:

Bureaucrat

A manager who is using a low task orientation and a low relationships orientation in a situation where such behavior is appropriate and who is therefore more effective. Seen as being primarily interested in rules and procedures for their own sake, and as wanting to maintain and control the situation by their own use. Often seen as conscientious.

Developer

A manager who is using a high relationships orientation and a low task orientation in a situation where such behavior is appropriate and who is therefore more effective. Seen as having implicit trust in people and as being primarily concerned with developing them as individuals.

Benevolent Autocrat

A manager who is using a high task orientation and a low relationships orientation in a situation where such behavior is appropriate and who is therefore more effective. Seen as knowing what he

wants and knowing how to get it without creating resentment.

Executive

A manager who is using a high task orientation and a high relationships orientation in a situation where such behavior is appropriate and who is therefore more effective. Seen as a good motivator who sets high standards, who treats everyone somewhat differently and who prefers team management.

Deserter

A manager who is using a low task orientation and a low relationships orientation in a situation where such behavior is inappropriate and who is therefore less effective. Seen as uninvolved and passive.

Missionary

A manager who is using a high relationships orientation and a low task orientation in a situation where such behavior is inappropriate and who is therefore less effective. Seen as being primarily interested in harmony.

Autocrat

A manager who is using a high task orientation and a low relationships orientation in a situation where such behavior is inappropriate and who is therefore less effective. Seen as having no confidence in others, as unpleasant, and as being interested only in the immediate job.

Compromiser

A manager who is using a high task orientation and a high relationships orientation in a situation that requires a high orientation to only one or neither and who is therefore less effective. Seen as being a poor decision maker and as one who allows various pressures in the situation to influence him too much. Seen as minimizing immediate pressures and problems rather than maximizing long term production.

Each of the sixteen qualifying superintendents was asked, during the interview, to complete the management style instrument.

The data were compiled according to cell membership as had been done with previous variables selected for the study. There was no one management style which was

significantly dominant (see Table 5).

During the interviews, superintendents did not express any noticeable concern for the management style which would be indicated by the completed questionnaire. However, of the sixteen completed instruments, concern for the results was evidenced since several instruments had been tabulated by the qualifying superintendents as far as was possible. The interview data indicated a rather significant overall concern on the parts of the superintendents to ascertain their particular management/leadership styles prior to exposure in the study.

One particular superintendent not only completed all of the scoring from the instrument but also had written in the specific managerial style which was interpreted for his scores, that is, executive. This particular superintendent did not have the factors from the researcher, which when applied during scoring, changed the managerial style to developer. This specific reference is made in order to emphasize the concern the qualifying superintendents seemed to indicate with the submittal of the completed management style instrument.

There would seem to be little significance to one dominant managerial style on the basis of cell membership:

TABLE 5

LEADERSHIP/MANAGEMENT STYLE OF QUALIFYING SUPERINTENDENTS
 CELL NUMBER ONE (C₁) AND
 CELL NUMBER TWO (C₂)

<u>C₁Superintendents</u>	<u>Management Style</u>	<u>C₂Superintendents</u>	<u>Management Style</u>
1 - G	Developer	1 - P	Executive
1 - Q	Deserter	1 - A	Developer
1 - N	Executive	1 - L	Executive
1 - E	Developer	1 - H	Compromiser
1 - C	Executive	1 - D	Developer
1 - B	Developer	1 - K	Developer
1 - F	Executive	1 - R	Missionary
1 - M	Compromiser	1 - J	Bureaucrat

within cell number one the styles of developer, with three, and executive, with three, were most frequent. Within cell number two, the styles of developer, with three, and executive, with two, were most frequent.

For all sixteen qualifying superintendents, regardless of cell membership, the style of developer was most frequent with six superintendents being scored with this style.

Of those managerial styles described by Reddin as being ineffective, cell number one superintendents had two, as did cell number two. Little significance according to cell membership, and less effective leadership styles, can be concluded from the data.

Responses from the managerial style instruments, and the interviews seem to indicate that the managerial styles of developer and executive, with an emphasis on a high relationship orientation, does allow for more movement from one district superintendency to another. The management style of developer, while related to mobility, does not relate to cell membership or to selected background variables.

Mention should be made of the fact that there was no particular leadership style, or pattern, which was

significant for movement from smaller to larger districts, or the converse. One could conclude that the leadership style for the qualifying superintendents was more an indication of the most appropriate style necessary for each school district served, and thus, may change with movement to another school district. Situational leadership is consistent with the concepts presented in the review of literature.

A comparison and analysis of responses of management style (see Table 5) and reasons given by superintendents (specific and general) for changing school districts (see Table 8A and 8B) did not identify any significant relationships between these two variables. Since the managerial styles of developer and executive are high relationship oriented, one would expect that persons identified as having a developer or executive management style would have few interpersonal relationship problems. However, although the sample superintendents of this study were most frequently identified as possessing developer or executive management styles, twenty-five percent of the respondents stated that problems with their previous boards had been the specific reason for changing school districts. This apparent inconsistency could be the

result of several factors; one, responses to the Reddin instrument may be inconsistent with actual practice; two, board problems as a reason for leaving a district can focus on reasons other than interpersonal relationship problems; three, board problems as a reason for leaving a school district may be a "scapegoating" technique.

Responses from the hypothetical profile of the mobile superintendent ranked the managerial style of executive as being the most significant to the mobile superintendent. Eighty percent of the superintendents contributing to the development of the profile concluded that the managerial style of executive with its high relationship and task orientation was more significant to the mobile superintendent (see Table 6).

The second highest ranking from the profile was that of benevolent autocrat with forty-seven percent of the contributing superintendents concluding that this managerial style would be most significant to the mobile superintendent.

As previously presented, the most frequent managerial style indicated by the qualifying superintendents was that of developer with its emphasis toward a high relationships orientation.

TABLE 6

HYPOTHETICAL PROFILE OF MOBILE SUPERINTENDENT
LEADERSHIP/MANAGEMENT STYLE-
RELATIONSHIP TO MOBILITY

<u>Importance</u>	<u>Management Style</u>	<u>Raw Score</u>	<u>Percentage</u>	<u>Rank</u>
Most Significant	Executive	24/30	80%	1
Moderately Significant	Benevolent Autocrat	14/30	47%	2
Slightly Significant	Developer	13/30	43%	3
Little, if any Significance	Bureaucrat	24/30	80%	4

The actual managerial styles which were most frequent, developer and executive, and the most frequent managerial styles from the profile, executive and benevolent autocrat, all have in common a high relationships orientation.

The interviews with the qualifying superintendents gave either a direct, or indirect significance to interpersonal relationships as being the most important aspect of leadership/management style. The interview data were consistent with the results of the Reddin instrument. If one can conclude that the data are valid, then superintendents should develop interpersonal relationship skills in order to provide a more open and democratic approach in working with boards of education.

In relation to leadership/management style, all superintendents were asked to respond to the following question:

How adequate was your background experience(s) in the development of the management style you most often use as a superintendent?

The responses were requested according to the following criteria:

1. Extremely inadequate

2. Very inadequate
3. Inadequate
4. Adequate
5. Very adequate
6. Extremely adequate

(see Table 7A).

Superintendents in cell number one had a mean score of 4.6, and a mode of 4.0 in response to this question. Superintendents in cell number two had a mean score of 4.6, and a mode of 5.0 to the identical question.

These responses indicate a rather consistent support for on the job, practical types of experiences for educational experiences. This concern for on the job related experiences and the relationship to management style were not related to cell membership. Superintendents, as previously stated, in both cells evidenced a mean score of 4.6, or a narrative rating between average and very adequate for the relationship between background experiences and the development of the leadership/management style they most displayed as superintendent.

For the same variable, some recognition should be made of differences in mode for the responses of superintendents in cell number one, and superintendents in cell

TABLE 7-A

DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE OR UNIMPORTANCE GIVEN TO RELATIONSHIP
 BETWEEN BACKGROUND EXPERIENCE(S) AND THE
 DEVELOPMENT OF THE LEADERSHIP/
 MANAGEMENT STYLE MOST
 USED AS A SUPERINTENDENT

Cell Number One

Extremely Inadequate	1						○
Very Inadequate	2					○	
Inadequate	3			○			
Adequate	4		4				
Very Adequate	5	3					
Extremely Adequate	6	1					

How adequate was your background experience(s) in the development of the management style you most often use as a superintendent

Mean: 4.6
 Mode: 4.0

Cell Number Two

Extremely Inadequate	1						○
Very Inadequate	2					○	
Inadequate	3			1			
Adequate	4		2				
Very Adequate	5	4					
Extremely Adequate	6	1					

How adequate was your background experience(s) in the development of the management style you most often use as a superintendent

Mean: 4.6
 Mode: 5.0

number two. Superintendents in cell number one had a mode of 4.0 (adequate) for responses to this variable. Superintendents in cell number two had a mode of 5.0 (very adequate) for responses to the same variable.

The difference in mode scores may possibly indicate a more significant acceptance, for superintendents in cell number two, of the relationship between their background experiences and the leadership/management style they most often display as superintendents.

Interview data indicated that superintendents from both cells viewed their leadership/management styles as being situational and thus contingent on the needs of the current school district, staff, and community, rather than a style that is fixed.

With the idea of leadership/management style still being considered, all superintendents were asked to respond to the following question, using the identical six point criteria from extremely inadequate to extremely adequate:

How adequate was your educational training in the development of the management style you most often use as a superintendent?

(see Table 7B).

TABLE 7-B

DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE OR UNIMPORTANCE GIVEN TO RELATIONSHIP
 BETWEEN EDUCATIONAL TRAINING AND THE
 DEVELOPMENT OF THE LEADERSHIP/
 MANAGEMENT STYLE MOST
 USED AS A SUPERINTENDENT

Cell Number One

Extremely Inadequate	1					0
Very Inadequate	2				1	
Inadequate	3			0		
Adequate	4		5			
Very Adequate	5		2			
Extremely Adequate	6	0				

How adequate was your educational training in the development of the management style you most often use as a superintendent

Mean: 4.0
 Mode: 4.0

Cell Number Two

Extremely Inadequate	1					0
Very Inadequate	2				0	
Inadequate	3			3		
Adequate	4		2			
Very Adequate	5		2			
Extremely Adequate	6	1				

How adequate was your educational training in the development of the management style you most often use as a superintendent

Mean: 4.1
 Mode: 3.0

Superintendents in cell number one had a mean score of 4.0, and a mode of 4.0 in response to this question. These responses indicate that the qualifying superintendents viewed their formal educational training as being adequate for the development of several managerial styles which may be utilized in various situations. Superintendents in cell number two had a mean score of 4.1, or adequate, and a mode score of 3.0 for the same question.

The responses from superintendents to the educational training significance to managerial style would seem to place a higher value on practical experience than on formal educational coursework preparation as an important contributor to the development of a managerial style.

The differences between superintendents from cell number one and cell number two in responses to this question were rather minimal. However, some attention should be directed to the differences in mode scores. Superintendents in cell number one had a mode of 4.0 with five responses rating educational training to be at least adequate to the development of a managerial style. Superintendents in cell number two had a mode of 3.0 with three responses indicating a rating of inadequate for the same

question. In these instances the mode is more revealing than the means because the mode expresses frequency of responses and with a small sample, the mean response is not adequate for analysis.

The interviews revealed consistent support from superintendents concerning the value of practical, in-the-field, kinds of experiences for administrators. Formal coursework leading to additional degrees, particularly at the doctoral level were important only to the extent that these degrees can allow some "doors of opportunity", as one superintendent called them, to be opened which would not be available without the doctoral degree. Since the superintendents in this study expressed a need for practical experiences, various professional administrative organizations should respond to the need by expanding their activities in order to assist school administration in coping with a variety of administrative issues.

The following summary applies to the leadership/management styles of the qualifying superintendents, and the relation of these styles to mobility:

1. There was no one dominant management style for the superintendents in cell number one, nor for the superintendents in cell number two.

2. The management style of developer, with an emphasis on high relationship orientation and a low task orientation, was the most frequently identified style since three superintendents from cell number one, and three superintendents from cell number two were so identified.
3. The management style of executive, with an emphasis on high relationship and task orientation, was the second most frequently identified style with three superintendents in cell number one, and two superintendents in cell number two so rated.
4. There was no one management style which was more significant to the direction of mobility, that is, from smaller to larger districts, from larger to smaller districts, or from districts of a particular size to districts of equal size.
5. The style of developer does seem to be more significant to movement from one district to subsequent districts.
6. There were no significant relationships between the identified managerial styles of the

qualifying superintendents, and the specific and general reasons given for changing school districts.

7. Even though sixty-five percent of the sample superintendents were identified as having a high relationship oriented management style, the interview data, at the same time indicated that some of these same superintendents left their previous school district due to problems with their school boards. While all board problems are not interpersonal in nature, it is likely, in some instances, that interpersonal problems with board members did exist. If this assumption is true, then the data would be inconsistent with actual practice.
8. Responses from the hypothetical profile of the mobile superintendent ranked the managerial style of executive as being most significant to the mobile superintendent. As previously stated, there was no dominant managerial style indicated from the actual data from the qualifying superintendents.
9. Responses from qualifying superintendents pro-

vided consistent support for the relationship between a managerial style and background experiences. Their support was not altered by cell membership. Formal educational training was not found to be significant to the development of the managerial style of the qualifying superintendents.

Reasons Given for Changing Superintendencies/

Relation to Cell Membership

All superintendents were asked the following questions, during the interview: what was your specific reason(s) for changing school districts? What do you believe are the general reasons that superintendents change school systems? (see Tables 8A and 8B). Superintendents were also asked if they had secured the current superintendency with involvement from the Illinois Association of School Boards, I. A. S. B.

Of the qualifying superintendents, only one reported to have left the previous school district not by choice. All fifteen remaining superintendents had left of their own accord. The reader is reminded that a limitation of this study is the honesty and candidness of respondees.

TABLE 8-A

REASONS (SPECIFIC AND GENERAL) GIVEN BY SUPERINTENDENTS
FOR CHANGING SCHOOL DISTRICTS . . . CELL NUMBER ONE

<u>Identification Code</u>	<u>Specific Reason for Change of School District</u>	<u>General Reasons Superintendents Change School Districts</u>	<u>Involvement of Illinois Association of School Boards</u>
1 - G	By Choice-Career Plan	Stepping Stone	No
1 - Q	By Choice-Family	Money	No
1 - N	By Choice-Challenge	Status	No
1 - E	By Choice-District Reorganization	Career Plan	Yes
1 - C	By Choice-Board Problems	Power	No
1 - B	By Choice-Minority Superintendent Needed	Family	Yes
1 - F	By Choice-Board Problems	Money	Yes
1 - M	By Choice-Too Long in one place	Too Much Heat	No

TABLE 8B

REASONS (SPECIFIC AND GENERAL) GIVEN BY SUPERINTENDENTS
FOR CHANGING SCHOOL DISTRICTS . . . CELL NUMBER TWO

<u>Identification Code</u>	<u>Specific Reason for Change of School District</u>	<u>General Reasons Superintendents Change School Districts</u>	<u>Involvement of Illinois Association of School Boards</u>
1 - P	By Choice- District Reorganization	Money	Yes
1 - A	By Choice- Larger District	Career Plan	Yes
1 - L	By Choice- District Reorganization	Challenge	Yes
1 - H	By Choice- Board Problems	Board Relations	Yes
1 - D	By Choice- Position Offered	Board Relations	No
1 - K	By Choice-Family	Career Plan	No
1 - R	By Choice- Board Problems	Money	Yes
1 - J	Not By Choice- District Too Large	Personal Problems	No

The aspect of voluntary mobility for all but one of the sixteen superintendents is rather inconsistent with the literature and conversation within the field of education administration. This information portrays the superintendency as a "hotseat" type of position involving the forced removal of superintendents on a rather consistent basis. It may be that superintendents see the "handwriting on the wall" and move before being forced to. It may also be true, that the superintendency has unfairly been labeled as a "hotseat" since superintendents do leave voluntarily after a short tenure within a school district.

Of the responses given to the first question, there was not a particular pattern identified concerning the reason(s) behind changing superintendencies.

Cell membership for the superintendents did not seem to provide any significant differences in responses to the first question either. The aspect of a challenge, or mobility as part of an overall career plan was stated by two superintendents in cell number one, and one superintendent in cell number two. In response to the first question having to do with the specific reason(s) each superintendent had changed school districts, only two

superintendents had stated career plan, or the challenge aspect of the new district. But during the interviews, each of the sixteen superintendents had indicated either the need for a career plan, the challenges inherent in coming to the new school system, or both.

One superintendent in particular was very expressive of the importance of freedom of movement for the mobile superintendent. By this freedom, he was referring to the fact that he did not have any family commitments, or responsibilities, and was then able to move as he wished with no second thoughts as to the resultant effect this move would have on a family. He also had a very particular career plan. In contrast to the previously described superintendent, another superintendent had changed superintendencies because of a family circumstance which required him to work in the Chicago area. This superintendent had, as he stated, "no goal, career plan, or desire to be an administrator." Both of these superintendents were from cell number one, and their responses were expressed in order to demonstrate the wide range of reasons and backgrounds given by superintendents who were even of the same cell membership.

The impact of reasons beyond the control of sup-

erintendents is demonstrated by the fact that there were three superintendents who changed school districts due to district reorganizations creating unit district school systems. Another superintendent had left a previous superintendency which served a largely minority student population. He felt a minority superintendent was necessary, and after finding a qualified minority candidate for the board, he moved to the current school system.

Perhaps the most memorable response to the question regarding reason(s) for changing school districts was given by the superintendent who revealed that he had, the previous evening, resigned his current superintendency, effective at the end of the school year. His reason for deciding to resign were board related problems, however, he was reluctant to be more specific. This ambiguity in regards to "board problems" was consistently a problem in this study.

Of the responses given to the second question, general reasons(s) superintendents change districts, there was no particular overall pattern for changing shown by all qualifying superintendents, nor a pattern according to cell membership (see Tables 8A and 8B).

Most superintendents, regardless of cell member-

ship, did emphasize the challenges and the inherent risks involved in changing school districts. The challenges and risks to the second question seemed to relate primarily to the area of board relations. As one superintendent stated, "How much can you take, before you say, 'NO', that's enough." Another superintendent speaking to the matter of board relations emphasized that the mobile superintendent, "should be more flexible and not in need of security, once the need for security sets in then integrity diminishes."

One superintendent stressed the conflict relationship which he felt is inherent to any type of managerial/administrative position and that superintendents, in particular, should be ready to move at least two or three times: "the position of superintendent of schools is a career position, but you do not have to remain in one place as superintendent in order to enhance a career." It was the same superintendent who emphasized the point, that too many administrators do not investigate prospective superintendencies. The field of educational administration, reported the superintendent, does not have enough people who are ready, and willing to move to new jobs, challenges, and, of course, problems.

The aspect of always being ready to change was found to be important to at least three superintendents. To these superintendents, being ready had to do with always having an up-to-date resume and vita; maintaining constant contact with university and college placement offices; applying for positions just to go through the interview as a good training format for administrators.

Finally, as a general reason that superintendents change districts, one superintendent stated . . . "they change for altruistic reasons. They can give a great deal and are anxious to contribute to the lives of other people. The superintendency should be a mission that allows the people within it to have an impact on people, and to help children grow." For this reason, this superintendent felt that superintendents should change districts in order to provide their expertise, leadership, and insights to more than just one institution. This superintendent was identified as an executive according to the Reddin instrument. This style is consistent with his remarks. However, one should remember that only one superintendent gave "sharing of expertise" as a reason for changing school districts.

The involvement of the Illinois Association of

School Boards in conducting superintendent vacancy searches was indicated by three superintendents in cell number one, and five of the superintendents in cell number two (see Tables 8A and 8B). Thus, the smaller districts from cell number one tend to use the services of I. A. S. B., more than the larger districts of cell number two. This would seem to apply, since of all eight districts having had an I. A. S. B. involvement, the largest had a student enrollment of 3700 while the smallest had a student enrollment of 400.

A comparison and analysis of responses of management style (see Table 5) and specific and general reasons for changing superintendencies (see Tables 8A and 8B) did not identify any significant relationships between these two variables. Previous comparison between these two variables had brought attention to the frequency of the developer and executive managerial styles and the high relationship orientations that are a part of the makeup of these styles.

The following summary applies to the specific and general reasons given by the qualifying superintendents, and the relation of these reasons for change to mobility:

1. Only one superintendent reported to have left

the previous school district not by choice. The fifteen remaining superintendents had changed districts of their own accord.

2. Reasons for changing, specific or general, did not indicate any significant relationship to cell membership for superintendents.
3. Board related problems was most frequently cited by superintendents as the specific reason for changing school districts. No specific "board problems" were identified.
4. Of the general reasons given for changing school systems, there was no significant overall pattern, or relationship to cell membership indicated.
5. School boards from cell number two were more frequently associated with the Illinois Association of School Boards in securing the current superintendency than were those school boards in cell number one.
6. There was no significant relationship identified between leadership/management style, and specific and general reasons given for changing school districts.

Interview Data

Much of the information gathered during the interviews was noted in prior sections of Chapter IV. There was often a commonality of responses from superintendents in cell number one and superintendents in cell number two. A summary and analysis of such responses follows:

All interviewed superintendents were positively responsive to the request that a managerial style diagnosis instrument was to be administered during the interview. The results of the instrument were requested by all but three superintendents who participated in the study.

The validation of Questionnaire Number Two indicated a rather consistent amount of discussion relative to the ranking of the background experiences, and formal educational training in the development of each superintendent's managerial style. In summary, the interviews gave much stronger support to practical administrative experiences than to formal coursework completed.

Each superintendent was requested to identify which background experience he had found to be most significant to the career of a mobile superintendent. Other

than the principalship, and some private business experience, there was not a great deal of emphasis placed on other areas of experience by the participating superintendents. Most of the superintendents concentrated on the business and responsibilities of their current superintendency.

When superintendents were asked to give the specific reason they had left the previous superintendency, there was an obvious effort made by all those interviewed to be quite candid, specific, and on the surface, an appreciation of the opportunity to respond to the question. The responses seemed to manifest a certain urgency for most participating superintendents to give the specific reason, but to make certain the explanation following the reason was not so specific as to be negative concerning the background of the superintendent himself. As the data revealed, only one of the sixteen participating superintendents indicated that he had left the previous district involuntarily.

The general reason given by superintendents for persons changing superintendencies was that of a career pattern. This career pattern was revealed in seven of the sixteen interviews. There was the aspect of board

related problems, or "too much heat" as one superintendent stated, in four of the sixteen interviews.

The interviews did not reveal a noticeable difference in manner for superintendents in cell number one or superintendents in cell number two. It should be noted that those superintendents from the smaller school districts (under 1,000 student enrollment) seemed to be more impressed with the fact that they had qualified for inclusion in the study (due to their mobility) than were those superintendents from the larger school districts.

All participating superintendents were aware of the positive effects of having been superintendent of schools in a previous district. The superintendents were, on the whole, cognizant of the risks and challenges available to the mobile superintendent.

Summary

Review and analysis of responses from questionnaires and interviews did not reveal any significant differences in leadership/management style for superintendents in cell number one or superintendents in cell number two.

The most frequent leadership/management style was

that of developer with the executive style second in frequency. Both of these leadership/management styles stress a high relationships orientation which may be somewhat inconsistent with the most frequent reason given by superintendents for changing school districts, that is, board related problems if one assumes that board problems are relationship problems.

Superintendents in cell number one revealed higher years of experience at the central office level, while superintendents in cell number two had more years in the principalship. Superintendents in cell number one also had more experience in the superintendency than did superintendents in cell number two. Experience in the principalship was emphasized, during the interviews, as most important to the majority of superintendents in cell number two.

Responses from the hypothetical profile of the mobile superintendent were somewhat appropriate to actual data. The profile gave the following experiences (in rank order priority) as being most important to the mobile superintendent: experience as a principal; experience as a superintendent; experience at the central office level; completion of a doctoral level degree; non-educational

tional, but administratively related experiences; out of state administrative experiences.

There did not seem to be one pattern of background or experiences variables that was applicable to the mobile superintendent. However, cell membership did reveal higher levels of experience of superintendents from cell number one in central office related positions, in the superintendency, and in non-educational, but administratively related experiences. The most significant experience for superintendents from cell number two was that of the principalship.

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This study has three major purposes: (1) to determine if there is a relationship between management style and mobility; (2) to determine if a relationship exists between selected variables and mobility (prior building level experience, prior central office experience, advanced degrees, extensive and prior experience as a superintendent, out of state administrative experience, non-educational but administratively related experience); (3) to examine the reasons why superintendents move from one school district to another.

To accomplish the purposes of the study a target population consisting of all current elementary districts in Cook and DuPage Counties was selected. All elementary district superintendents were mailed a questionnaire to determine if they qualified for inclusion in the study.

The study sample consisted of sixteen superintend-

ents who met the following criteria: the superintendent must have evidenced mobility as a superintendent, and the previous superintendency must have been in an elementary school district. The qualifying superintendents were mailed a second questionnaire requesting demographic information listed in purpose number two, and also that each superintendent rate his background experiences and educational training relative to their importance in the development of the managerial style most often used as a superintendent.

In order to determine the direction of mobility, all superintendents were placed in cell number one or cell number two according to a student enrollment ratio. The ratio for each superintendent was concluded by dividing the student enrollment of the previous district during the superintendent's final year, into the student enrollment for the current district. All ratios were rank ordered from largest to smallest and the median ratio was determined. Those eight superintendents above the median ratio were placed in cell number one, and the eight superintendents below the median were placed in cell number two.

All qualifying superintendents were contacted and

did consent to an interview. The interviews had the following purposes: (1) to administer a management style diagnosis instrument; (2) to validate the second questionnaire; (3) to explain and review specific elements of the hypothetical profile of the mobile superintendent; (4) to ascertain the validity of each aspect of the hypothetical profile of the mobile superintendent; (5) to determine the various reasons the superintendents had changed school districts; (6) to probe and clarify tangential areas from the second questionnaire.

The hypothetical profile of the mobile superintendent served as the basis for discriminating between those background characteristics and management/leadership styles which are common to superintendents in cell number one as compared to the background characteristics and management/leadership styles of superintendents in cell number two. Data collected from the hypothetical profile were compared with all actual data from the questionnaires and interviews with the qualifying superintendents.

Conclusions

From the data several general conclusions can be

reached:

- I. Comparison of data from the hypothetical profile of the mobile superintendent with the actual data from questionnaires and interviews did not indicate a general relationship between the profile superintendent and the participating superintendents. However, the following conclusions are noted:
 - A. Extensive experience as a principal is not positively related to movement to larger district superintendencies.
 - B. Superintendents from the sample were well beyond, in years of experience, the four to six years of experience suggested for superintendents in the profile.
 - C. Non-educational administrative experience is not a factor related to movement to larger district superintendencies.
 - D. The actual non-educational experiences of superintendents moving to larger districts warrants a higher priority than that given by the hypothetical profile.
- II. There was no overall relationship between mo-

bility and the selected background and experience variables. However, the following conclusions are noted:

- A. Superintendents from cell number two had more extensive experience as a principal.
- B. Superintendents from cell number one had more extensive experience in central office positions.
- C. All superintendents in this study, regardless of cell membership, had maintained their current superintendency for a mean of 7.7 years.

III. There was no overall relationship between a dominant leadership/management style and mobility. However, the following conclusions are noted:

- A. The management/leadership styles of developer and executive were most frequently identified. Both styles emphasize a high relationships orientation.
- B. There was no one management/leadership style more significant to the direction of mobility than any other style.

- C. The management/leadership style of developer was more significantly related to mobility, but not to direction of mobility, than any other management/leadership style. This conclusion is true regardless of cell membership or background variables.
 - D. There was no significant relationship between a particular management/leadership style and any specific or general reasons given for changing school districts.
- IV. There was no particular overall relationship between cell membership and specific and general reasons given by superintendents for changing school districts. However, the following conclusions are noted:
- A. Fifteen of the sixteen participating superintendents had left the previous superintendency of their own accord.
 - B. Board related problems was the most frequently cited specific reason for changing districts.
 - C. Superintendents from cell number two utilized the services of the Illinois Associ-

ation of School Boards more consistently than did superintendents in cell number one.

- D. There was no significant relationship between leadership/management style and specific and general reasons given for changing school districts.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are based on research data and the conclusions noted above:

1. If an individual wishes to move to larger school districts as superintendent, it is recommended that he acquire extensive experience in central office level administrative positions
2. Administrative experiences outside the field of education are recommended for individuals who aspire to superintendencies because of the transfer of competencies from one career field to another.
3. In order to move to superintendencies in larger school districts, it is recommended that, while some building level experience is necessary the individual should not spend an extensive number of years as a

principal, beyond that required for certification

4. A management/leadership style which emphasizes a high relationships orientation for working with people is recommended for superintendents who aspire to change school districts

5. Persons seeking the superintendency should pursue advanced degrees, specifically, the doctorate. While the doctorate does not relate to mobility, the degree does relate to achieving the first superintendency

6. Based upon the data from the interviews, superintendents should develop skills in the area of interpersonal relationships

7. Persons seeking a first superintendency should utilize the services of the Illinois Association of School Boards (I. A. S. B.) since the data would indicate that school boards do utilize these services

Recommendations for further study include addressing the following questions:

1. Replicate the study in another county or geographical area in order to generalize the data to a larger population.
2. Replicate the study to include women and minorities in order to determine if the data

would compare favorably with the results of this study.

3. Replicate the study using secondary level district superintendents as the sample in order to determine if the results would compare favorably with this study.
4. Replicate the study to consider the age of individuals in the sample to determine if there is a relationship between age, mobility, leadership/management style, and reasons for changing district superintendencies.
5. A study should be conducted to determine which aspects of non-educational experiences, if any, increase the competency level of the superintendency.
6. More thorough research should be conducted relative to the reasons superintendents express for changing school districts and the validity of those stated reasons.
7. A correlation between the Reddin instrument and other management style instruments should be conducted.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books

- Athos, Anthony G. and Coffey, Robert E. Behavior in Organizations: A Multidimensional View. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1968.
- Basil, Douglas C. Leadership Skills for Executive Action. New York: American Management Association, 1971.
- Bass, Bernard. Leadership, Psychology, and Organizational Behavior. New York: Harper & Row, 1960.
- Bird, Charles. Social Psychology. New York: D. Appleton Century Co., 1940.
- Bonner, Hubert. Group Dynamics. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1959.
- Browne, C. G. and Cohn, Thomas S. The Study of Leadership. Danville, IL.: Interstate Printers and Publishers, 1959.
- Carlson, Richard O. Executive Succession and Organizational Chance: Place-Bound and Career-Bound Superintendents of Schools. Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, The University of Chicago, 1962.
- Carnegie, Andrew. Triumphant Democracy or Fifty Years' March of the Republic. New York: Charles Scribner and Sons, 1886.
- Carter, Launor F. "On Defining Leadership." The Study of Leadership. Edited by C. G. Browne and Thomas S. Cohn. Danville, IL.: The Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc., 1958.

- Chemers, Martin M. and Fiedler, Fred E. Leadership and Effective Management. Glenview, IL.: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1974.
- Cronin, Joseph M. The Control of Urban Schools: Perspective on the Power of Educational Reformers. New York: The Free Press, 1973.
- Cubberly, Ellwood P. Public School Administration. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1929.
- Doll, Ronald C. Leadership to Improve Schools. Worthington, Ohio: C. A. Jones Publishing Co., 1972
- Dubin, R. Human Relations in Administration: Sociology of Organization, with Readings and Cases. New York: Prentice Hall, 1951.
- Ebell, Robert L. Encyclopedia of Educational Research. New York: Macmillan Co., 1969.
- Fiedler, Fred E. and Chemers, Martin M. Leadership and Effective Management. Glenview, IL.: Scott Foresman and Co., 1974.
- _____. A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967.
- Gardner, John W. EXCELLENCE: Can We be Equal and Excellent Too? New York: Harper & Row, 1962.
- Gibb, Cecil A. Leadership Handbook of Social Psychology. Edited by Gardner Lindzey. Cambridge, MA., 1954.
- Gilliand, Thomas M. The Origin and Development of Power and Duties of the City Superintendent. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935.
- Good, Carter V., ed. The Dictionary of Education, 3rd ed. New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1973.
- Gouldner, Alvin W. Studies in Leadership. New York: Harper & Bros., 1950.

Grieder, Calvin, Pierce, Truman, and Jordan, K. Forbis. Public School Administration, 3rd ed. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1969.

_____. Public School Administration, 3rd ed. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1969.

Griffiths, Daniel E. Behavioral Science and Educational Administration. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1964.

Hemphill, John K. Situational Factors in Leadership, Monograph No. 32. Columbus, OH.: The Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, 1949.

_____. Second Preliminary Report on A Proposed Theory of Leadership in Small Groups. Columbus, OH.: Ohio State University, 1965.

Hencley, Stephen P. McCleary, Lloyd E. and McGrath, J. H. Elementary School Principalship. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., 1970.

Hersey, P. and Blanchard, K. H. Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources. 2nd ed. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1972.

Homans, G. C. The Human Group. Chicago: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, 1950.

Jennings, H. H. Leadership and Isolation. New York: Loughmaus Green, 1943.

Katz, D. and Kahn, R. L. The Social Psychology of Organizations. New York: Wiley, 1966.

Knickerbocker, Irving. "Leadership: A Conception and Some Implications." Study of Leadership. Edited by C. G. Browne and Thomas S. Cohn. Danville, IL.: Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc., 1958.

Knezevich, Stephen J. ed. The American School Superintendent, an AASA Research Study. Arlington, VA.: American Association of School Administrators, 1971.

- _____. Administration of Public Education, 3rd ed.
New York: Harper & Row, 1975.
- _____. American School Superintendent, an AASA
Research Study.
- Linsmith, Alfred R. and Strauss, Anselm L. Social
Psychology. New York: Holt Rinehart & Winston,
1941
- Lippitt, Ronald and White, Ralph. "Leader Behavior and
Member Reaction in Three 'Social Climates' quoted
in Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander. Group
Dynamics. New York: Harper & Row, 1960.
- Meyers, Lawrence S. and Grossen, Neal E. Behavioral
Research: Theory, Procedure, and Design.
San Francisco: W. H. Freeman and Co., 1974.
- Moehlman, Arthur B. School Administration. Boston:
Houghton Mifflin, 1940.
- Newstetter, W. I., Felstein, M. J., and Newcomb, T. M.
Group Adjustment: A Study in Experimental Sociology.
Cleveland: Western Reserve University, 1938.
- Owens, Robert G. Organizational Behavior in Schools.
Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1970.
- Presthus, Robert. Organizational Society. New York:
Alfred A. Knopf, 1962.
- Reddin, W. J. Managerial Effectiveness. New York:
McGraw Hill, 1970.
- Tannenbaum, R., Weschler, I. R., and Massarik, F.
Leadership and Organization: A Behavioral Science
Approach. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961.
- Thompson, Victor A. Modern Organization. New York:
Alfred A. Knopf, 1961.
- Tyrack, David B. One Best System: A History of American
Urban Education. Cambridge, MA.: Harvard University
Press, 1974.

- VanDalen, Deobold. Understanding Educational Research.
New York: McKay Co., 1971.
- Vroom, V. H. Some Personality Determinants of the Effects
on Participation. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-
Hall, 1960.
- White, Leonard D. Introduction to the Study of Public
Administration. rev. ed. New York: Macmillan,
1939.

Periodicals

- Carlson, Richard O. "Succession and Performance Among
School Superintendents." Administration Science
Quarterly 6 (June 1961): 227.
- Cattell, R. B. "New Concepts for Measuring Leadership
in Terms of Group Syntality." Human Relations 4
(1951): 162.
- Coates, Charles H. and Pellegrini, Roland F. "Executives
and Supervisors: Informal Factors in Differential
Bureaucratic Promotion." Administrative Science
Quarterly vol.2 (September 1957): 202-209.
- Cowley, W. H. "Three Distinctions in the Study of
Leaders." Journal of Abnormal and Social
Psychology 23 (1928): 145.
- Davey, A. G. "Leadership in Relation to Group Achievement;
Fiedlers Model of Leadership." Educational Research
11 (June 1969): 186.
- Etziona, Amitai. "Human Beings are Not Very Easy To
Change After All." Saturday Review 3 (June 1972):
47.
- Fiedler, Fred D. "Trouble with Leadership Training is
That it Doesn't Train Leaders." Psychology Today
10 (February 1973): 38.

- Fiedler, F. E. "Note on the Methodology of Oraen, Orris, and Alvares Studies Testing the Contingency Model." Journal of Applied Psychology 55 (1971): 203.
- Fowler, Charles W. "How to Let Your Superintendent be a Superintendent." American School Board Journal 162 (September 1975): 22.
- Fultz, David S. "Eight Ways Superintendents Lose Their Jobs." American School Board Journal 163 (September 1976): 42-43.
- Geier, J. G. "Trait Approach to Study of Leadership in Small Groups." Journal of Communication 17 (December 1967): 322-23.
- Gouldner, Alvin W. "Cosmopolitans and Locals: Toward an Analysis of Latent Social Roles." Administrative Science Quarterly 11 (December 1957): 281-306.
- Henry, William E. "Business Executive: Psychodommics of a Social Role." American Journal of Sociology 4 (January 1949): 286-291.
- Hollander, Edwin P. "Style, Structure, and Setting in Organizational Leadership." Administrative Science Quarterly 16 (March 1971): 2.
- Jennings, Eugene E. "The Anatomy of Leadership." Management of Personnel Quarterly 1 (Autumn 1961): 403.
- Mullins, Carolyn. "Ways that School Boards Drive Their Superintendents Up the Wall." American School Board Journal 161 (August 1974): 17.
- Nealey, S. M. and Blood, M. R. "Leadership Performance of Nursing Supervisors at Two Organizational Levels" Journal of Applied Psychology 52 (1968): 414-22.

- Norman, M. Scott. "Current Problems of School Superintendent." Clearing House 46 (September 1971): 18.
- Powers, Thomas E. "Administrative Behavior and Upward Mobility." Administrators Notebook XV (September 1966): 1-4.
- Randle, C. W. "How to Identify Promotable Executives." Harvard Business Review 34 (3) (1956): 122-34.
- Reddin, W. J. "3-D Management Style Theory: A Typology Based on Task and Relationships Orientations." Training and Development Journal (April 1967): 11.
- Sergiovanni, Thomas J. "Is Leadership the Next Great Training Robbery." Education Leadership 36 (March 1979): 389.
- Sexton, Michael J. and Switzer, Karen Dawn Dill. "Educational Leadership: No Longer a Potpourri." Educational Leadership 35 (October 1979): 389.
- Stogdill, Ralph M. "Personal Factors Associated with Leadership: A Survey of Literature." Journal of Psychology 25 (1948): 64.
- Tannenbaum, Robert and Schmidt, Warren H. Harvard Business Review 36 (March-April 1958): 95.
- Travers, Edward P. "Eleven Pressures that Squeeze Superintendents-and Six Ways to Ease Them." American School Board Journal 165 (February 1978): 43.

Microform Reproductions

- Blanchard, Kenneth H. and Hersey, Paul. "Leadership Styles!": Best of ERIC No. 5. Eugene, OR.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 099 953, 1975.
- Carlson, Richard O. Career and Place Bound Superintendents: Some Sociological Differences. Eugene, OR.: ERIC Reproduction Service, ED 031 782, 1969.

Cuban, Larry. "Urban School Superintendency: A Century and a Half of Change." Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation: Fastback 77. ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 120 912, 1976.

Hendrix, William H. Contingency Approaches to Leadership. A Review and Synthesis, 1975. Texas: Lackland Air Force Base, ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 130 013, 1976 Air Force Human Relations Lab.

Reports

Csoka, L. S. and Fiedler, F. E. "Effect of Leadership Experience and Training in Structured Military Tasks." Seattle: University of Washington: ONR Technical Report No. 71-20. AD 729 237, July 1971.

Stockhouse, R. E., Phillips, V. F., and Owens, E. Frontiers of Leadership: United States Air Force Academy Program. Air Force Office of Scientific Research:, Technical Report AFOSR-TR-71-1857, quoting R. Tannenbaum, August 1971.

Papers

Bradshaw, F. H. "Illinois Twelve Grade Superintendent Mobility and Relationship to Selected Cost Quality Indices." Ph.D. Dissertation Illinois State University 1968.

Dolce, Carl J. "Superintendents Under Siege--Get the Leader." Paper presented at the 108th meeting of American Association of School Administrators, Atlantic City, N. J., 20-23 February, 1976.

APPENDIX
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

13837 South 85 Avenue
Orland Park, IL 60462
May 10, 1979

Dear B.A.S.A. Member

I am currently in the process of completing my Doctorate in Educational Administration at Loyola University. My dissertation deals with the career mobility patterns, background characteristics, and management styles of superintendents.

Your assistance is requested in the development of a Hypothetical Profile of the Vertically Mobile Superintendent. The purpose of this profile is to determine if there are differences in the management styles and background characteristics for superintendents who display certain types of career mobility.

All information will be kept strictly confidential and will be used for academic purposes only.

I have provided a self-addressed stamped envelope for your convenience. Please return this completed questionnaire on or before Friday, May 25, 1979.

I do appreciate your assistance in this matter.

Respectfully

Edward S. Noyes

attachment

BREMEN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

Cavallini's Restaurant
Thursday, May 10, 1979 - 12 Noon
Proposed Agenda

- I. Call to Order
- II. Treasurer's Report
- III. Progress report
- IV. CDB Consultant
- V. Ed Noyes, District 144, request for dissertation assistance
- VI. Nominating Committee for 1979-80 officers
- VII. Concerns of Districts
- VIII. Adjournment

13837 South 85 Avenue
Orland Park, IL 60462
June 13, 1979

Dear

I would like to take this opportunity to thank you and all of the members of the B.A.S.A. who have provided the information necessary for one phase of my Doctoral Dissertation.

The cooperation, sincerity, and time given to my request, both at the May meeting and in filling out the mobility questionnaire was most obvious and important.

Again, my thanks to you and all the B.A.S.A. members for their time and valuable assistance.

Respectfully

Edward S. Noyes

HYPOTHETICAL PROFILE FOR PANEL OF EXPERTS

The following questionnaire has been developed. It will be validated by a panel of experts, The Bremen Association of School Superintendents, prior to being used during the course of the study itself.

1. Is administrative experience at the building level essential for mobility? Yes _____ No _____

If yes, what type? _____

2. Is central office experience essential for mobility?

Yes _____ No _____ If yes, what type and area of

specialization? _____

3. Is an Advanced Degree (Post Masters) essential for mobility? Yes _____ No _____ If yes, what type and area of specialization? _____

4. Is extensive experience as a superintendent essential for mobility? Yes _____ No _____ If yes, how much experience? 1-3 years _____, 4-6 years _____, 7-10 years _____, Other _____, _____

5. Is out of state administrative experience important for mobility? Yes _____ No _____ If yes, what type? _____

6. Are certain non-educational, but administratively related experiences, essential for mobility?
Yes _____ No _____ If yes, what type? _____

7. Review the following management styles and rank order them according to their significance to mobility.

The following definitions are essential to the Management Style Components of the Profile Questionnaire:

Task Orientation (TO): The extent to which a manager directs his subordinates efforts toward goal attainment, characterized by planning, organizing, and controlling.

Relationships Orientation (RO): The extent to which a manager has personal job relationships; characterized by mutual trust, respect for subordinates ideas, and consideration of their feelings.

Effectiveness (E): The extent to which a manager achieves the output requirements of his position.

8a. The Bureaucrat

A manager who uses a low task orientation and a low relationships orientation in situations where such behavior is appropriate and who is therefore more effective. Seen as being primarily interested in rules and procedures for their own sake, and as wanting to maintain and control the situation by their own use. Often seen as conscientious.

8b. The Developer

A manager who uses a high relationship orientation and a low task orientation in situations where such behavior is appropriate and who is therefore more effective. This manager is seen as having implicit trust in people and as being primarily concerned with developing them as individuals.

8c. The Benevolent Autocrat

A manager who uses a high task orientation and a low relationships orientation in situations where such behavior is appropriate and who is therefore more effective. Seen as knowing what he want, and knowing how to get it without creating resentment.

8d. The Executive

A manager who uses a high task orientation and a high relationships orientation in situations where such behavior is appropriate and who is therefore more effective. Seen as a good motivator who sets high standards, who treats everyone somewhat differently, and who prefers team management.

8a The Bureaucrat	8b The Developer

8c The Benevolent Autocrat	8d The Executive

Give your ranking for each management style in terms of its significance to mobility.

1. Most Significant
2. Moderately Significant
3. Slightly Significant
4. Little, if any Significance

13837 South 85 Avenue
Orland Park, IL 60462
July 5, 1979

I am a graduate student at Loyola University of Chicago working on my doctoral dissertation. One phase of my research design requires me to secure from each elementary district superintendent in Cook and DuPage Counties, information concerning their mobility patterns (if any), and the student enrollment for those districts they have served as superintendent.

Please respond to the four questions listed on the attached questionnaire and return it to me in the enclosed, self-addressed, stamped envelope. All information is strictly confidential and shall be used only for academic purposes.

A limited number of respondents to the questionnaire will be asked to respond to a subsequent questionnaire, and a follow-up interview in the near future.

Your response by Tuesday, July 24, 1979, would be appreciated.

Thank you in advance for your consideration and attention to this request.

Sincerely

Edward S. Noyes

enclosures

SUPERINTENDENT. . . . QUESTIONNAIRE NUMBER ONE

NAME _____

Elementary District Number _____ County _____ Illinois

1. Have you changed superintendencies within the past four years?

Yes _____ No _____

2. Was the previous superintendency in an elementary school district?

Yes _____ No _____

3. What is the student enrollment of your present school district?

Please provide _____

4. What was the student enrollment of your previous school district during your final year as superintendent?

Please provide _____

13837 South 85 Avenue
Orland Park, IL 60462
July 29, 1979

I would like to thank you for responding to my request for assistance in the collection of data for my doctoral dissertation at Loyola University of Chicago.

As I had indicated in the first request, a limited number of superintendents would be asked to respond to a second, more detailed, questionnaire. The fact that you have changed elementary district superintendencies allows me to invite you to respond to the enclosed questionnaire.

I am interested in determining if there is a relationship between certain variables, that is, management style and personal background characteristics to superintendent mobility. In order to accomplish this I would like to arrange an interview with you at your convenience. The interview will have three major purposes:

Page two
July 29, 1978

1. To collect and validate your completed Questionnaire Number Two, which is enclosed
2. To ascertain reasons why superintendents change positions
3. To administer a short management style diagnosis instrument

I will be in contact with your office on or before Tuesday August 14, 1979, to schedule an interview time and date which is most convenient for you. The interview will require approximately one-half hour to complete.

Due to the small number of superintendents selected for this phase of the study, your continued cooperation is appreciated, and most essential to the completion of the study.

Again, I thank you in advance for your time and consideration.

Sincerely

Edward S. Noyes

enclosure

SUPERINTENDENT QUESTIONNAIRE NUMBER TWO

NAME _____

Elementary District Number _____ County _____ Illinois

Experience

Years of experience as principal _____

Secondary Level (9 - 12) _____

Elementary Level (K - 8) _____

Years of experience as administrator other than principal
of superintendent _____

In what capacity? (Title) _____

Years of experience as superintendent _____

Years of experience as superintendent in your present
district _____

Out of state administrative experience _____

In what capacity? (Title) _____

Years of non-educational, but administratively related
experiences _____

In what capacity? (Title) _____

Training

Highest educational degree _____

Major(s) _____

Minor(s) _____

Hours beyond this degree _____

Management Style

How adequate was your background experience(s) in the development of the management style you most often use as a superintendent?

(Please circle appropriate number to indicate your response)

1	2	3
Extremely Inadequate	Very Inadequate	Inadequate
4	5	6
Adequate	Very Adequate	Extremely Adequate

How adequate was your educational training in the development of the management style you most often use as a superintendent?

(Please circle appropriate number to indicate your response)

1	2	3
Extremely Inadequate	Very Inadequate	Inadequate
4	5	6
Adequate	Very Adequate	Extremely Adequate

13837 South 85 Avenue
Orland Park, IL 60462
November 23, 1979

Dear

I am most appreciative of the time and courtesy you recently extended me.

The information I gathered as a result of the interview will be very helpful in my analysis of the background characteristics and management styles of mobile superintendents.

I have enclosed the management style diagnosis instrument which you completed and which was then scored.

I would like to thank you again, for your assistance and look forward to meeting you in the future.

Sincerely

Edward S. Noyes

enclosure

APPROVAL SHEET

The dissertation submitted by Edward S. Noyes has been read and approved by the following committee:

Dr. Robert L. Monks, Director
Assistant Professor
Administration and Supervision
School of Education, Loyola

Dr. Melvin P. Heller
Chairman and Professor
Administration and Supervision
School of Education, Loyola

Dr. Max A. Bailey
Assistant Professor
Administration and Supervision
School of Education, Loyola

The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation is now given final approval by the Committee with reference to content and form.

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.

12-14-79
Date

Dr. Robert L. Monks
Director's Signature