1984

The Leader Behavior of Principals in Securing, Utilizing, and Maintaining Community Participation in the Design and Implementation of Alternative Educational Programs

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THE LEADER BEHAVIOR OF PRINCIPALS IN SECURING, UTILIZING, AND MAINTAINING COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN THE DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION OF ALTERNATIVE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

by

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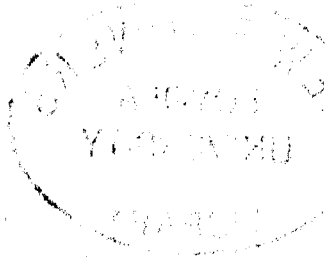
A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of Education of Loyola University of Chicago in Partial Fufillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Education

May

1984



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THE LEADER BEHAVIOR OF PRINCIPALS IN SECURING, UTILIZING, AND MAINTAINING COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN THE DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION OF ALTERNATIVE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

This dissertation analyzes the leader behavior of principals of three clusters of schools and two specialty schools that offer alternative educational programs in an urban setting. It uses their responses to the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire - Form XII of Stogdill. The principals' leader behavior scores on the twelve dimensions of the LBDQ - Form XII are then arranged from highest to lowest and comparisons are made using student's t-test.

Four hypotheses are tested to determine, (1) if there are significant differences between the top third and bottom third of the principal respondents on any of the twelve dimensions of the LBDQ - Form XII, (2) if there are significant differences between the mean scores of the principals of the three different clusters of schools on each of the twelve dimensions of the LBDQ - Form XII, (3) if there are significant differences between the mean scores of the teachers of the top third and bottom third of the principals on each of the

twelve dimensions of the LBDQ - Form XII and, (4) if there are significant differences between the mean scores of the school parents of the top third and the bottom third of the principals on each of the twelve dimensions of the LBDQ - Form XII.

The dissertation begins with a rationale for the study, the recognition of the call by the public for educational leadership and the significance of the study for implementation of alternative education programs in the public schools with community participation.

In order to better grasp the significance of the roles played by the community and the educational leader in the establishment of alternative educational programs throughout the history of the American Public Schools an inquiry is made into the related literature and research.

The final section discusses the findings, their implications for the success of alternative educational programs as a means of bringing about much needed change in the in the public schools of America, the significance of the leader behavior of principals and participation of the community in their success, and ends with recommendations for future research and a list of suggestions for the principal if he is to guarantee the success of alternative programs of education in his school.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author would like to express his sincere thanks and gratitude to his dissertation advisor, Dr. Max A. Bailey, Department of Administration and Supervision, for his expert guidance and direction. Appreciation is also expressed to Dr. Phillip M. Carlin, Department Chairman, Administration and Supervision for serving on the doctoral committee and for his encouragement and support, and Dr. Robert L. Monks, Director of Continuing Education for serving on the doctoral committee and for his advice and guidance toward the completion of this study.

Also acknowledged are: Dr. Morven Ngaiyaye, for assistance in the design of the study; Dr. James L. Carpenter, Principal of the DePriest School in Chicago, for his expert assistance and guidance in the processing of the data compilation; Mr. Neil Hastie, who made his computer facilities available for processing of the data; the principals, teachers and parents who participated in the study and the many colleagues and friends who supported my efforts.

Deep appreciation is given to Ohio State University and to Dr. Ralph M. Stogdill (now deceased) for his permission to use the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire in this doctoral research. Much is owed by many to Dr. Stogdill for the direction he gave to the study of leader behavior and its affect on organizations and organizational behavior.

For her many sacrifices, sharing of work and anxieties and for her wholehearted support every step of the way in the completion of

this endeavor, I dedicate these pages to my wife, Marie Patricia Bonello Miller. All has become possible because of her.

VITA

Seymour Miller was born 21 March, 1926 in Chicago, Illinois.

He attended the Wicker Park Elementary School in Chicago from which he graduated in June, 1939. He graduated from the Crane Technical High School in Chicago in June, 1943, the year he gained admission to the Illinois Institute of Technology on a William J. Cook Scholarship.

He was called to active duty in the United States Navy in May, 1944 and served until he was honorably discharged in February, 1947 as a United States Naval Pilot.

In February, 1947 he entered Roosevelt University in Chicago, Illinois, where he earned a Bachelor of Arts Degree in June, 1950. He earned a Master of Arts Degree in the Teaching of Mathematics in 1966 from Northeastern Illinois University.

Seymour Miller has twenty-four years of experience in education, nine years as a teacher of mathematics and fifteen years as an elementary school principal in the Chicago Public Schools.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction to the Problem

> It has become almost a cliche to lament the ineffectiveness of America's public schools. We are all familiar with the vast literature that has accumulated about the public schools shortcomings: the schools do not teach fundamental skills; their curriculum is not relevant to the times; they are rigid and closed; they employ inadequately trained teachers; they are not sufficiently businesslike in their management; and, to add the newest all-encompassing concept, they lack "accountability" ... A common observation made about schools by parents, teachers, and scholars alike is that they suffer from poor administrative leadership.[1]

About one year prior to the time this statement was made, editors of a publication issued by the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of Illinois titled, Action Goals for the Seventies, An Agenda for Illinois Education, had recognized:

> ...that the social changes of the 1950's and 1960's... led to a growing dissatisfaction with the quality of the educational process... and that in the late 1960's, taxpayers began to resist attempts at providing greater sums of money for an educational system which provided little evidence of qualitative success. More than 60% of local tax referenda (were) defeated.[2]

Recognizing the public's growing dissatisfaction with the quality of the educational process, Michael Bakalis, the Superintendent of Public Instruction of Illinois, saw a need to "open up" the process of educational decision-making to a broader segment of the state's population. He made the following comments in his inaugural address in January, 1971:

> Education in the 1970's will require more than constitutional directives; we need a reordering of our priorities to achieve not only an equalization of educational opportunity, but also a new level of educational quality.... It will call for a questioning of old assumptions regarding how educational decisions are made and by whom; regarding the role of teachers, students and parents; regarding the role of (the) legislature and the office I now enter. It will call for a participatory democracy which will truly make the educational enterprise a public one.[3]

At about the same time after ten years of litigation over the charge that the Chicago Board of Education engaged in student racial segregation, the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction requested the Chicago Public Schools to submit reports in accordance with the Rules Establishing Requirements and Procedures for the Elimination and Prevention of Racial Segregation in Schools for the period extending from 1963 through 1971.[4]

In 1976 the State Office of Education in reviewing the Chicago Public School's progress toward the elimination of student segregation since 1972 came to the conclusion that it was unsatisfactory and recommended that a comprehensive plan be developed and placed the Chicago Public Schools on Probationary Recognition status by the State Board of Education.

In January, 1977 the Chicago Board of Education adopted a resolution to develop, adopt, and implement a comprehensive Equal Educational Opporunity (Student Desegregation) Plan by Spring, 1978.

On May 5, 1977, District Education Councils and community organization representatives from the then 27 sub-districts met at the Museum of Science and Industry for the first City-Wide Advisory Committee Meeting.[5]

After the third CWAC meeting in July, 1977, an ESAA proposal for the funding of Career Development Centers, Academic Interest Centers, Integrated Basic Skills Programs, Clusters, Academy of Languages, and a Language Arts Academic Interest Center was recommended by Dr. Edward A. Welling, Jr., Project Manager.

It had become known that the general experience in many cities was that arbitrary reassignment in order to enhance integration in schools was not particularly effective. Indeed, resegregative trends outstripped the desegregative efforts.[6]

Community participants in the development of a Comprehensive Student Assignment Plan brought the message to bear on the educational professionals that desegregation efforts to desegregate the Chicago Public Schools could come to naught without the accompaniment of quality educational program offerings.

While the CWAC meetings were taking place, a clamour arose in areas of the city in which there were effective parent organizations. Local school councils and district education councils, demanded that alternative forms of education be made available through a planning process involving clusters of schools. Three such clusters were established on the North, South, and Central portions of the city.

In 1973 the National Commission on the Reform of Secondary Education urged that:

> Each district should provide a broad range of alternative schools and programs so that every student will have a meaningful educational option available to him.[7]

During the period from 1971 to 1977 substantial efforts were taking place among many private and public school systems to develop

education programs which offered alternatives or options. More and more choices and options began to appear within public school systems. The problem of schools and school systems became one of finding the mechanism which would prove most successful in bringing this change. Chicago, with its three clusters became a laboratory in which observers could see how the problems arose, how they were met, and how they were solved. In this laboratory leader behavior came under close scrutiny.

Statement of the Problem

Shared decision-making is a basic concept of alternative, humanistic, and responsible educational programs.[7]

Shared decision-making implies leader behavior on the part of the principal which would be high in consideration.

Not only would consideration be requisite behavior on the part of the principal but it would require perceptions on the part of the staff and parents that the principal indeed was high in consideration.[8]

Would consideration on the part of the principal indeed be observed in a school district which has chosen for various reasons to offer a range of alternative educational programs?

In a district such as Chicago where alternative programs were designed, chosen, and implemented under several different imprimaturs such as the General Superintendent, the sub-district superintendent, the community, and the school principal; did the leader behavior of the principals involved vary as perceived by teachers and parents? How did the perceptions of teachers and parents compare with the

self-perceptions of the principals? Were the perceived leader behaviors of the principals remarkably similar between these groups as a result of the need of shared decision making?

Significance of the Problem

It is not an overstatement to say that the public schools have increasingly been given more responsibilities such as providing breakfast and lunch, or providing bilingual and special education services with a decreasing amount of resources to meet them. In the decade 1963-1973 almost two-thirds of the school districts in Illinois had their local tax referenda defeated.[9] As recently as February 25, 1983 taxpayers turned down 86% of the school tax proposals which appeared in Chicago suburban ballots.[10]

As the National School Boards Association stated in its Yearbook of 1958.

> ...Underlying every problem of public education is the problem of how to enlist the understanding and support of the American Public as a whole. When people are accused of apathy toward the schools, it is usually because they do not know the facts regarding school conditions, needs and potentialities.[11]

Kindred stated in 1965:

> ...there is an obligation on the part of boards of education, administrative officers and other school employees to take the public into their confidence and to provide them with information they need in order that they understand the total educational program. The public must be made aware of the opportunities that are available for their participation in the total social task of making good schools even better.

He concluded:

> Experience has demonstrated conclusively that the more they become involved in school improvement, the less is the effort required for obtaining public moral and financial support.[12]

But how does a leader effect this participation in the face of public apathy? An indication of public apathy and the lack of interest on the part of professionals can be seen in the decreasing number of articles on citizen participation that appeared in the Education Index during three year periods between the years 1956 and 1968.[13]

In 1974, Lipham and Hoeh verified that in establishing and maintaining a viable program of school-community relations, "... relatively little attention has been paid to the role of the principal vis-a-vis the community.[14]

As Zander stated in the February, 1976 issue of the SEA Journal, "There are no guidelines or job descriptions, or textbook recipes which say how the principal is to operate. There are no landmarks which allow one to know that the product is completed and can now be replicated...."[15]

And yet, the most important single key to cooperation from the school is the attitude of the principal.[16]

The principal is the pivotal individual that cements the community and professional forces at work in the school. Both are needed for the stability and viability of the school yet neither can be permitted to topple the other.

A study of this type of leader behavior could bring fruitful results if it were to utilize extensive work that has been done by Ohio State University in its leadership studies. These studies yielded a very effective instrument for the study of leader behavior. It was the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LDBQ) of

Hemphill and Coons in 1957. A subsequent refinement called the LBDQ - Form XII was constructed by Stogdill in 1963 and has since provided a most effective instrument to describe and examine the leader behaviors we seek.

Rationale

A suggestion for the direction this investigation should take comes from two studies, one done in 1965 by Gross and Herriott and another done by Charles C. Wall in 1970.

In 1965, as a result of their study, Staff Leadership in Public Schools: A Sociological Inquiry, Gross and Herriott found empirical support for a leadership conception of the principal's role. That is, the more the principal exerted his executive professional leadership the more significantly he affected the functioning of his school.

In 1970, Charles C. Wall in his study, Perceived Leader Behavior of the Elementary School Principal as Related to Educational Goal Attainment, found that the leader behavior of the principal was a determinant of his school's ability to achieve a high level of Organizational Renewal.

In a book which Wall co-authored reporting on his study, he stated that a common observation made about schools by parents, teachers, and scholars alike was that they suffered from poor administrative leadership.[17] Yet, in his study which covered eighteen schools comprising The League of Cooperating Schools, which was established in 1965 by John Goodlad and sponsored by the Research Division of IDEA, he observed that some administrators of schools of

the League were able to adapt themselves to the pressure of change, to set goals for themselves, and achieve them while other schools in this same League floundered. The process through which schools were able to achieve their goals he called Organizational Renewal. He attempted to study and define the process and to relate it to various factors in the school's social system. He used the theoretical framework of the Getzels - Guba Model for analyzing behavior in a social system. Three components of the model were selected as the variables to be studied. They were (1) leader behavior, (2) teacher behavior, and (3) value orientations. The schools were then ranked on composite measures of the Organizational Renewal process. Wall then asked the question, "What is the relationship between a principal's perceived leader behavior and his school's ability to achieve a high level of organizational renewal?"[18]

To obtain this information all teachers were asked to describe their perceptions of their principal's perceived leader behavior and the principals were asked to describe their own leader behavior. Wall found the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire - Form XII to be the most effective instrument available to measure teacher's perceptions of principal leader behavior.[19]

He found that the principal's leader behavior did have some relationship to his school's Organizational Renewal. In the four schools which were ranked at the top in OR he found that the teachers perceived their principals as employing personal style behavior while in the four lowest ranked schools in OR the teachers perceived their principals as employing institutional style behavior.[20]

When pondering about the two studies mentioned above a question arises, once a school has been determined as functioning smoothly and once it has adopted a stance of accepting organizational renewal in the form of adopted alternative educational programs, does the leader behavior of principals of these schools become remarkably similar? Is it remarkably similar? Should it become similar? And, finally, are the perceptions of teachers and parents of the behavior of their educational leaders similar? Information such as this would point to significant directions that public education must take and to desired leader behaviors which principals should exhibit. Information of the kind that answers questions above would be a valuable tool in leadership training.

Purpose of this Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the leader behavior of the principal once a school was functioning smoothly and once organizational renewal in the form of new alternative educational programs had taken place. What role did the principal play as he interacted with the community and staff in the design, implementation and maintenance of these alternative educational programs? How was he perceived to behave by his staff and by his community? Was the behavior of all the principals involved in alternative educational programs remarkably similiar? These were questions that perhaps this study could provide answers for.

The Procedure and Hypotheses

To fulfill the purpose of this study the population picked for

the study consisted of thirteen principals, 104 teachers and 79 parents of three school clusters and two alternative Chicago Public Schools which adopted alternative educational programs as a means of bringing about what they perceived as meaningful and needed educational change. Each cluster chose their options under different imprimaturs, one through a demand by a sub-district superintendent, one by design of four principals working in concert to make their school communities more viable, and one through a demand by a community council. The arrangements above brought about more questions that could be posed: Would there be significant differences in the collective leader behaviors of each cluster of principals because of the difference of the means of program selection? Would there be significant differences among them in the perceptions of their teachers and in the perceptions of their parents?

To find answers to the above, the leadership styles of thirteen Chicago Public Schools principals were examined. Using the LBDQ - Form XII these principals were asked how they perceived their own leader behavior as they developed and implemented alternative educational programs using community involvement. Teachers and parents were also asked to rate the perceived leader behavior of their respective principals in each of these schools using the LBDQ - Form XII.

The original Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire was developed by Hemphill and Coons in 1957 to use in obtaining descriptions of a supervisor by the group members whom he supervised. It was later used in many studies to describe the behavior of the

leader, or leaders, in any type of group or organization, provided the followers had an opportunity to observe the leader in action as a leader of their group. It was subsequently found in empirical research that a large number of hypothesized dimensions of leader behavior could be reduced to two strongly defined factors. These were identified as Consideration and Initiation of Structure.[21]

These two factors have been widely used in empirical research, particularly in military organizations, industry and education. Halpin reported that

> ...in several studies where the argreement among respondents in describing their respective leaders has been checked by a 'between-group vs. within group' analysis of variance, the F ratios all have been found significant at the .01 level. Followers tend to agree in describing the same leader, and the descriptions of different leaders differ significantly.[22]

Stogdill later reasoned that it did not seem reasonable to believe that two factors were sufficient to account for all the observable variance in leader behavior. A new theory of role differentiation and group achievement posed by Stogdill in 1959 and which was supported by a survey of a large body of research data suggested that a number of variables operated in the differentiation of roles in social groups. Twelve possible factors or subscales were hypothesized as a result of empirical research. One hundred items were developed for these subscales.[23]

Marder reported the first use of these scales in 1960 in the study of an army airbourne division and a state highway patrol organization. Day used a revised form of the LBDQ in 1961 in a study of an industrial organization. Other revisions followed by Stogdill

in 1962, Goode in 1963 and Day in 1963 in the study of ministers, leaders in a community development, United State Senators, and presidents of corporations. In 1965 Stogdill used the new scales in the study of industrial and governmental organizations. Form XII represents the fourth revision of the questionnaire.[24]

Each subscale is composed of either five or ten items which are each scored with a value from one to five points based on answers: (1) always, (2) often, (3) occasionally, (4) seldom, and (5) never as indicated in a scoring key.

Stogdill stated that there were no norms for the LBDQ. It was designed only for use as a research device and was not recommended for use in selection, assignment or assessment purposes. Means and standard deviations for nine different types of organizational leaders are given in a table furnished with the Manual for the LBDQ - Form XII.[25]

The reliability of the subscales was determined by a modified Kuder-Richardson formula. Each item was correlated with the remainder of the items in its subscale rather than with the subscale score including the item to yield a conservative estimate subscale reliability. The reliability coefficients range from .54 to .91. These may be found in Table 2 of the Manual for the LBDQ - Form XII.[26]

The mean scores of the thirteen principals were compared on the twelve factors of the instrument to determine the consistency between perceptions of the principals', teachers and parents usting students' t test.

A new questionnaire "Role of the Principal in Developing

Community Involvement Programs" was developed and given to each principal. This questionnaire was developed and modified as a result of critiques by three professors practicing in the field of educational administration and one administrator practicing in the field of alternative educational programming. It was also administered to seven practicing elementary school principals. The questionnaire consists of twenty-four statements which describe the process in the development of new programs from the development of a needs assessment to the development of plans for implementing and evaluating the programs. The respondent must answer by selecting from one of six possibilities as to who performed the tasks. The selections are: (A) Principal alone, (B) Principal in consultation with teachers, (C) Principal in consultation with community representative, (D) Principal in consultation with central or district office personnel, (E) Central or district office personnel without input from principal, (F) Other and explain why you are using this category. All answers A, D, and E are considered to be answers given by normative style leaders. Each statement is scored with one point as either a normative or personal style behavior. The total number of points is 24. The predominance of points determines the style of behavior exhibited. These are compared with the individual perceptions of the principals to determine whether this questionnaire can be used as a predictor of leader behavior styles.

Several school characteristics were compared using the profile of selected school characteristics immediately prior to the development of alternative programs as compared with the most recent

characteristics after the schools had implemented the alternative programs. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient was used. It was thought the statistical results could determine if certain leader behavior styles could be predictive of future institutional success.

Finally, guidelines were developed which could aid principals in obtaining, utilizing and maintaining community participation in program development.

The following hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis I. There are no significant differences between the top third and the bottom third of the principals of thirteen selected schools that are involved in alternative educational programs and alternative schools as measured by each of the twelve factors of the LDBQ - Form XII.

Hypothesis II. There are no significant differences between the mean scores of the principals of each of the three major clusters on each of the twelve factors of the LBDQ - Form XII.

Hypothesis III. When principals are divided into the top third and the bottom third on the basis of scores of each of the twelve factors of the LBDQ - Form XII there are no significant differences between the mean scores of their teachers who rated them on each of the twelve factors of the LBDQ - Form XII.

Hypothesis IV. When principals are divided into the top third and bottom third on the basis of the LBDQ - Form XII scores on each of its twelve factors, there are no significant differences between the mean scores of their school's parents who rated them on each of the twelve factors using the LBDQ - Form XII.

Wall, in the book Effecting Organizational Renewal in Schools: A Social Systems Perspective,divides the twelve dimensions of the LBDQ - Form XII into two leader behavior orientation clusters of six factors each. One group is labelled Normative Factors and one group is labelled Personal Factors using the Getzels and Guba model of the organization as a social system.[27]

Significant differences if they are found to exist in one, several or all of the factors in the LBDQ - Form XII as a result of the foregoing hypotheses will point to the leader behavior styles which prove most beneficial in initiating educational change through adoption of alternative educational programs with community and staff cooperation.

Definition of Terms

Organizational Renewal (OR). Defined by Charles C. Wall in his study dated 1970 as that process through which schools are able to achieve their goals.

Getzels - Guba Model. Described in the book Educational Administration as a Social Process by Getzels, Lipham and Campbell.

Personal Style Behaviors. Dimensions 2, 3, 6, 8, 10 and 11 of the LBDQ - Form XII developed by Stogdill.

Normative Style Behaviors. Dimensions 1, 4, 5, 7, 9 and 12 of the LDBQ - Form XII developed by Stogdill.

Transactional Leader. A principal who perceives himself as using both Personal Style and Normative Style Behaviors as they are needed to accomplish his goals and supervise subordinates.

Community Participation. The group involvement of parents, teachers and other residents of a school attendance area in an advisory capacity as planning is done to select alternative educational programs.

District Educational Council. That group of individuals from throughout the District boundaries who meet regularly, usually once a month as an advisory group to the District Superintendent and schools that comprise that district.

Local School Council. The counter part of the District Education Council in the local school attendance area. It is made up of parents, teachers, and local community members who meet usually once per month as an advisory group to the principal. In many instances the local Parent Teacher Association has become the Local School Council.

Alternative Educational Programs. Those specialty programs of study and style chosen through principal, staff, and community cooperation and participation as necessary for the improved image of the school and as necessarily educationally sound enough and attractive enough to gain the desire of those from outside the district to attend school in that district.

Limitations and Delimitations

The answers to the LBDQ - Form XII questionnaires must be accepted as given and interpreted in the hope that those who responded believed their answers were given in strict anonymity and that strict objectivity was used.

In some cases, responses could not be given to answers to areas where respondents could not be expected to know how their principals acted or could react. Scores in this case were given a neutral value.

Because of the necessarily limited size of each school and each school council the sample of respondents was limited. Each principal was given the responsibility of disseminating the LBDQ - Form XII to ten teachers and ten parents at random. The full sample of teachers and parents available might be less than this number.[28]

The schools chosen were delimited to thirteen Chicago Public Schools placed in the Access to Excellence program of the then General Superintendent of Schools, Joseph P. Hannon. These thirteen schools made up three clusters from three different and unique sections of the city, the North, South, and Central sections and two specialty schools.

The two specialty schools that were designed entirely to offer an alternative to the traditional elementary school were added to the study as a source of comparisons to the findings regarding the original eleven cluster schools. These schools are the La Salle Language Academy and the Decatur Classical School. These two schools recruited their students from throughout the city. The La Salle Language Academy is in the near north section of the city and the Decatur School is in the Northwest section of the city.

Summary

Chapter I provided the reader with an overview of the new milieu in which the public schools found themselves and a rationale for the

study based on the knowledge that the public schools were in the midst of tremendous changes which required a new understanding of the role of the principal as an educational leader and the type of leader behavior that was required.

Chapter II will focus on the relevant research and literature to this study. It will be demonstrated that though there was research regarding the relationship between perceived leader behavior and EPL (Educational Professional Leadership) and between perceived leader behavior and Organizational Renewal or the Goal-Attaining Process (the accent here is on process) there was a lack of research regarding the relationship between perceived leader behavior and the implementation of alternative educational programs. This study attempts to address that lack.

[1]Richard C. Williams et al., Effecting Orgaznizational Renewal in Schools: A Social Systems Perspective. (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1974), p. 1.

[2]Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction, Action Goals for the Seventies: An Agenda for Illinois Education. (Springfield, Illinois: November, 1973), p. 5.

[3]Ibid., Forward, p. V.

[4]City-Wide Advisory Committee, Equalizing Educational Opportunities Proposed Plan. (Chicago Public Schools, January 12, 1978), p. 16.

[5]Ibid., p. 18.

[6]Chicago Board of Education, Proposed Comprehensive Student Assignment Plan for Public Hearings. (Chicago, December 31, 1981), p. 38.

[7]Vernon H. Smith, Daniel J. Burke, Robert D. Barr, Optional Alternative Public Schools, Phi Delta Kappan, Bloomington, Ind., 1974, p. 7.

[8]Ibid., p. 23.

[9]Op. Cit., Action Goals for the Seventies, p. 5.

[10]Chicago Tribune Editorial, Friday, February 25, 1983, p. 20.

[11]1958 Yearbook National School Boards Association, p. 30.

[12]Leslie W. Kindred, Foreword to School Public Relations, by James J. Jones. (New York: Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1965), p. V.

[13]Ronald Campbell, Luvern L. Cunningham, Roderick F. McPhee, The Organization and Control of American Schools. (Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1970), p. 344.

[14]James M. Lipham and James A. Hoeh, Jr., The Principalship: Foundations and Functions. (New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1974).

[15]Betty Jo Zander, "The Spirit of 1976 or, The Role of the Principal in Administrative Decentralization," SEA Journal 1971-76 (February, 1976).

[16]Margaret Carter et al., School and Community: Partners in Problem Solving. (Chicago Center for New Schools, Inc., 1977), p. 26.

[17]Op. Cit., Effecting Organizational Renewal in Schools: A Social

Systems Perspective, p. 1.

[18]Ibid., p. 20.

[19]Ibid., p. 21.

[20]Ibid., p. 23.

[21]Ralph M. Stogdill, Manual for the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire - Form XII, An Experimental Revision, Bureau of Business Research, College of Commerce and Administration, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, 1963, p. 1.

[22]Ibid., p. 1.

[23]Ibid., p. 2.

[24]Ibid., p. 2.

[25]Ibid., Table 1, p. 9.

[26]Ibid., p. 8.

[27]Op. Cit., Williams et al., p. 22.

[28]Halpin suggests that a minimum of four respondents per leader is desirable, and additional respondents beyond ten do not increase significantly the stability of the index scores. Six or seven respondents per leader would be a good standard. (Stogdill, Ralph M. Manual for the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire - Form XII: An Experimental Revision. Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Business Research College of Commerce and Administration, Ohio State University, 1963, p. 12).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

Chapter II provides a review of the related literature and research in the areas of (1) community participation, (2) alternative educational programs and (3) leader behavior.

Related research findings, historical information and facts are presented to establish where the schools are at present in the implementation of community participation in America's public schools, where the schools are now in the establishment of alternative education programs in the public schools, and what part the study of leader behavior has played in the past and what part it can play in the future to guarantee the continued viability of America's public schools as they play their part in the preservation of the democratic ideal for the U.S.

Community Participation

Much has been written about the need for involving the community in educational program development and its implementation in the public schools. In research of the related literature on community participation it has been found that the principal in his role of educational leader in the community cannot ignore the role that the community must play as participant in some way in the making of decisions which affect its school.

In early American life, local communities were the basic integrating units of society. Conflicts which arose within communities were mediated by common experience and traditions, and by the persistence of face-to-face relationships, all of which encouraged true public consensus.[1]

As in other parts of the United States, citizen involvement was not new to Chicago, the location in which this study takes place. In 1834 concerned citizens of Chicago met to choose three delegates to represent them at Vandalia (then the State Capitol of Illinois) to coordinate statewide efforts to obtain more funds for public schools. In 1844 a similar group of citizens met in Peoria to urge a compulsory school tax in every district. In 1846 the same group invited local teachers to a meeting to raise morale and arouse more interest in the schools among the general public. In 1898 the Harper Report (presented by William Rainey Harper, then the President of the University of Chicago) recommended the establishment of school faculties and district councils with membership limited to teachers. It also urged the use of school buildings for general community purposes and decentralization and the involvement of lay citizens from the community. The report strongly supported the need for involving the lay element in the educational system.[2]

However, with the beginning of this century the importance of the local school community in American life had diminished in the face of other forces and the local community had gradually melted away as an effective force through the late 1950's when it was found in spite of Russia's development of Sputnik that the public schools as an

expanding, essential operation were highly regarded by most urbanites. The general public still believed that schooling was the path to national greatness and personal success.[3]

It is no wonder then that until 1957 very little was written about the importance of community involvement and little, if anything, was done in research in this area until the Institute for Communication Research of Stanford University undertook a national analyses of the responses of voters to their schools in 1957. For the first time voter attitudes toward schools were identified, categorized, and analyzed, and a systematic body of knowledge began emerging to explain the confusing patterns of results obtained when a school district sought community support for construction of new schools or establishment of higher budgets.[4]

In this period of time the principal had lived in a never-never land where he ruled unilaterally and kept the community at arm's length from the school. In the dynamism that is the community much of the motivational force that energizes the community is politically inspired as a result of the clash of individual egos and individual and group ambitions. Educational leaders argued that this force called politics was disruptive of educational stability and should be kept clear of the schools and their operation.

Knezevich, in 1962, argued that "... the keystone of democratic leadership was (is) that the formulation of policy should involve those who were (are) influenced by it."[5] Nunnery and Kimbrough recommended that educators should use their energies to see that the schools were subject to the democratic political process.[6] The

principal could shut off community input and communication and rule unilaterally if he wished but would do so at great risk argued Richard F. Carter. As he put it in 1967, "... it is possible for (principals) to shut off communication. If they do, they are sure to discourage participation. This may create a quiet arena in which leaders can work, but in times of crisis the lack of understanding it engenders results in conflict on every question.[7]

By the 1960's increasing numbers of citizens were making more demands of the schools than previously and were losing confidence in the schools. The vast social changes of the 50's and 60's led to a growing dissatisfaction with the quality of the educational process. Taxpayers began to resist attempts at providing greater sums of money for an educational system which provided little evidence of qualitative success.[8] This process had its climax with the adoption of Proposition 13 by the voters of California in November of 1978.[9] Its reverberations were felt throughout the 50 state houses and influenced the issues in state elections and the Congressional Campaign of 1978.

The prophesy of Richard F. Carter came true ..."in times of crisis the lack of understanding that community participation must exist resulted in conflicts on every question" and led to a loss of credibility in our schools and their leaders.[10] The Gallup Poll of attitudes toward public education indicated erosion of the people's confidence in the public schools, from September, 1978 through September, 1980. However, the poll has indicated a rise in public confidence in the 1981 and 1982 polls.[11]

On the national level, as on the local level of government, community participation was not an important element in educational planning until 1965. However, when the Federal government came to take the preeminent role in social and economic life in the 1930's citizen participation was a visible and respected but not important element in public affairs. After World War II, the national government returned to domestic programs in which participation of the affected persons or groups was an aspect and had given it at least lip service. The Housing Act of 1949 required public participation. Community participation was given general and widespread thrust with the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, which came in response to growing civil rights pressures. However, it was only in 1965 that governmental agencies at the state and national levels began mandating community involvement in school programs when the guidelines to Titles I and III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act enunciated this as the primary goal.[12] An emergent and potentially useful new form of citizen participation in education has been the citizen monitoring committee established by Federal district judges as a part of their desegregation decrees in a number of school districts.[13]

On the state level throughout early 1971 discussions in the Illinois Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction centered around the need to "open up" the process of educational decision-making to a broader segment of the state's population. Unfortunately there were no "rules of the game" or conventional wisdom regarding the creation of participatory planning mechanisms.[14]

In the public hearings that ensued as called for by the Office of

the Superintendent of Public Instruction of Illinois in 1971 one of the major procedural concerns that was voiced was the need for opening up the process of school governance.[15]

In Chicago, the movement toward greater community participation began to pick up support. In 1965, Dr. Benjamin Willis then General Superintendent of the Chicago Public Schools recommended that each District Superintendent appoint an advisory committee from the community. In 1969, Dr. James F. Redmond, the succeeding General Superintendent of the Chicago Public Schools made a survey of membership and effectiveness of these councils. He found that only 13 of the 27 districts had establshed councils and that, for the most part, they consisted of business people and, in some cases, PTA's. He recommended that each district have one or more district councils and that their functioning be left to each District Superintendent. Not until 1973 did the Board of Education adopt uniform guidelines for these councils. On December 9, 1970 the Board of Education approved a staff report recommending that each school establish a local school council. By December, 1975 the opportunities for citizens to be involved in decisions affecting the needs of Chicago Public Schools appeared to be maximized.[16]

Generally, participation of the public in public education receives acceptance by most groups, professional and lay. The problem arises in the interpretation when it is used to mean anything from control of the schools (as in the case of the conflict that arose in Ocean Hill-Brownsville, New York, when the 60,000 member United Federation of Teachers struck against an elected community board of

this experimental decentralized district on the matter of teacher transfers), to paraprofessional involvement in classrooms or parents engaged in a PTA "cookie sale."

A large amount of material has recently been written about the need for involving the community in program development and implementation and several publications and media presentations have been developed which suggest ways of eliciting community support. An attempt should be made to meet the need in educational administration of an investigation into the techniques that have been used in obtaining community participation, the extent to which they have worked, where they have worked, by whom and for whom and how they have worked. However, there is little literature which covers the testing of these ideas or evaluates their success other than a few unpublished doctoral dissertations which will be discussed forthwith.

Bargman, in his unpublished doctoral dissertation of 1970 concluded that the elementary school principal could not hope to bring about innovative changes without consideration of the organized forces of the school community.[17]

Linick, in a 1971 study, concluded that through the school advisory council a vehicle had been provided for the exchange of ideas, and for partially meeting the need for participants to be part of the decision-making process, thereby succeeding in reducing conflict and promulgating change.[18]

Husarik conducted a study with the purpose of formulating guidelines for lay involvement in educational planning.[19]

Keeney, in a study of opinions concerning the role of

citizen-advisory committees, recommended that professional educators should develop policies and procedures as well as administrative behavioral patterns that would increase citizen involvement but retain professional control.[20]

McKenna, while developing a model to determine the effectiveness of school-community advisory councils, concluded that the function of such councils was to provide school administrators with a means to judge community attitudes and to allow interaction between school and community.[21]

Bruce, in his study of the role of the elementary principal in school-community relations, concluded that the majority of parents and teachers expected principals to encourage and foster parental involvement in school programs.[22]

Tisdale identified the need of guidance to principals in forming school advisory groups.[23]

Zorn suggested in his doctoral dissertation of 1975, a study in the area of community influence on the success of (innovative) programs, would be valuable (1) to determine community influence on the success or failure of such programs, (2) tend to support or reject Bargman's conclusions, and (3) generate a more positive attitude from parents.[24]

Krotz noted that citizens were becoming more concerned with education and educators were beginning to realize the necessity of involving parents and community in planning goals and objectives, assisting schools in their implementation and monitoring their achievements.[25]

Mary Mikros, in her study, "A Comparative Study of the Stances of Selected Urban Principals, Superintendents, and Local School Council Leaders on Community Participation in Local School Affairs", commented on the importance of community involvement to the success of the educational enterprise and quoted extensive comments and findings of experts in the field which clearly indicated the significant role of the principal as the crucial factor in the quality of the school and implementation of any community involvement in the schools. [26]

If, as Bruce stated, parents and teachers expected principals to encourage and foster parental involvement in school programs, as Linick stated, the vehicle of the school advisory council succeeded in reducing conflict and promulgating change, and as Mikros stated, the principal played a crucial role in the implementation of community involvement, the leader behavior of principals becomes a significant factor in the success or failure of community involvement to bring about change and resolve conflict. And, educational and social research has continually found that community support and participation has been a key factor in student achievement and school stability.[27]

All of the foregoing have duly noted the vital role the public schools must play in perpetuating the democratic ideal. The school has become, as it never has before, an integral part of the community it serves. Its day-to-day activities influence the life of the community surrounding it. Real estate values are influenced by it in the appearance of the school. The quality of life in the community affects the quality of life in the school. Indeed, the

activities of the school are woven into the fabric of community life. As Kinder stated, "... (that) public schools exist to serve the community was the guiding principle under which our public school system came into being over a century ago."[28]

More recently, as a result of the entrance of the Federal Government into the affairs of the public schools with the establishment of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, the schools have been besieged by problems generated by factors over which they have had no control such as mandated state programs without monetary resources, federal poverty guidelines, free-lunch programs, school desegregation edicts by the courts, school funding crises, public housing, impacted areas, etc. These reasons alone make it imperative that the school involve the community in its planning and decision-making.

Very recent studies and surveys have emphasized, as never before, how important it was to bring about educational change in order to help the schools solve their many problems. All of these studies and surveys have stressed the vital necessity of including and involving the parents and community in efforts to bring about the changes needed and in helping to find solutions for the problems confronting our schools.

Rosenau cited a recent survey which found that parent involvement was important in solving school problems and was useful in increasing learning activities in the home.[29]

A 1979 survey found substantial evidence that when parents and other community members were intimately involved in the day-to-day

learning of their children, schools did better at managing disciplinary problems and also did better at educating students and maintaining parental and community support.[30]

Bamber concluded that the "Collaborative Mode" of school governance was the best hope for the public schools and was convinced with many others that the salvation of public schools lay in the sharing of resources and power.[31]

Kozberg and Winegar found that community involvement was vital and only when a true dialogue and real alliance was developed between urban schools and their larger communities would alienation be reduced and public confidence restored in the schools.[32]

In a study supported by the Rockefeller Family Fund in cooperation with the NASSP, Hines and Cleary found that while opportunities abounded for community members to become involved with the school, the principal was the key in determining who was to be involved and what the nature of that involvement would be.[33]

Goodlad stated that the principal was central to the attainment of the kind of school desired by the school board as it interpreted and translated community preference. The principal shaped and articulated the prevailing ambiance of the school environment and created the sense of mission. He played the key role in providing the support, encouragement, and resources required.[34]

Hines and Cleary found that the effective principals whom they studied felt that with all the problems the schools faced genuine community involvement was important. They concluded that the principal's role needed to focus upon planning and problem solving

activities that involved parents, citizens and agencies in the major task areas of the school.[35]

Today, two important trends are emerging in education, (1) boards of education are involving the school in the community and the community in the school and, (2) the emergence, nationally, of public school options systems that have bearing on giving equal and adequate educational opportunities to all children. These trends make community involvement and citizen participation imperative.[36]

As a means of accomplishing this imperative, several new forms of community involvement and citizen participation have just recently come to the fore as means through which the schools could benefit from their strengths.[37]

There is an emergent and potentially useful new form of citizen participation in education, the citizen monitoring committee which was established by Federal District judges. These committees are charged with overseeing and assisting in supervising the judges' desegregation decrees.[38]

Another recent phenomenon, though not wide-spread, has been the establishment of community foundations. Business leaders, realizing that the health of the public schools reflects on the vitality and health of their communities have established these foundations to assist the public schools with funding and the werewithal to establish programs that would make them more effective and help them to fulfill their purpose in the society of which they are an integral part.[39]

Though it is not a recent development, there has been a resurgence of the community school concept. Community schools out of

necessity have opened themselves to the community in many different ways depending on the needs of the community and the problems of the schools. Because of current hard times and the approximately 5,000 schools that call themselves "community schools" the public schools may be on the verge of an explosion of community schools.[40]

The Chicago Public School System (in which this study takes place) has not been isolated from the present-day foment created by the public as it shows its concern for the direction and meaning of the public schools of our nation.

The Chicago public has been demanding educational reform and taking action steps to achieve that reform and take part in its development. The Equalizing Educational Opportunities Proposal plan prepared for the Chicago Public Schools by the City-Wide Advisory Committee, January 12, 1978, resulted in the Access to Excellence plan of April 12, 1978 as proposed by Chicago's then General Superintendent of Schools, Dr. Joseph P. Hannon. The backbone of this plan was made up of alternative educational programs, which, "called for the joint participation of parents, citizens, and staff in planning, implementing and evaluating these programs."[41] The impetus for the above plan came about as a result of the demands by the Department of Health, Education and Welfare and the Office of Civil Rights that Chicago submit an acceptable plan for the desegregation of its public schools.

However, participants on the CWAC committee delivered the message that desegregation efforts would be for nothing without the offering of quality education programs.

Subsequently, through effective parent organizations, local school councils, and district education councils three school clusters offering alternative educational programs became a possibility. This involved numerous planning meetings which included parents, community members, principals, and teachers. The result was three school clusters each with a program design that reflected the sum of the thinking that went into the educational planning of each unique group.

These clusters have provided us with a ready made laboratory for research to take place into the role community involvement plays in educational change. They also provide us with an opportunity to observe the leader behavior required to promote change while preserving the viability and stability of the public schools.

The Southeast Cluster consisted of the Barnard, Kellogg, Sutherland and Vanderpoel Elementary Schools which selected four different Instruction Option Model Programs, one for each school, to which any child from any of the four schools could opt to attend.

The Vanderpoel School option offered an interdisciplinary unit organization approach. The transitional teacher-planned to teacher-pupil planning program was based upon the unit approach. Curriculum from two or more subject areas was related to the study of the unit.

The Barnard School option used the Applied Learning Approach. This was an educational program based upon a structured variety of learning centers.

The Kellogg School option provided in-depth educational development. It provided experiences for in-depth study of

educational areas through pursuing in-depth the areas of individual or group interest.

The Sutherland School option was chosen as a personalized prescriptive program. It provided its students with a personalized educational program based upon prescriptive instructional activities.

The Near West Schools Cluster consisted of the Jackson, Jefferson, McLaren, and Riis Elementary Schools.

The option chosen at the Riis School was Resource Based which provided students with an organized self-development program designed to increase pupil decision-making and responsibility for learning.

The option chosen at the Jackson School was a Co-Planned project in which students were provided with educational experiences based on cooperative planning involving teacher guidance.

The option chosen at the McLaren School was the Integrated Day. The integrated day provided students with an organized integrated curriculum developed from their needs and interests and carefully guided by the teacher. This school was closed, however, prior to implementation of its program.

The option chosen at the Jefferson School was based on skills development. This option provided students with a structured skills development program in the basic subjects of reading, writing, and mathematics.

The Northeast Edgewater-East Rogers Park Cluster consisted of the Field, Hayt, Kilmer, and Swift Elementary Schools. This cluster chose its options program based on curriculum content.

The Field School Option was based upon Environmental Education.

All subject matter was to be covered through a study of the problems of the environment, the social, political, scientific, esthetic, legal and humanistic aspects.

The Hayt School Option was based upon Career Education. All subject matter was covered through a study of careers in major fields such as medicine, transportation, entertainment, government, etc.

The Kilmer School Option was based upon the dramatic arts. All subject matter was to be covered through the creation of units that involved the use of various creative and dramatic arts. The creation of an original drama or the presentation of an established work would involve a multidisciplinary problem-solving appproach.

The Swift School Option was based upon a program that integrated science and the study of math. It was designed to attract students who had a desire for specializing in the fields of science and mathematics.

These programs later became a part of the Access to Excellence Program of the then General Superintendent of Schools, Joseph P. Hannon and then a part of the Options to Knowledge Program of the present General Superintendent of Schools, Ruth Love.

With the above developments the principals of these schools became involved to a great extent with community participation. Steering Committees of principals, teachers, and community members were involved in the selection of teachers who would man the above programs. These committees would also plan for the resources needed to implement these programs working with the Department of Program Development/Alternative Schools of the Chicago Public Schools.

These clusters have been a beginning and have become a laboratory in which leader behavior and community involvement can be observed. Will they be models for reform of public school systems? Has parental involvement raised community consciousness? The answers are not yet in but if the clusters have resulted in overcoming the traditional lack of participation and if participation has been so structured that it is constructive rather than disruptive the clusters have been an important step on the ladder to the next level in the development of innovative education in the public schools.

Alternative Educational Programs

Private schools as an alternative to public schooling in the United States have always been an option of choice throughout our early history as a nation and into the present.

A continuous tradition of alternative education existed since the beginning of the common school movement in the 1800's having its roots in the ideas of Benjamin Franklin, Benjamin Rush, Jean Jacques Rousseau and others who saw self-discipline, the ability to make choices, and the thoughtful mastery of skills as the keys to the development of democracy.[42]

Throughout the history of the American Public Schools efforts to improve education were intense, many and varied though rarely on the mark. The romantics were concerned primarily with freedom in learning. The structuralists focused on school services, organization, and control. And the school reformers were interested in the ways education could be used to change society. Each group

makes a contribution to improving the quality of education but none succeeded in altering the basic pattern of education and schooling in America. Shields came to the conclusion that forces outside the education establishment must be confronted if true reform were to take place.[43]

A basic assumption of Jeffersonian Democracy is that, given the opportunity, there are extraordinary capabilities in ordinary individuals. American education is based on this principle in that it attempts to afford this opportunity to all people through universal public education.

During the middle and late 1960's, growing disenchantment with the public schools led to the development of a small number of "free" or "alternative" schools outside the public system. In the years 1968-1972 alternative schools proliferated rapidly, though they serviced a fraction of the total school population, their influence traveled far beyond their numbers.[44]

Prior to 1970 options and alternative schools were little talked about and seldom, if ever, referred to in the literature of education. Between 1970 and 1974 over 200 articles and books on alternative schools were published.[45]

One reason for this early success was that educators began to realize that the quest for a perfect school to meet the needs of all students had failed. The assumption that a single school or program could serve the learning needs of all children was beginning to be questioned. An obvious solution was to explore alternatives.

Educators are beginning to come to the conclusion, that a

monolithic/monocultural educational system is no longer sufficient to accomplish the major goal of U.S. education, the preparation of youngsters for effective living in a changing, pluralistic society.[46]

Educators now know that when schools develop programs designed to meet individual needs impressive gains occur.[47] Why not then offer students choices in education which can best meet their individual needs?

The development and adoption of the best alternative school practices became vital for the survival of public education.[48]

The real issue then was the reconstruction of the public education system so that it addresses the needs of a pluralistic society by offering choices.[49]

Choice, the creation of opportunities within the public schools, then became a national imperative. It is the central issue to any educational reorganization.[50]

The 1970 White House Conference on Children recommended immediate massive funding for the development of alternative optional forms of public education. By 1975 over a dozen national reports recommended funding of alternative schools.[51]

During the past decade the concept of alternative schools has emerged as the reform strategy with the greatest potential to improve public education.[52]

The following are some of the many ways alternative schools have been used:

(a) to assist in the desegregation of urban schools and as a competitive response to urban decline.

(b) to reduce vandalism, school violence and disruption.

(c) as a means of increasing parent and community involvement in public education.

(d) to explore the demand for effective learning and accountability.

(e) as an effective means of meeting the unique learning needs of a wide variety of students, and

(f) as an institutional change strategy.

Educators, psychologists, interested observers in the field of teaching and many others had always known that there were many appropriate learning environments and many ways to learn and to teach. This would lead one to reason that many different ways could be found of organizing students and teachers into different time and space frames. Alternative schools began to be organized in the public school systems in attempts to organize students and teachers into different time and space frames.

Large city school systems had begun to build constructive paths through the problems that had been threatening to engulf them. They changed the environments for learning, adapted the curriculum and instructional materials to the needs and learning styles of the students and discovered more significant ranges of options through alternative schools and programs that broke away from the educational lockstep. Alternative schools erased the artificial barriers between school and community and gave students a new sense of responsibility for their own education.[53]

Since 1970, public alternative schools grew from 100 to more than

10,000 in 1980.[54]

A system of diversity and choice empowers every parent who wishes to control his child's education with the right to do so. In places where a system of diversity and choice had been tried within a public school system the results had been impressive. Before the experiment was put into effect in Minneapolis' Southeast Alternatives Project only 35% of the parents were satisfied with the public schools. After four years of alternatives the parent satisfaction level rose to 85%.[55]

The early success of several alternative programs beginning with the Wilson Open Campus School in Mankato, Minnesota in 1968, the Parkway School in Philadelphia in 1969, and the Southeast Alternatives Programs of the Minneapolis Public Schools in 1971 increased and influenced numerous demands throughout the public school sector for alternative schools within the public school system. A 1973 Gallup Poll showed that about two-thirds of the population polled thought that the proposal for new kinds of local schools to be established was a good idea. From the fall of 1973 to spring of 1975 the number of alternative public schools grew by an average of 300% nationally.[56]

The rise of the concept of the magnet school as an alternative school of choice to solve problems of racial integration of the large city public schools within the framework of quality education was another stimulus to the increase of options and alternative programs in the public schools.

Another important element in the establishment of a magnet school was the increase in racial integration and the development of curricula of unusual quality. It was hoped that students would be

selected from a larger region than the neighborhood, perhaps the entire city.[57]

A study of alternative schools in North America - the most extensive survey ever undertaken of such program - found that this movement was enjoying steady and continued growth.[58] "Alternatives now represent the acceptance and the institutionalization of diversity."[59]

Leadership Behavior (The Principal and His Role)

U.S. Education has invested extraordinary power in one person, the building principal. Change begins or ends in the principal's office. He or she is the key or deterrent to radical reform of city schools.[60]

The principal is at the locus of the total interpersonal behaviors which describe the organization called a school. The interrelatedness of these individual behaviors is of central importance to the principal. He is the key exchange point inside the school building. As such, he exerts three important effects on the immediate environment:

(1) Stabilization and enhancement. He performs a delicate balancing act within an environment of tension and anticipation. He must gain control of an unpredictable body called a school community. He must maintain a controlled and orderly learning environment. And he must build community and parent support for the school program while orchestrating their involvement.

(2) He changes and transforms attitudes.

(3) And he controls the climate of the school.

He must accomplish the above by performing a managerial role which ordinarily is only associated with organizational maintenance, an insensitive static stature, while at the same time performing the leadership task of providing a personal human sensitivity to the myriads of human interactions that comprise the dynamism called an organization.[61]

Goldman, in his book, The School Principal, states that in order that the school's program reflect the interests of the community it serves and at the same time be an instrument of desired social change, its principal must be the prime communicator of purpose both to parents and other citizens and to his staff.[62] He further stated that the degree to which the principal can work effectively in the community is dependent a great deal upon a definition of the principal's role that is mutually acceptable to the principal and to the residents of the community.[63]

However, communities change and education changes. This presents a challenge to the principal to change his role if he is to lead in bringing these changes into a meaningful and effective combination.[64]

Public school teachers don't want principals or superintendents. But, administrators are necessary if schools are to be effective and offer meaningful educational programs. Someone must be held accountable. Administrators are necessary if the schools are going to operate.[65] The principal is perceived as a manager or administrator but all of the problems he faces demand educational leadership.[66]

How then is the principal to fulfill his role as a leader? The

key is how he views himself, the system, and the situation in which he must function.

A principal may base his leadership style on the belief that a large number of people in an organization have little concern for the professed goals of the organization. He may believe that they are there only to achieve their own goals. A principal who recognizes this as a fact will lead differently from one who does not. The leader in this case is able to learn what is practical and acceptable and thus can reestablish the congruence of the individual and organizational goals.[67]

Since the principal is expected to be both an administrator and a leader, he must be a stabilizing force in the school while at the same time initiating change in the organization, changes in the goals of the school or changes in the way the school should operate to achieve its goals. This is a source of role conflict for the principal, change as differentiated from maintenance.[68] This leadership role is crucial for the success or failure of the principal to implement change and innovation.[69]

It is the principal's responsibility to see that a clear set of operationally defined goals is developed and achieved. He must become a guide in the process of goal definition. The goals should be written and accepted by faculty through a formal action. The principal then attempts to fulfill these organizational goals with the help of people in an environment and setting that increases the possibility for creativity, development, and change.[70]

A caveat should be mentioned here, however. Past studies have

shown that leaders are not the masters of their own destinies. Managerial styles appear to be shaped by the performance of subordinates. There are, and have been, situations that no principal however capable, can comprehend and resolve unless the environment or the organization is changed in fundamental ways. (Enter, the alternative). Often the situation may be more powerful than the administrator.[71]

When leaders deal with organizational behavior they deal with an incredibly complex set of variables and relationships involving emotions, values, personality makeup and the dynamics of interpersonal relationships.[72] The unique task of the organizational leader then becomes one of mediating between two sets of behavior eliciting forces, the nomothetic and the idiographic, so as to produce behavior which is organizationally useful as well as individually satisfying. Action which leads to such behavior on the part of his staff is the highest expression of the administrator's art.[73]

The organization which one calls a school is no longer a quiet refuge away from everyday life. The school is of central importance in our society and as such it has a profound effect on the job of principal. Today, the principal deals with pressures and problems only management executives in business and industry had a few years ago. Strikes, street demonstrations, boycotts and violence hinge on what happens in a school. And, as the public must understand more now than ever before, the purposes and goals of the school are among the most urgent priorities of our time. The greatest burdens placed upon the principal are those which he places on himself, the way he chooses

to view himself, his world and his role. If he changes his role he must change the way he perceives himself, his school and his community. [74]

There is a need for new strategies for reform and renewal in public education. Alternative programs offer parents and educators who wish to see public education become more responsive to the needs of youth the best chance for this change. Thus the leader role and leader behavior of the principal is the vital ingredient in bringing this about.

For change to take place, for alternative programs and schools to take root in the public domain, they must be effective. Researchers have been identifying the critical factors in effective schools over the last few years and a synthesis of these researches had identified leader behavior as being positively associated with effective schools. A study of leader behavior in a dynamic situation where educational change is occurring could be very instructive and helpful in planning for future change in the basic patterns of education and schooling in America.

If one bases principal leadership effectiveness on teacher morale, school climate, and school innovativeness, a leadership behavior style that blends strong task orientation with a high concern for people becomes necessary the researches show. Because of the many different disciplines that are brought into play in the governing of such a complex organization as a school it is essential that the principal take an eclectic approach to bringing stability to the organization. There must be a predominant, guiding orientation on the

part of the leader if he is to exert strong leadership. The more reflective and consistent the educational theory of the principal the more likely the school will establish and maintain a positive sense of direction and purpose.[76]

A question remains as to what form this study should take. Several ways of studying leadership have evolved beginning with the effort in studying the traits and characteristics that especially fitted people for leadership roles. As of this time, this approach has not proved fruitful or particularly productive or promising for understanding leadership. Psychologists have been unable to clarify which traits were most important in specific leadership positions.[77]

Sociological studies of leadership mainly in viewing leadership as an interactive process between the leader and the rest of the group proved unfruitful since groups differ and their differences may have nothing to do with the presence of leadership.

Hemphill found that groups differed in such characteristics as size, homogeneity, flexibility, and stability and two which seemed to be most closely associated with leadership in the group, viscidity and hedonic tone. Viscidity referred to the feeling of satisfaction that members received from being members of a group.[78] This research does not focus directly on the nature of leadership and how it is exercised however.

One of the major findings of a study done in 1954 by Murray E. Shipnuck suggested that a principal was "best off" in terms of teacher's perceptions of low hostililty and high faculty morale if he saw himself as teachers saw him.[79]

Buffington and Medsker in comparison studies done in 1954 which attempted to identify the job of elementary principal from the standpoint of parents and teachers respectively found the perceptions of these two groups to be far apart in many respects.[80]

Jenkins and Blackman in a study done in 1956 found that principals who were able to take a middle course in helping a group of teachers organize and work toward a goal, and at the same time maintain a human relations climate were most effective.[81]

With studies such as the above the behavioral approach to an understanding of leadership had proved more useful because it focused attention on things that were happening or appeared to be happening. Many studies involving observation of leadership behavior suggested that the behaviors observed fell into two categories called dimensions. The terms widely used for these dimensions are structure and consideration.[82] Structure includes behavior in which the leader organizes and defines group activities and his relation to the group. Consideration includes behavior indicating mutual trust, respect and a warmth and rapport between the supervisor and his group.

In the book, Administrative Behavior in Education, edited by Campbell and Gregg, Pierce and Merrill expressed three basic needs in the study of leader behavior: (1) a need for an acceptable criterion of effective leader behavior, (2) a need for a research design adequate to provide for an exhaustive test of the above criterion, and (3) a need to identify and define the qualities of the individual which are related to effective administrator behavior.[83]

In 1957 John K. Hemphill and Alvin E. Coons developed the Leader

Behavior Description Questionnaire at Ohio State University. This instrument often called the LBDQ consisted of a series of short descriptive statements concerning the behavior of leaders. In this instrument, members of the leader's group were asked to check the frequency with which they observed the leader using the kind of behavior described. The LBDQ - Form XII was a 1962 revision of the original instrument by Stogdill. When this form is used, the researcher should watch for possible clusters of behavior patterns for a given leader in a given group.[84]

The question arises if leadership behaviors of individuals who were thought to be effective differed significantly from those behaviors of individuals thought to be ineffective. And would they be consistent?

Andrew W. Halpin used the LBDQ on the flight crews of B-29 Bombers and upon analyzing his data found that two factors were clearly the most significant for describing differences in leader behavior of the airplane commanders. These factors were Consideration (The regard for comfort, well-being, status, and contribution of followers.) and Initiating Structure (Clearly defining one's role, and letting followers know what is expected.).[85]

Later research using the same approach was conducted comparing leader behavior of school superintendents with that of airplane commanders, comparing leader behavior of superintendents as perceived by their boards of education and as seen by their school staffs, and comparing leader behavior of school principals as perceived by their teachers and as perceived by their superintendents.

From the considerable data assembled in numerous studies, it seems clear that initiating structure and consideration are dimensions that are essential to the behavior of leaders. It was found that leaders who were perceived as being effective tended to be high in both consideration and initiating structure.

Gross and Herriott in their study "Staff Leadership in Public Schools: A Sociological Inquiry" examined the principalship in the public elementary schools in the exercise of leadership with the hope that the study would contribute to the knowledge of the effects and determinants of leadership in professionally staffed organizations. They speculated that the degree to which the principal attempted to exert his leadership role as educational leader had a significant effect on the functioning of the school. They also attempted to isolate the determinants of the principal's leadership efforts.[86]

They labelled the effort of the principal to conform to his role that stressed the obligation to improve the quality of staff performance as Executive Professional Leadership (EPL). Their findings offered empirical support for a leadership conception of the principal's role. They caution the principal against overstressing the professional conception of his role and undervaluing his purely managerial obligations. These findings correspond very closely to the findings of studies which incorporated the Getzels-Guba concepts of idiographic and nomothetic dimensions of the role of the leader in a social system and the findings of studies using the LBDQ factors of Consideration and Initiating Structure in that those leaders who were perceived as high in both dimensions were perceived as being most

effective.[87]

Fiedler, in a 1967 study stated that the most important ingredient in leadership situations was the degree of "favorableness" for the leader (favorableness being made up of group acceptance, formal power of the leader, and clarity of the task structure).[88]

In studying schools as social systems Williams, Wall, Martin, and Berchin tried to find what determined whether a school was able to achieve its stated goals. This process they called Organizational Renewal or OR. Wall reasoned that the leader behavior of an elementary school principal was one determinant of the ability of a school to attain its stated eductional goals. This leader behavior is affected by the understanding of his role, his personality and personalities of others, institutional expectations, and individual needs. All of these are in conflict. The Getzels-Guba Model provided the framework within which to examine these relationships. Getzels and Guba described two broad categories of behaviors that identify the direction in which the principal places the greatest emphasis in fulfilling his role as a leader. The first is identified as normative style behaviors. The normative style behaviors involve the leader's efforts to fulfill the expectations the school as an organization has for him. The second is identified as personal style leader behaviors. The principal who emphasizes personal style leader behaviors is one who is primarily concerned with the needs and expectations of his staff members. Using this model, Wall then asked the question, "What is the relationship between a principal's perceived leader behavior and his school's ability to achieve a high level of organizational

renewal?"[89]

Wall found the 100-item Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire - Form XII to be the most effective instrument available to measure teacher perceptions of principal leader behavior. The LBDQ - Form XII has twelve separate dimensions with each describing a different leader behavior. Through a factor analysis, they divide equally into the normative and personal behaviors described by Getzels.[90]

Wall found that teachers of high OR schools rated their principals higher on personal style behaviors while in three of the four low OR schools the teachers rated their principal higher on the normative style leader behavior.[91]

Wall's data also indicated that an attempt should be made by schools concerned with implementing innovative practices to insure that the principal is oriented behaviorally toward staff needs and expectations rather than institutional needs and expectations.[92]

Finally, Wall's study supported the contention that the greater the congruence between Real and Ideal Leader Behavior, the higher will be the level of the goal-attaining process.[93]

In his conclusions to his study, Wall suggests a replication of his study in non-league schools.

Stogdill in his Manual for the LBDQ - Form XII, 1963, presents means and standard deviations for highly selected samples of commissioned and non-commissioned officers in an army combat division, administrative officers in a state highway patrol headquarters office, the executives in an aircraft engineering staff, ministers of various denominations of an Ohio community, leaders in community development

activities in Ohio, presidents of "successful" corporations, presidents of labor unions, presidents of colleges and universities, and United States Senators.[94]

In a 1976 study by Kunz and Hay, results suggested that principals who exhibited strong Initiating Structure tended to have teachers with a substantial "Professional Zone of Acceptance" (willingness of a subordinate to hold in abeyance his own criteria for making decisions and to comply with orders from superiors) irrespective of the Consideration dimension of leadership.[95]

In a 1977 study Miskel postulated that administrator performance was contingent upon different combinations of individual style and situation components and therefore the contingency approach should be used in future studies of administrators and schools. He also postulated that the situational factor of organizational climate and style variable of competitiveness desirability are significant predictors of teacher evaluation of principals.[96] Perhaps the results of this study could be used to test the validity of Miskel's findings.

McLean in a 1978 study attempted to identify perceptions of administrators relative to their roles and functions in the alternative education environment and to identify how these administrators were perceived by some of their subordinates. He found that there was a significant independence between the perceptions of the administrators and the perceptions of the subordinates. He concluded that administrators of alternative education schools and programs must become facilitators and coordinators rather than exclusively authoritarian, and must be willing to involve themselves

in a process of continuing flexibility and innovation, and must be cognizant of new demands and new skills in communication and teamwork.[97]

King in a 1978 study found that female principals were perceived by teachers as being significantly more authority oriented. Male principals were perceived by teachers as being significantly more expressiveness oriented in their leadership styles. There was no significant difference in teachers' perceptions between male and female principals on the Task Dimension of the Teacher Questionnaire on Principal Leadership. There was also no significant difference on the effectiveness dimensions of Teacher Moral and Teacher Professionalism.[98]

Cohen found, in a 1978 study, that parents were in consensus, for the most part, with the principals' views of their behavior, only to a lesser degree and that the teachers, in contrast, perceived the behavior of the principals in a very different light.[99]

Using the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire, Graham, in a 1979 study, found that there was a significant difference in the perceptions of magnet school teachers and traditional school teachers toward the behavior of their respective principals in thrust, openness and consideration dimensions. The magnet school teachers felt their principals were more open, considerate and innovative in their thrust.[100]

Cormell found in 1980 that there was not one leadership style which was used exclusively by effective principals. She also found that male and female principals did not differ on their leadership styles. She found that effective principals use a variety of

leadership styles to meet the demand of a given situation.[101]

Hennigar and Taylor found that managers with a high concern for productivity were more open to change than those with a low concern, and that managers with a high concern for people were more open to change than those with a low concern.[102]

Kirkpatrick in 1980, using the LBDQ - Form XII to investigate the association between administrative characteristics of principals as measured and parent involvement in schools found no significant difference exists between administrative styles of principals in schools with high parent involvement in any of the twelve dimensions of the instrument.[103]

Using the LBDQ, De Rosa in a 1981 study found that of nine factors examined only the age factor proved significant. In the dimension of initiating structure principals received significantly higher mean scores from the teachers' group which was closer or identical to their own age group. In the dimension of consideration a significant negative correlation was found: The greater the distance between the age of the principal and that of the teacher, the lower the score a principal received from a teacher.[104]

The present study utilized an expanded version of the LDBQ, the LBDQ - Form XII to better understand leader behavior. The results of the study could expand our knowledge on how to bring about meaningful, successful, and effective educational change. The increased knowledge would aid educational leaders to bring about orderly change and more viable public schools while insuring the stability of these organizations.

Summary

The preceding review of the literature and research represents a summary of the work done that is most relevant to the present study. The literature and studies cited have significant implications for leaders of our public schools.

This study differs from the others in that it attempts to rate principals engaged in a similar situation according to their mean scores on each of the twelve dimensions of the LDBQ - Form XII.

This study also attempts to find the degree to which leader perceived behaviors agree or disagree with the perceptions of their staffs and their parents.

Implication of this study could greatly aid in the choice of leaders or a search for a leader who exhibits the behaviors necessary for the successful implementation of alternative programs or alternative schools.

The study could add to the fund of knowledge in the area of leader behavior and serve as corroborating evidence of past and recent findings regarding leader behaviors among different and varying groups of leaders and different and varying situations.

Chapter III will discuss the methodology to be used to describe leader behavior and how it is perceived. It will name the tests to be used to analyze the data and tell the limitations of the study.

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CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodology of the study. The important segments included are: The hypotheses; a description of the population and sample; the method used to collect the sample; a description of the questionnaires used; the tests to be used to analyze the data; and the limitations of the study.

The Hypotheses

The hypotheses which served as the basis of this study were:

Hypothesis I. There are no significant differences between the top third and the bottom third of the principals of thirteen selected schools that are involved in alternative educational programs and alternative schools as measured by each of the twelve factors of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire - Form XII.

Hypothesis II. There are no significant differences between the mean scores of the principals of each of the three major clusters on each of the twelve factors of the LBDQ - Form XII.

Hypothesis III. When principals are divided into the top third and the bottom third on the basis of scores of each of the twelve factors of the LBDQ - Form XII there are no significant differences between the mean scores of their teachers who rated them on each of the twelve factors of the LBDQ - Form XII.

Hypothesis IV. When principals are divided into the top third and bottom third on the basis of the LBDQ - Form XII scores on each of its twelve factors, there are no significant differences between the mean scores of their school's parents who rated them on each of the twelve factors using the LBDQ - Form XII.

Population and Sample

A sample of thirteen principals were used in this study. Also used was a sample of 104 teachers and 79 parents.

Origins and Background of Sample Choice

As previously mentioned, the social changes of the 1950's and 1960's led to a growing dissatisfaction with the quality of the educational process. At about the same time the Chicago Board of Education was involved in ten years of litigation over the charge that it engaged in student racial segregation.

Under edict by the State Office of Education the Chicago Board of Education was charged to develop a comprehensive plan to eliminate student segregation and its schools were placed on Probationary Recognition Status. As a result the board adopted a resolution to develop, adopt, and implement a comprehensive Equal Educational Opportunity Student Desegregation Plan by Spring of 1978. At about this same time efforts were taking place among private and public school systems throughout the United States to develop education programs which offered alternatives or options.

Community participants brought the message to bear on educational professionals that desegregation efforts would come to nought without

the accompaniment of quality educational program offerings.

In areas of the city where there were effective parent organizations, local school councils and district education councils there arose a clamour to develop alternative forms of education. Three such areas developed three different program clusters where alternative programs of education would be offered.

A study by Charles C. Wall in 1970 suggested that while a common observation made about schools by parents, teachers and scholars alike was that they suffered from poor administrative leadership he discovered that some schools were able to adapt to the pressure of change and set goals for themselves while other schools in the same league floundered. He asked himself, "What is the relationship between a principal's perceived leader behavior and his school's ability to achieve a high level of Organizational Renewal?".[1]

This study, in attempting to go a step further, studied the leader behavior of principals as they worked with parents, teachers and community to design and implement alternative educational programs. Was there a common pattern of relationships that developed between principals, teachers and their staffs that guarantee good adaptation to change? A good sample for this study developed through the establishment of the three program clusters mentioned above.

The principals of these cluster schools were contacted by the writer and asked if they would participate in the study. They were also asked if they were willing to contact parents and teachers in their schools to take part in the study.

Two principals representing three other schools, two of which

offered an entire program of options and alternatives, were also asked if they would participate in the study with their teachers and parents. All answered in the affirmative and the study began. The three clusters with three other schools were represented by thirteen principal respondents, 104 teacher respondents and 79 parent respondents.

Method Used to Collect Samples

The principals of each respondent school were given twenty-one copies of the LBDQ - Form XII to be distributed as follows: One for the principal and ten forms to be given to randomly selected teachers and ten forms to be given to randomly selected parents. These forms were to be completed and returned in the attached self-addressed envelopes.

A perusal of the LBDQ - Form XII leads the reader to understand that the answers require a good knowledge of the person whom they are describing. Consequently, the principals were given the latitude to distribute the forms at random among teachers and parents who knew them well. The wisdom of this approach was proven when, in a few insignificant instances, some responses were left blank because of lack of knowledge of the principal behavior in certain areas. A neutral score of three was given in these instances to offset this problem.

The Manual for the LBDQ - Form XII suggested that the number of respondents required to provide a satisfactory index score of the leader's behavior was a minimum of four respondents per leader and

additional respondents beyond ten did not increase significantly the stability of the index scores.

Adequate or better numbers of teacher respondents were received for all principals. In the case of cluster I adequate numbers of parent respondents were received from three of the four schools. The fourth school furnished only two parent respondents. In cluster II adequate numbers of teacher and parent respondents were received from all schools. In cluster III adequate numbers of parent respondents were received from three of the four schools. No parent respondents were received from one of the schools. Consequently, the statistics regarding parent perceptions of leader behavior in this cluster was reflected for only three of the four schools.

Instruments Used

The LBDQ - Form XII was used for all respondents. The principals rated themselves and the parents and teachers rated their perceptions of their principals.

Reliability of the LBDQ - Form XII was proven in extensive studies which were made with army divisions, highway patrol, aircraft executives, ministers, community leaders, corporation presidents, labor presidents, college presidents, and Senators.

The writer's questionnaire "Role of the Principal in Developing Community Involvement Programs," was given to each principal. This questionnaire mirrored steps in the process recommended for securing community involvement and participation in efforts at developing and implementing plans for alternative educational programs. The answers

lay on five points of a continuum from normative style to personal style leader behaviors. It was used to support quantitative judgement conclusions.

The questionnaire was developed by the writer and modified as a result of critiques by three professors practicing in the field of educational administration and one administrator practicing in the field of alternative educational programming. It was also field-tested by administering it to seven practicing elementary school principals.

The principals in the study were also interviewed personally in an open-ended interview format.

Limitations of the Study

The clusters chosen were the only clusters developed at the time this study was being done. The study was limited to the public schools of Chicago because of the similarity of their organization. The choice of the public schools of Chicago eliminated a number of administrator and organizational variables which might complicate the validity and reliability of the findings if school systems outside of Chicago were used. The principals used in the study were all selected and certificated in the same manner through similar qualifying examinations. They all comprised the top twenty percent of the candidates taking the Principal's Certification Examination administered by the Board of Examiners of the Chicago Board of Education.

The questionnaires must of necessity have been given to those

teachers and parents who knew the principals well enough to rate them in all areas tested.

Analysis of the Data

The data supplied in the answers to the questionnaire provided the following comparisons and analyses:

1. The differences between mean scores of selected groups of principals on each of the twelve factors of the LBDQ - Form XII.

2. The differences between mean scores of selected groups of teachers on each of the twelve factors of the LBDQ - Form XII.

3. The differences between the mean scores of selected groups of parents on each of the twelve factors of the LBDQ - Form XII.

The statistical measure employed for each of the comparisons above were Student's t-test. The .05 level was used to determine if the differences were significant.

4. Correlations were run between the variables contained in the selected school characteristics of each school and the LBDQ - Form XII scores of the principals, mean scores of the teachers and mean scores of the parents.

Pearson correlation coefficients were used for the correlations above. The .05 level was used to determine significance.

5. Answers to the non-quantitative writer's questionnaire "Role of the Principal in Developing Community Involvement Programs," were used to support quantitative judgement conclusions.

Summary

This chapter has presented the questions to be addressed in this

study, and the specific components relating to the methodology and design of the study. Chapter IV will provide an analysis of the results which were attained by using the data collected and the procedures described in this chapter.

[1] Op. Cit., Williams, Wall, Martin, and Berchin, p. 20.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS

Introduction

This chapter will analyze the results obtained in testing each of four hypotheses. A thorough examination of each of these hypotheses and the interrelationships identified can aid in identifying the leadership behavior of principals who would be successful in the implementation of alternative schools and alternative programs for the public school sector.

Research Findings

Hypothesis I. There are no significant differences between the top third and the bottom third of the principals of thirteen selected schools that are involved in alternative educational programs and alternative schools as measured by each of the twelve factors of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire - Form XIII.

To determine whether there were significant differences between the means of the top third and the bottom third of the principals of the schools involved in this study, a mean score was obtained from schools whose principals scored lowest. Student's t-test was then used to determine whether significant differences occurred in the twelve factors of the LBDQ - Form XII. (See Table I)

Differences between the means of the principals were significant

TABLE I

DIFFERENCES OF THE MEANS BETWEEN TOP THIRD AND BOTTOM THIRD OF THE PRINCIPALS, THEIR TEACHERS, AND PARENTS ON LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE FORM XII BY FACTOR

Factor	Behavior	Type	Principals		Teachers		Parents	
			$\bar{X}_t$	$\bar{X}_b$	$\bar{X}_t$	$\bar{X}_b$	$\bar{X}_t$	$\bar{X}_b$
1	Representation	N	23.5	19.2*	21.8	20.3	16.8	21.4
2	Demand Reconciliation	P	24.2	17.8*	21.0	18.0	16.9	20.8
3	Tolerance of Uncertainty	P	42.9	31.5*	39.2	30.2*	33.6	35.0
4	Persuasiveness	N	45.8	35.3*	40.5	37.5	33.3	40.4
5	Initiation of Structure	N	47.0	38.8*	44.6	39.2*	42.4	42.7
6	Tolerance of Freedom	P	45.4	36.3*	40.3	38.3	39.2	40.5
7	Role Assumption	N	46.2	35.3*	43.6	35.0*	35.6	41.6
8	Consideration	P	46.6	38.8*	42.9	40.0	41.6	42.6
9	Production Emphasis	N	44.5	32.6*	41.3	33.1*	38.1	36.9
10	Predictive Accuracy	P	21.3	18.2*	20.0	18.3	15.8	19.3
11	Integration	P	24.8	18.8*	21.5	16.7*	21.6	21.3
12	Superior Orientation	N	44.8	32.5*	41.8	36.6*	30.1	40.0

*Denotes significance. Means are significant at the .05 level.
N Denotes Normative Behavior.
P Denotes Personal Behavior.

at the .05 level in all dimensions of the LBDQ - Form XII. The null hypothesis is rejected. (See Table I)

The fact that there were differences between the scores of the highest third and lowest third of the principals is not in itself unusual. The importance of this finding is to show that the principals did not constitute an undifferentiated or homogeneous mass and that there are measureable differences between principals in the study.

The fact that measureable differences exist between principals gives meaning to the examination of the next three hypotheses in which there is an attempt to determine whether there are differences in the scores attributed to these principals by their teachers and parents, and whether there are differences between principals in the different clusters.

Hypothesis II. There are no significant differences between the mean scores of the principals of each of the three major clusters on each of the twelve factors of the LBDQ - Form XII.

The investigation of this hypothesis, of course, constitutes the original basis for this study. The expectation was that there would be significant differences in the LBDQ - Form XII factors for principals in the three different clusters. It may be recalled that these three clusters represent the following situations:

Cluster I consisted of the Northeast-East Rogers Park Cluster which contained the Hayt, Field, Kilmer and Swift elementary schools. These options were designed programs based on curriculum content. They were initiated at the suggestion of the district superintendent

and were designed by the respective principals after several months of discussions. These plans were presented to the respective local school councils and school staff for further planning approval and implementation.

Cluster II consisted of four Southeast Side Schools, the Barnard, Kellogg, Sutherland and Vanderpoel Elementary Schools. Their options originated at the request of the district education council in concert with the district superintendent. The options programs designed were based on four different instructional modes.

Cluster III consisted of three Near West Side Schools, the Jackson, Jefferson, and Riis Elementary Schools. These options were initiated at the request of the district education council. The options offered were (1) a resource based option designed to increase pupil decision-making and responsibility for learning, (2) a co-planned project where experiences were provided which were chosen cooperatively by students involving teacher guidance, and (3) a structured skills development program.

The null hypothesis was found to be true when LBDQ - Form XII scores were compared between principals of Cluster I and Cluster II schools, principals of Cluster I and Cluster III schools, and principals of Cluster II and Cluster III schools. (See Table II) The mean scores for each factor are shown by cluster in Table II. The t-test performed did not show significant differences for principals in the three clusters.

Although there were no differences in the self scores of principals in the clusters, it was considered worthwhile to attempt to

TABLE II

MEAN SCORES OF PRINCIPALS ON LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE - FORM XII BY FACTOR AND COMPARISONS BY CLUSTER

Factor	Behavior	Type	Clusters $\bar{X}_I$ vs $\bar{X}_{II}$		Clusters $\bar{X}_I$ vs $\bar{X}_{III}$		Clusters $\bar{X}_{II}$ vs $\bar{X}_{III}$	
1	Representation	N	20.0	21.3	20.0	20.7	21.3	20.7
2	Demand Reconciliation	P	19.8	21.3	19.8	20.7	21.3	20.7
3	Tolerance of Uncertainty	P	38.0	37.0	38.0	38.3	37.0	38.3
4	Persuasiveness	N	37.5	43.8	37.5	39.3	43.8	39.3
5	Initiation of Structure	N	41.5	43.8	41.5	40.7	43.8	40.7
6	Tolerance of Freedom	P	42.8	40.5	42.8	39.3	40.5	39.3
7	Role Assumption	N	38.8	42.5	38.5	41.0	42.5	41.0
8	Consideration	P	43.3	43.0	43.3	43.7	43.0	43.7
9	Production Emphasis	N	35.0	37.5	35.0	34.7	37.5	34.7
10	Predictive Accuracy	P	18.5	20.5	18.5	19.3	20.5	19.3
11	Integration	p	20.8	22.3	20.8	22.0	22.3	22.0
12	Superior Orientation	N	36.0	41.5	36.0	35.7	35.7	35.7

Note: t-tests were performed by comparing Cluster I with Cluster II principal mean scores, Cluster I with Cluster III principal mean scores and Cluster II with Cluster III principal mean scores. There were no significant differences on any of the twelve factors.

$\bar{X}_I$ = Mean of Cluster I principals

$\bar{X}_{II}$ = Mean of Cluster II principals

$\bar{X}_{III}$ = Mean of Cluster III principals

determine whether there were differences between clusters in the scores attributed to the principals by their teachers. These scores and their results are shown in Table III.

The t-test was used to compare the scores, of the teachers of Cluster I as compared with the teachers of Cluster III and the scores of the teachers of Cluster II as compared with the teachers of Cluster III schools.

In the case of the comparison of the mean scores of the teachers of Cluster I with the mean scores of the teachers of Cluster II schools there was no significant difference in any of the twelve dimensions of the LBDQ - Form XII questionnaire.

When the mean scores were compared for teachers of Cluster II and Cluster III schools significant differences occurred in six of the twelve dimensions of the LBDQ - Form XII at the level of .05.

Significant differences occurred in factor 1, Representation, factor 4, Persuasiveness, factor 5, Initiation of Structure, factor 7, Role Assumption, factor 9, Production Emphasis, and factor 12, Superior Orientation. It is interesting to note that these are all normative factors. It is interesting for the fact that the initiative for obtaining alternative educational programs came from the insistence of the community for the Cluster III schools. Cluster II schools had good community input, however, the initiative for obtaining alternative programs came from the sub-district and schools.

Significant differences also occurred in Cluster I schools where the initiative came directly from the sub-district superintendent. The schools involved were chosen because of their continguous

TABLE III

MEAN SCORES FOR PRINCIPALS AS PERCEIVED BY THEIR TEACHERS USING THE LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE FORM - XII BY FACTOR AND COMPARISONS BY CLUSTER

Factor	Behavior	Type	Clusters $\bar{X}_{TI}$ vs $\bar{X}_{TII}$		Clusters $\bar{X}_{TI}$ vs $\bar{X}_{TIII}$		Clusters $\bar{X}_{TII}$ vs $\bar{X}_{TIII}$	
1	Representation	N	20.5	21.4	20.5	18.1*	21.4	18.1*
2	Demand Reconcilation	P	18.5	20.8	18.5	16.7	20.8	16.7
3	Tolerance of Uncertainty	P	35.4	37.0	35.4	33.5	37.0	33.5
4	Persuasiveness	N	39.1	44.3	39.1	33.3	44.3	33.3*
5	Initiation of Structure	N	40.8	43.6	40.8	34.6*	43.6	34.6*
6	Tolerance of Freedom	P	41.1	39.5	41.1	38.4	39.5	38.4
7	Role Assumption	N	38.1	44.2	38.1	31.3	44.2	31.3*
8	Consideration	P	41.2	41.6	41.2	36.1	41.6	36.1
9	Production Emphasis	N	34.2	38.8	34.2	31.3	38.8	31.3*
10	Predictive Accuracy	P	18.4	19.8	18.4	16.5	19.8	16.5
11	Integration	P	19.3	20.9	19.3	16.4	20.9	16.4
12	Superior Orientation	N	38.2	42.3	38.2	36.9	42.3	36.9*

Note: *Denotes significance. Means are significant at the .05 level using student's t-test.

$\bar{X}_{TI}$ = Mean of Cluster I teachers

$\bar{X}_{TII}$ = Mean of Cluster II teachers

$\bar{X}_{TIII}$ = Mean of Cluster III teachers

boundaries and contained one school which had a predominantly minority population which could serve to integrate the other three schools. The principals were very cooperative and developed the plan while enlisting the help of community and staff in the planning. As in the case above significant differences arose in some factors of the LBDQ - Form XII for teachers of Cluster I as compared with Cluster III. The dimensions were factor 1, Representation, and factor 5, Initiation of Structure. It should be noted here that these are also normative factors. The teachers, it appears, perceived rightly the fact that the principal acted as representative for them and initiated the structure of the alternative educational programs. These observations will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter V. It was also possible to determine whether there were any differences by cluster in those scores attributed to principals by parents. The mean scores attributed by parents are shown in Table IV. As may be seen in Table IV, there were no significant differences. It is possible to speculate that parents did not really know the principals well enough to accurately rate them. This speculation will be given further weight when Hypothesis IV is examined.

Hypothesis III. When principals are divided into the top third and bottom third on the basis of scores of each of the twelve factors of the LBDQ - Form XII there are no significant differences between the mean scores of their teachers who rated them on each of the twelve factors of the LBDQ - Form XII.

When the teachers' responses were compared to the responses of their principals as stated in Hypothesis III, it was found that there

TABLE IV

MEAN SCORES FOR PRINCIPALS AS PERCEIVED BY PARENTS
USING THE LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE
FORM - XII BY FACTOR AND COMPARISONS BY CLUSTER

Factor	Behavior	Type	Clusters $\bar{X}_{PI}$ vs $\bar{X}_{PII}$		Clusters $\bar{X}_{PI}$ vs $\bar{X}_{PIII}$		Clusters $\bar{X}_{PII}$ vs $\bar{X}_{PIII}$	
1	Representation	N	20.9	16.9	20.9	20.5	16.9	20.5
2	Demand Reconciliation	P	20.0	16.3	20.0	20.3	16.3	20.3
3	Tolerance of Uncertainty	P	37.4	27.3	37.4	36.6	27.3	36.6
4	Persuasiveness	N	40.9	32.6	40.9	39.3	32.6	39.3
5	Initiation of Structure	N	41.0	32.8	41.0	41.8	32.8	41.8
6	Tolerance of Freedom	P	40.4	30.1	40.4	39.2	30.1	39.2
7	Role Assumption	N	41.8	32.3	41.8	39.1	32.3	39.1
8	Consideration	P	42.5	31.4	42.5	42.6	31.4	42.6
9	Production Emphasis	N	34.6	31.1	34.6	37.8	31.1	37.8
10	Predictive Accuracy	P	19.2	15.1	19.2	18.7	15.1	18.7
11	Integration	P	20.8	16.3	20.8	20.6	16.3	20.6
12	Superior Orientation	N	38.5	31.0	38.5	41.7	31.0	41.7

Note: There were no significant differences on any of the twelve factors.

$\bar{X}_I$ = Mean of Cluster I Parents

$\bar{X}_{II}$ = Mean of Cluster II Parents

$\bar{X}_{III}$ = Mean of Cluster III Parents

were several significant differences between teachers of the top third of the principals as compared with the means of the bottom third of the teachers at the .05 level in the normative factors 5, Initiation of Structure, 7, Role Assumption, 9, Production Emphasis, and 12, Superior Orientation, and in personal factors 3, Tolerance of Uncertainty, and factor 11, Integration. The null hypothesis held for all other factors. (See Table I)

Also, from a perusal of Table I it can be seen that as one occupies a role further from the principal (i.e. teacher, parent) the mean scores of the lower third increase while the mean scores of the upper third decrease. This observation would suggest that perceptions of leader behavior by observers are closer to the leader's perceptions as the observers inter-react more closely with the leader in all the dimensions of leader behavior. This interpretation would account for signficant differences in six dimensions of the LBDQ - Form XII for the top third of the teachers as differentiated from the bottom third of the teachers while no significant differences exist between the top third and the bottom third of the parents as they perceived their principal's behavior. It is to be noted that significant differences occurred between the means on all twelve dimensions of the LBDQ - Form XII for the top third of the principals as compared with the bottom third of the principals when comparing their self perceptions.

It would suggest that the lower third of the teachers as contrasted with the upper third view their principals as: (1) less able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety or upset (Factor 3), (2) less able to clearly define their own roles and let

followers know what is expected of them (Factor 5), (3) less actively exercising their leadership role rather than surrending leadership to others (Factor 7), (4) less apt to apply pressure for productive output (Factor 9), (5) less able to maintain a closely knit organization or resolve intermember conflicts (Factor 11), (6) and less apt to maintain cordial relations with superiors, have influence with them, or strive for higher status (Factor 12).

Hypothesis IV. When principals are divided into the top third and bottom third on the basis of the LBDQ - Form XII scores on each of its twelve factors, there are no significant differences between the mean scores of their school's parents who rated them on each of the twelve factors using the LBDQ - Form XII.

The null hypothesis was accepted. This finding would not be consistent with the fact that the parents who were asked to respond knew the principal well and were involved in the activities of the school. Experience tells us that there are two dominant reasons for parents to be involved in the school. They either approve of school policy and the operation of the school under their principal and want to help or, they strongly oppose the policies of the school administration and wish to change them. In the case of alternative school programs the parents see change coming about and approve of this. They therefore perceive their principal as being involved in the process toward desirable change. This finding will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter V. (See Table I)

See Table V with respect to the writer's questionnaire Role of the Principal in Developing Community Involvement Programs. Several

TABLE V

PRINCIPALS' MEAN SCORES ON LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE - FORM XII FOR NORMATIVE AND PERSONAL BEHAVIORS AS COMPARED WITH NORMATIVE AND PERSONAL BEHAVIOR SCORES ON WRITER'S QUESTIONNAIRE. ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL IN DEVELOPING COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT PROGRAMS

		LBDQ-XII		Writer Questionnaire	
Cluster	School	N	P	N	P
I	A	3.9	4.2	8	16
	B	3.7	3.9	2	22
	C	3.3	3.5	9	15
	D	4.4	4.6	no response	
II	E	3.6	3.6	11	13
	F	4.8	4.6	no response	
	G	4.4	4.5	15	9
	H	3.9	3.9	16	8
III	J	3.8	3.7	11	13
	K	4.1	4.1	8	16
	L	3.8	4.4	9	15
Alternative School	M	4.3	4.4	10	14
Alternative School	N	4.6	4.3	11	13

observations should be discussed in light of the results obtained from the principals as they perceived themselves and as they perceived the process of choosing alternative educational programs for their schools and cluster.

Cluster 2 principals indicated that their alternative educational programs were chosen through predominantly normative steps in the process of developing and implementing alternative educational programs. They perceived themselves as balanced in the normative and personal dimensions. This balance would tend to indicate that they gravitate toward being transactional leaders. They adjusted themselves readily to normative demands made on them. Cluster 1 and Cluster 3 principals viewed themselves as personal style leaders. The fact that all of the principals thrived and that their students performed well is borne out in their longevity as leaders of their schools. As of the writing of this study, all principals involved in this study which began three years ago remain at the helm as the educational leaders of their schools though there has been a change of three general superintendents and the alternative educational programs have gone through a change of concept, name, and funding.

Beyond the investigation of the hypotheses shown above, it was possible to analyze some of the data utilizing some other information which was available. This information included variables of racial percentages, reading index, mobility, poverty index, reading gain, percent of faculty with less than six years experience and percent of faculty with bachelor's degree only.

Pearson correlation coefficients were run to determine what

relationships, if any, existed among these several variables obtained from a list of selected school characteristics and the twelve factors of the LBDQ - Form XII. Also, the interrelationships among the variables themselves were analyzed. (See Table VI)

The reading index of the school (that number which rated the proportion of the distance of the schools from above or below the national norm) varied inversely with the percent of minority students in the school. That is, as the percentage of minority students increased in the school, the reading index decreased significantly. As the percentage of white students increased, the reading index of the school increased significantly.

As the percentage of mobility of the students in the school increased, the reading index decreased significantly.

Reading index also significantly varied inversely with the percentage of students from low income families in the school. As the percent of children from low income families increased in the school, the reading index decreased.

The mean reading gains of the school significantly varied inversely with the family income of the students. As the percentage of children from low income families increased, the mean reading gain decreased significantly.

In the following findings where indicated (N) represents normative behavior, (P) represents personal behavior.

When the category of faculty experience was investigated, the following relationships were noted: As the percent of faculty in the school with less than six years of teaching experience increased, the

TABLE VI

PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS SCHOOL CHARACTERISTICS

Factors	Minority %	White %	Mobility %	Rdg Ind	Low Inc %	Rdg Gn	Fac Exp % Less Than 6 Years
Principal							
1							.5243 p=.027*
5							.5558 p=.02*
6							.6862 p=.003*
8							.7654 p=.001*
Teachers							
4				.4611 p=.049*			
5			-.4519 p=.052*				
6	.6153 p=.01*						
7			-.5051 p=.033*	.4634 p=.048*			
8	.4916 p=.037*						
9			-.5705 p=.017*	.5747 p=.015*			

TABLE VI (continued)

Factors	Minority %	White %	Mobility %	Rdg Ind	Low Inc %	Rdg Gn	Fac Exp % Less Than 6 Years
Parents							
1	.5643 p=.018*	-.4794 p=.041*					
2	.4605 p=.049*						
3	.4651 p=.047	-.4739 p=.043*					
6		-.4424 p=.057*					
9	.5542 p=.022*	-.5437 p=.022*					
11	.4704 p=.045*						
12	.5058 p=.033*	-.5137 p=.03*		-.4827 p=.04*			
% Minority		-.6457 p=.06*		-.5610 p=.018*			
% White				.7893 p=.001*			
% Mobility				-.6361 p=.007*			
Rdg. Ind.	-.5610 p=.018*		-.6361 p=.007*		-.6509 p=.006*		
% Low Inc		-.7904 p=.001*		-.6509 p=.006*		-.4828 p=.04*	
Rdg. Gain					-.4828 p=.04*		

Note: *Denotes Significance at .05 level.

principals of these schools rated themselves as having higher mean scores in factor 1, representation - speaking and acting as a representative of the group (N), factor 5, initiation of structure - clearly defining his/her own role, and letting followers know what is expected (N), factor 6 - tolerance of freedom - allowing followers scope for initiative, decision, and action (P), and factor 8, consideration - regarding the comfort, well-being, status, and contributions of followers (P).

These findings suggest that the principals of alternative schools demonstrated properties of being transactional leaders. This was a property demonstrated among the principals of high organizational renewal schools in the Wall study referred to on page 7 of this dissertation.

When mean scores of the teachers were computed on how they perceived their principals on the LBDQ - Form XII, the following relationship was noted: as the minority percentage of the student body increased the teachers rated their principals as exhibiting higher scores on factor 6 - tolerance of freedom, - and factor 8 - considerations - both personal behaviors.

Inversely, as mobility increased, the teachers rated their principals as exhibiting lower mean scores in the areas of factor 5 - initiation of structure, factor 7 - role assumption, actively exercising the leadership role rather than surrendering leadership to others, and factor 9 - production emphasis, applying pressure for productive output. All of these are normative behaviors.

When the reading index category was investigated with respect to

the dimensions of the LBDQ - Form XII, the following was noted among the teachers as they perceived the leader behavior of their principals: As the reading index increased, the teachers perceived their principals as having higher mean scores in factor 4, persuasiveness (N), factor 7, role assumption (N) and factor 9, production emphasis (N) all normative behaviors.

The parents' responses were then investigated as to their perceptions of their principals behaviors using the LBDQ - Form XII.

Significant findings occurred in the following categories: As the minority percentage of students in the schools increased, so did the parents rate their principals higher in the categories of factor 1, representation - speaking and acting as representative of the group (N), factor 2, demand reconciliation - reconciling conflicting demands and reducing disorder to the system (P), factor 3, tolerance of uncertainty - able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety or upset (P), factor 9, production emphasis (N), factor 11, integration - maintaining a closely knit organization and resolving intermember conflict (P), and factor 12, superior orientation - maintaining cordial relations with superiors, having influence with them, and striving for higher status (N). These indicate a tendency toward transactional behavior.

As the percentage of white students increased in the school, the parents perceived the principal as exhibiting lower mean scores in the following categories of the LBDQ - Form XII: factor 1 - representation (N), factor 3 - tolerance of uncertainty (P), factor 6 - tolerance of freedom (P), factor 9 - production emphasis (N), and

factor 12 - superior orientation (N).

When parents perceptions of their principals were compared with regard to the reading index of their school, as the reading index increased the parents felt less that their principal exhibited factor 12 - superior orientation (N).

These findings verify the fact that the higher the reading index the more probable it is that the school has a greater majority of white students. Also, verified is the fact that the higher the mobility in the school the lower the reading index and the higher the percentage of students from families of low income the lower the reading index of the school.

Reading gain was also inversely related to the family income of the students of a school. That is, the lower the percentage of families with low income in a school the higher were its reading gains.

Another interesting relationship that seems to emerge from this study is that the greater the percent of faculty with less than six years experience in a school the more the principal of that school views himself as high in representation, initiation of structure, tolerance of freedom, and consideration.

Summary

This chapter presented an analysis and a discussion of the findings gathered for each of four hypotheses posed. Leadership behaviors were observed in thirteen different schools all of which had one or more alternative educational programs. These behaviors were

described by the leaders themselves and then were compared with the observations and perceptions of the same behaviors by the teachers and parents who had knowledge of the leader. All used the LBDQ - Form XII Questionnaire to describe the behaviors they observed.

The t-test was used to compare the behaviors of principals as members of selected clusters and then as members of a group of principals who were all involved in alternative or optional education programs. The t-test was then used to compare these observations with the observations of the principals as perceived by their teachers and their parents.

Pearson correlation coefficients were run to determine the relationships that existed as a result of several school variables obtained from a list of selected school characteristics.

When these findings are reviewed with respect to the findings discovered in the research indicated in Chapter 2, the role of the principal as a change agent is strikingly shown.

Mary Mikros, in her study (see page 28 of this study) indicated the significant role played by the principal as <u>the</u> crucial factor in the quality of the school and implementation of community involvement.

Bargman's assertion quoted on page 27 of this study, that the principal could not hope to bring about innovative changes without consideration of the school community seems to be borne out in this study.

Zorn's suggestions (see page 28 of this study) seem also to be borne out in this study. Community influence has indeed influenced the success of these options programs and the parents have

demonstrated more positive attitudes toward their schools and leaders.

Bamber's "collaborative mode" of school governance as the best hope for the public schools and their salvation (see page 31 of this study) seems to be demonstrated in this study.

Cohen's 1978 study (see page 54 of this study) and his findings that parents were in consensus, for the most part, with the principals' views of their own behavior only to a lesser degree and that teachers, in contrast, perceived the behavior of their principals in a very different light, gains substance as a result of the findings of this study.

This study bears out Cormell's findings that there was not one leadership style which was used exclusively by effective principals (see page 54 of this study). Effective principals use a variety of leadership styles to meet the demand of a given situation as seen also in this study.

As Hennigar and Taylor found, managers with a high concern for productivity and people were more open to change than those with a low concern (see page 54 of this study). A perusal of this shows in many instances as one reviews the statistics that this is indeed the case in the options program schools that responded to the request for information and participated in this study.

These findings and the findings of this study should prove most helpful when organizing options programs or alternative schools. The call from many quarters of our nation, from our industrial complex, from our research and development centers, from our public, even from our own educational establishment for vital, immediate, meaningful

educational change has been heard and can become an established fact. The tools are there and the public is responding. The fear of change has been allayed, or should be allayed as a result of the many findings herein enumerated. Change in education is vitally needed and the principals' leader behavior is central to bringing this about.

In closing, Chapter IV has presented a report of the findings gathered to answer each of the research questions posed.

Chapter V presents the conclusions as suggested by the findings. In addition some implications of these findings are offered and directions for future research are recommended.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

The following chapter will present the conclusions that are suggested as a result of the findings using the tools of analysis suggested in Chapter III. Then the implications of the study for those practicing in the field will be discussed followed by a suggestion of what direction future research in this area should take.

Some further suggestions will be made as to the role the principal should play in the implementation, governance, and maintenance of alternative educational programs.

Conclusions

Hypothesis I

There are no significant differences between the top third and the bottom third of the principals of thirteen selected schools that are involved in alternative educational programs and alternative schools as measured by each of the twelve factors of the LBDQ - Form XII.

The null hypothesis was rejected. It was found that there were significant differences between the mean scores of the top third and the bottom third of the principals of thirteen selected schools that are involved in alternative educational programs and alternative

schools on all twelve factors of the LBDQ - Form XII. (The scores were arranged in order from the top score to the bottom score and divided into three equal groups.) (See Table I) The null hypothesis was rejected.

This finding indicates that the LBDQ - Form XII is sensitive enough to measure perceptions of leader behavior.

All of these principals were chosen by the same competitive examination and were among the top twenty percent of their colleagues yet the leader behaviors of the top third varied significantly from those of the bottom third of all twelve dimensions of the LBDQ - Form XII at the .05 level of significance when using student's t-test. This might suggest that the situations in which the principals found themselves determined the leader behavior that they exhibited.

Further demonstration that the situation determined the leader behavior exhibited is found in the results of Hypothesis II.

Hypothesis II

There are no significant differences between the mean scores of the principals of each of the three major clusters on each of the twelve factors of the LBDQ - Form XII.

As seen in Table II, page 77 the null hypothesis was accepted. There are no significant differences between the principals of the three major clusters when using the t-test. It was found that there was one representative of the top third and one representative of the bottom third of the principals in each of the major clusters. This might suggest that these clusters were formed to desegregate selected schools or to relieve situations where schools were perceived to be in

trouble due to ineffective educational programs or ineffective educational leadership.

The public acceptance of change in the form of alternatives or options at the opportune time may have offered the solutions to some of these problems. Another explanation might be that the offering of change might have released tensions and directed attention away from the negative and failure to the positive and goal-setting.

Hypothesis III

When principals are divided into the top third and bottom third on the basis of scores on each of the twelve factors of the LBDQ - Form XII, there are no significant differences between the mean scores of their teachers who rated them on each of the twelve factors of the LBDQ - Form XII.

This hypothesis is rejected. As seen in Table I, page 74, significant differences were found in the perceptions of the teachers as they perceived their principals. These differences were predominantly in four of the six normative factors and two of the six personal factors as follows:

Factor 3 - Tolerance of Uncertainty - Personal

Factor 11 - Integration - Personal

Factor 5 - Initiation of Structure - Normative

Factor 7 - Role Assumption - Normative

Factor 9 - Production Emphasis - Normative

Factor 12 - Superior Orientation - Normative

These findings indicate that the principals in the bottom third are perceived to be less able to tolerate uncertainty without upset or

anxiety and to be less able to maintain a closely knit organization or to resolve intermember conflicts. They are also perceived as being less able to define their own role, to apply pressure for productive output and to have influence with superiors or to strive for higher status.

Hypothesis IV

When principals are divided into the top third and the bottom third on the basis of the LBDQ - Form XII scores on each of its twelve factors, there are no significant differences between the mean scores of their school's parents who rated them on each of the twelve factors using the LBDQ - Form XII.

As can be seen in Table I, page 74, there were no significant differences among the parents in any of the twelve factors of the LBDQ - Form XII. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

This finding indicates that one way to gain public support is to be in the forefront of change or to be perceived as being receptive to change.

A study of Tables II, III, and IV, pages 77, 79, and 81 respectively, yields some other significant findings. While there are no significant differences between the mean scores of the principals of the three major clusters or between the mean scores of the parents as they perceived their principals in the three major clusters, there are significant differences between the teachers of clusters I and III and the teachers of clusters II and III.

The differences between teachers of clusters I and III were significant only in the normative factors 1, Representation and 5,

Initiation of Structure.

The differences between teachers of clusters II and III were significant in all the normative factors of the LBDQ - Form XII, 1, 4, 5, 7, 9 and 12.

The findings above are of engaging interest if one looks into the school characteristics of the three clusters. Schools of cluster I and cluster II were very similar in income characteristics. They had a relatively low percent of children from poverty level families. cluster III schools had a relatively high percent of children from poverty level families. If this were the only characteristic that differentiated the clusters from one another, then the finding above should show that the same significant differences exist between cluster I and III as exist between II and III. This is not the case however, Why? It is suggested that this is so because cluster I and cluster II were more similar in their mix of minority and majority students while cluster III schools were almost solidly minority schools.

Some verification of this view can be seen in the fact that there were significant differences between cluster I and cluster III teachers in the way they perceived the leader behavior of their principals as there were between cluster II and cluster III teachers though they were less in number, two to be precise, Representation (factor 1) and Initiation of Structure (factor 5).

The above is significant in that the options programs in the three clusters were the result of differences in the directions from whence these changes came. Cluster III programs came about as the

result of tremendous community pressure upon the Board of Education, its sub-district office, and its local school administrators. Many of the community leaders were connected directly or indirectly with the University of Illinois, Chicago Circle Campus. The schools involved were in communities surrounding the University of Illinois, Chicago Circle Campus.

While the communities of clusters I and II were active and involved in the selection of options programs, the direction for change came from the Board of Education and its director for optional program planning and/or the sub-district office. In these cases the local school administrators were viewed as being in the forefront of change. The direction from which change came could explain the perceptions of their teachers that their administrators were more normative than were the administrators of cluster III, particularly, in the areas of representation and initiation of structure.

Pearson correlation coefficients were run for variables used in Selected School Characteristics of the Chicago Board of Education for the schools involved in this study.[1] These variables included minority and majority percentage of student body, school reading index, mobility of student body, percent of poverty, mean reading gain of students, faculty experience, and percent of faculty having the Bachelor of Arts Degree only.

Significant reverse correlations were found between school reading index and minority percentage, between school reading index, and school mobility, between school reading index and poverty level.

The higher the school reading index the higher was the majority

population.

Reading gains varied inversely with poverty level: the greater the poverty level in the school the lower was the reading gain.

Percentage of faculty experiences also correlated significantly with four factors of the LBDQ - Form XII Questionnaire. The higher the percentage of faculty with less than six years experience the more the principal was perceived as being high in representation, initiation of structure, tolerance of freedom and consideration.

Implications From Conclusions and Recommendations

In all of the schools in this study there has been a remarkable stability in their leadership in spite of the fact that tremendous change has occurred in leadership at the top. During the period of this study, three different general superintendents of schools have been appointed. There has been a realignment of program, a rearrangement of cluster schools, and a change in funding. There has been a greater than usual attrition in the number of principals in the system due to increased stress and community pressure. Community pressure has resulted in several changes of principals throughout the city during the period of this study. Yet, in the schools of this study the original principals remain and the schools have been making progress. Their communities are still involved and accepting of these schools as viable schools for their neighborhood. They are supportive and affirming in their acceptance of these schools.

The facts observed above would imply to any administrator that, if he were to remain as the instructional leader in his school and

keep the school effective and viable as the predominant educational force in its community and keep the community loyal and accepting of its school, he should be open and alert to change. The school should be in the forefront of change. Not only that, but the community should be kept informed and involved in that change.

In 1965 Gross and Herriott in their book, Staff Leadership in Public Schools: A Sociological Inquiry, used the concept Executive Professional Leadership (EPL) as a measure of the effectiveness of the principal in improving the quality of the performance of his staff.

In 1970 Charles C. Wall in his study, Perceived Leader Behavior of the Elementary School Principal as Related to Educational Goal Attainment, used the concept of Educational Goal Attainment to find that those schools that were high goal-attaining schools had educational leaders that were perceived to be personal style leaders.

Now, a third dimension is added to leader behavior of principals: his affect on and how he is affected by community and staff; that is, as a leader of educational change or change agent.

In this new dimension the principal reaches out to the community and counts it in on the educational change that is to take place. The school truly becomes three dimensional and leader behavior is broadened in scope. The school is no longer an isolated island but is strengthened because of the increased support and power of the community. A new dynamism is now taking place in these schools and the leader must wrestle with problems greater in scope. A process has been set in motion and its momentum toward change cannot be slowed.

In the past schools changed very little. There was inertia

against change. With the new dynamism of alternative educational programs and options, change becomes the order of the day and the leader must be in the forefront of that change if he is to be accepted and survive.

Implications

The principal must be a change agent if he is to help his school become an accepted and viable community institution. As a change agent, he must involve the community in some part of the decision-making on what the school will or should become. The community will be a great source of strength and stability for the school if it feels it has a vested interest in the success of the school.

The fact that it was found that reading gains and reading indices were inversely related to minority percentages and low income percentages in the schools of this study points to a problem which schools have yet to deal with successfully. The schools have no reason for existence and are meaningless institutions if they cannot reverse a statistic such as this. To reverse the relationship above is one of the very important reasons that options or alternatives have become necessary.

If the principal is to be an enlightened and effective educational leader, he should become well acquainted with the normative and personal leader behaviors he exhibits as perceived by others with whom he works or interacts. Serious distortions can occur among staff if the leader is perceived to be wholly normative, wholly personal, a transactional leader or some indeterminate combination of

both. The educational leader that pays little heed to this dooms his school and himself to serious troubles. Neither the school nor the leader will realize their full potential.

Recommendations

1. Change should be the order of the day in public schools. Principals should be in the forefront of their communities recommending change, seeking change, planning for change and bringing change about.

2. The change sought will not be possible without the cooperation and input of staff, faculty, community and parents. All of these publics must be consulted and involved or genuinely given the opportunity to provide input and become a part of the effort to bring change about.

3. Since many studies have again and again pointed to the critical role of the principal as a change agent, boards of education selecting principals must take into account the extent of the principal's concern for productivity on the part of himself, and his staff and his concern for people.

4. Public school systems that wish to install and offer systems of optional programs or schools which offer options or alternative schools must also attempt to match the principal with the school or court failure right from the beginning. Not only must the schools be concerned with leader behavior they must also attempt as much as possible to match the teachers with the options.

5. The principal must not have fear or suspicion of the

community. He must have a respect for the community and its individual members. He must allow them a chance to share in giving input in the search for solutions to educational problems.

6. The educational leader should know or seek to know the needs of his school and its students. Findings from the many studies which previously have used the LBDQ - Form XII and now this study indicate that the LBDQ - Form XII could be used as an instrument, though not the only instrument, in the process for the search for, and selection of, an educational leader such as a principal or a general superintendent.

Recommendations for Future Research

A number of questions arise as a result of this study which suggest additional research in the following areas:

1. A replication of this study is suggested for another school system where schools exhibit the same or similar characteristics.

2. The leader behavior of principals of a group of schools which offer options could be compared with a group of schools in the above collection which do not offer options.

3. An inquiry should be made into how the teachers who are involved in educational change due to implementation of optional educational programs perceive their principal's leader behavior. These should be compared with the perceptions of leader behavior that teachers have who are not involved in educational change. What meanings, if any, would this have for the future direction of education in the United States? What implications would this have for

the future training of educational administrators?

4. How do parents and community view the changes in their schools and how accepting are they of options programs in a setting other than the city? A comparison should be made, using the LBDQ - Form XII, of the community perceptions of their educational leaders in communities that have no options versus those that do. Findings in this area might determine that education in the United States must take new directions.

5. A similar study should be replicated in school districts and environments other than the inner-city environment of this study. Should the findings correspond with those of this study, new insight would be achieved in the area of leader behavior.

6. Are there significant differences in perceptions of principals in the twelve dimensions of the LBDQ - Form XII when comparing principals of schools without options programs and those with options programs? Findings in the twelve areas might prove significant in research done on situational factors of leadership and leader behavior.

7. Studies should be made into the achievement of students in options programs compared with students in traditional programs. Where is the mean achievement greater in the curricular areas? options? or traditional? How do perceptions of the principal's leader behavior differ among the students? How does their self-image differ? What are their differing perceptions of their environment? Answers to these questions might prove fruitful to planners and leaders in educational programming and curriculum construction.

The Role of the Principal in the Implementation, Governance, and Maintenance of Alternative Educational Programs

These are the result of suggestions in open-ended questionnaires:

He should be available to the community at all times.

He should be a good listener.

He should be perceptive as to the needs and desires of his community.

He should be an interpreter of the needs of his school and its students to the community.

He should define his role and responsibilities to the community.

He must be a good communicator with all of his publics - the staff, the community, the students, the parents, his superiors and the media. They should be kept informed.

He must be receptive to community involvement.

He should structure an advisory committee of staff, parents and community where possibilities of change in educational programs can be discussed. He should clarify the roles, responsibilities, and duties of all personnel involved in the committee.

He should direct the planning for all meetings and conferences.

He should see to it that all participants of the meetings have opportunities to make contributions.

As the responsible head of the school he should direct the decisions of the advisory committee after they have had their chance to respond.

He should develop specific aims, objectives and purposes for the instructional program.

He should suggest the nature of an alternative educational program for his school to his community and superior.

He should develop long-range goals.

He should develop plans for implementing and evaluating the programs once they have begun.

There should be constant feedback to the advisory committee as to how the program is progressing and changes made as needed.

The school, through its principal, should be flexible and adaptable to sudden change or a demand for change.

When all of the above has been done, the school becomes an important and accepted institution of the community deserving of its support and respect. And its leader is accepted as the educational leader of that community. Then, and only then, does the school become an effective instrument in the education of its clients the students.

[1]Context for Achievement: Test Scores and Selected School Characteristics, Elementary Schools, 1981-1982, Prepared by: Department of Research and Evaluation, Chicago Board of Education, July, 1982.

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APPENDIX A

Dear Parent/Teacher:

Attached is a copy of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII which you are being asked to complete. This questionnaire is a vital part of a Doctoral study titled: The Role of the Principal in Securing, Utilizing, and Maintaining Community Participation in the Design and Implementation of Alternative Educational Programs, and is being done with the approval of the Chicago Public Schools.

Information gained in this study will be used in the organization of present and future options programs in the Access to Excellence program of Chicago's schools.

Your candid and frank answers are a vital ingredient in the study. Please be assured that your anonymity is guaranteed.

Please indicate on the answer sheet in the space provided whether you are a parent or a teacher and write the name of your school. Then complete the document to the best of your feeling and knowledge and mail in the attached envelope.

Your prompt completion and mailing of this questionnaire in the stamped addressed envelope is gratefully appreciated.

Seymour Miller

Seymour Miller, Principal
Swift School
(A Cluster Program School)

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE—Form XII

Originated by staff members of
The Ohio State Leadership Studies
and revised by the
Bureau of Business Research

Purpose of the Questionnaire

On the following pages is a list of items that may be used to describe the behavior of your principal. Each item describes a specific kind of behavior, but does not ask you to judge whether the behavior is desirable or undesirable. Although some items may appear similar, they express differences that are important in the description of leadership. Each item should be considered as a separate description. This is not a test of ability or consistency in making answers. Its only purpose is to make it possible for you to describe, as accurately as you can, the behavior of your principal.

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

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

Published by

College of Administrative Science
The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio

Please check the space which describes your position. _____ Teacher

_____ Parent

DIRECTIONS:

a. READ each item carefully.

b. THINK about how frequently the leader engages in the behavior described by the item.

c. DECIDE whether he/she (A) *always*, (B) *often*, (C) *occasionally*, (D) *seldom* or (E) *never* acts as described by the item.

d. DRAW A CIRCLE around *one* of the five letters (A B C D E) following the item to show the answer you have selected.

A = Always

B = Often

C = Occasionally

D = Seldom

E = Never

e. MARK your answers as shown in the examples below.

Example: Often acts as described ..... A (B) C D E

Example: Never acts as described ..... A B C D (E)

Example: Occasionally acts as described ..... A B (C) D E

---

1. Acts as the spokesperson of the group ..... A B C D E
2. Waits patiently for the results of a decision ..... A B C D E
3. Makes pep talks to stimulate the group ..... A B C D E
4. Lets group members know what is expected of them ..... A B C D E
5. Allows the members complete freedom in their work ..... A B C D E
6. Is hesitant about taking initiative in the group ..... A B C D E
7. Is friendly and approachable ..... A B C D E
8. Encourages overtime work ..... A B C D E
9. Makes accurate decisions ..... A B C D E
10. Gets along well with the people above him/her ..... A B C D E
11. Publicizes the activities of the group ..... A B C D E
12. Becomes anxious when he/she cannot find out what is coming next ..... A B C D E

A = Always

B = Often

C = Occasionally

D = Seldom

E = Never

13. His/her arguments are convincing	A	B	C	D	E
14. Encourages the use of uniform procedures	A	B	C	D	E
15. Permits the members to use their own judgment in solving problems	A	B	C	D	E
16. Fails to take necessary action	A	B	C	D	E
17. Does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group	A	B	C	D	E
18. Stresses being ahead of competing groups	A	B	C	D	E
19. Keeps the group working together as a team	A	B	C	D	E
20. Keeps the group in good standing with higher authority	A	B	C	D	E
21. Speaks as the representative of the group	A	B	C	D	E
22. Accepts defeat in stride	A	B	C	D	E
23. Argues persuasively for his/her point of view	A	B	C	D	E
24. Tries out his/her ideas in the group	A	B	C	D	E
25. Encourages initiative in the group members	A	B	C	D	E
26. Lets other persons take away his/her leadership in the group	A	B	C	D	E
27. Puts suggestions made by the group into operation	A	B	C	D	E
28. Needles members for greater effort	A	B	C	D	E
29. Seems able to predict what is coming next	A	B	C	D	E
30. Is working hard for a promotion	A	B	C	D	E
31. Speaks for the group when visitors are present	A	B	C	D	E
32. Accepts delays without becoming upset	A	B	C	D	E
33. Is a very persuasive talker	A	B	C	D	E
34. Makes his/her attitudes clear to the group	A	B	C	D	E
35. Lets the members do their work the way they think best	A	B	C	D	E
36. Lets some members take advantage of him/her	A	B	C	D	E

A = Always

B = Often

C = Occasionally

D = Seldom

E = Never

37. Treats all group members as his/her equals	A	B	C	D	E
38. Keeps the work moving at a rapid pace	A	B	C	D	E
39. Settles conflicts when they occur in the group	A	B	C	D	E
40. His/her superiors act favorably on most of his/her suggestions	A	B	C	D	E
41. Represents the group at outside meetings	A	B	C	D	E
42. Becomes anxious when waiting for new developments	A	B	C	D	E
43. Is very skillful in an argument	A	B	C	D	E
44. Decides what shall be done and how it shall be done	A	B	C	D	E
45. Assigns a task, then lets the members handle it	A	B	C	D	E
46. Is the leader of the group in name only	A	B	C	D	E
47. Gives advance notice of changes	A	B	C	D	E
48. Pushes for increased production	A	B	C	D	E
49. Things usually turn out as he/she predicts	A	B	C	D	E
50. Enjoys the privileges of his/her position	A	B	C	D	E
51. Handles complex problems efficiently	A	B	C	D	E
52. Is able to tolerate postponement and uncertainty	A	B	C	D	E
53. Is not a very convincing talker	A	B	C	D	E
54. Assigns group members to particular tasks	A	B	C	D	E
55. Turns the members loose on a job, and lets them go to it	A	B	C	D	E
56. Backs down when he/she ought to stand firm	A	B	C	D	E
57. Keeps to himself/herself	A	B	C	D	E
58. Asks the members to work harder	A	B	C	D	E
59. Is accurate in predicting the trend of events	A	B	C	D	E
60. Gets his/her superiors to act for the welfare of the group members	A	B	C	D	E

A = Always

B = Often

C = Occasionally

D = Seldom

E = Never

61. Gets swamped by details	A	B	C	D	E
62. Can wait just so long, then blows up	A	B	C	D	E
63. Speaks from a strong inner conviction	A	B	C	D	E
64. Makes sure that his/her part in the group is understood by the group members	A	B	C	D	E
65. Is reluctant to allow the members any freedom of action	A	B	C	D	E
66. Lets some members have authority that he/she should keep	A	B	C	D	E
67. Looks out for the personal welfare of group members	A	B	C	D	E
68. Permits the members to take it easy in their work	A	B	C	D	E
69. Sees to it that the work of the group is coordinated	A	B	C	D	E
70. His/her word carries weight with superiors	A	B	C	D	E
71. Gets things all tangled up	A	B	C	D	E
72. Remains calm when uncertain about coming events	A	B	C	D	E
73. Is an inspiring talker	A	B	C	D	E
74. Schedules the work to be done	A	B	C	D	E
75. Allows the group a high degree of initiative	A	B	C	D	E
76. Takes full charge when emergencies arise	A	B	C	D	E
77. Is willing to make changes	A	B	C	D	E
78. Drives hard when there is a job to be done	A	B	C	D	E
79. Helps group members settle their differences	A	B	C	D	E
80. Gets what he/she asks for from his/her superiors	A	B	C	D	E
81. Can reduce a madhouse to system and order	A	B	C	D	E
82. Is able to delay action until the proper time occurs	A	B	C	D	E
83. Persuades others that his/her ideas are to their advantage	A	B	C	D	E

A = Always

B = Often

C = Occasionally

D = Seldom

E = Never

84. Maintains definite standards of performance	A	B	C	D	E
85. Trusts members to exercise good judgment	A	B	C	D	E
86. Overcomes attempts made to challenge his/her leadership	A	B	C	D	E
87. Refuses to explain his/her actions	A	B	C	D	E
88. Urges the group to beat its previous record	A	B	C	D	E
89. Anticipates problems and plans for them	A	B	C	D	E
90. Is working his/her way to the top	A	B	C	D	E
91. Gets confused when too many demands are made of him/her	A	B	C	D	E
92. Worries about the outcome of any new procedure	A	B	C	D	E
93. Can inspire enthusiasm for a project	A	B	C	D	E
94. Asks that group members follow standard rules and regulations	A	B	C	D	E
95. Permits the group to set its own pace	A	B	C	D	E
96. Is easily recognized as the leader of the group	A	B	C	D	E
97. Acts without consulting the group	A	B	C	D	E
98. Keeps the group working up to capacity	A	B	C	D	E
99. Maintains a closely knit group	A	B	C	D	E
100. Maintains cordial relations with superiors	A	B	C	D	E

ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL IN DEVELOPING COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT PROGRAMS

QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions

The following is an attempt to determine the role played by the principal and others in securing community involvement and participation in efforts to develop and implement alternative educational programs which are now operational in the school with which you are involved or have responsibility for.

To the best of your knowledge place a check (✓) in the space that applies when answering who performed the task. There should be only one check for each task performed. Check (A) if the task was performed by the principal alone. Check (B) if the task was performed by the principal in consultation with teachers. Check (C) if the task was performed by the principal in consultation with community representatives. Check (D) if the task was performed by the principal in consultation with central or district office personnel. Check (E) if the task was performed by central or district office personnel without input from the principal. Check (F) for other and explain if the others do not apply.

	A	B	C	D	E	F	(Explain)
1. Conduct a needs assessment of the school community at large.	_	_	_	_	_	_	_____
2. Interpret the educational needs to the community.	_	_	_	_	_	_	_____
3. Hold individual conferences with district or central office personnel.	_	_	_	_	_	_	_____
4. Meet with personnel from the community, the press and business.	_	_	_	_	_	_	_____
5. Take under consideration suggestions and ideas of individuals and groups in the community.	_	_	_	_	_	_	_____
6. Actively participate in professional, civic, and social organizations affairs.	_	_	_	_	_	_	_____
7. Educate and communicate to school staff the importance of public relations.	_	_	_	_	_	_	_____
8. Solicit community help in developing alternative educational programs.	_	_	_	_	_	_	_____
9. Direct the decisions of parents and teachers advisory committees.	_	_	_	_	_	_	_____
10. Create citizen advisory committees and appoint members.	_	_	_	_	_	_	_____

11. Clarify roles, responsibilities, and duties of all personnel involved in the committees. _____
12. Direct the planning for all meetings and conferences _____
13. See that all participants of meetings and conferences have an opportunity to make a contribution. _____
14. Prepare summaries and reports of meetings and conferences. _____
15. Direct the decisions of the central office. _____
16. Advise the central office on all matters pertaining to committee or conference work. _____
17. Hold individual conferences with district or central office personnel. _____
18. Develop policy statzaments pertaining to the alternative instructional program for Board adoption. _____
19. Suggest the nature of the program for Board adoption. _____
20. Develop policy statements pertaining to the alternative instructional program for Board adoption. _____
21. Make news releases, prepare magazine articles, newsletters, etc. _____
22. Develop long-range goals for the alternative programs. _____
23. Construct all schedules. _____
24. Develop plans for implementing and evaluation of the programs. _____
25. Other activities. (Please list briefly and specify)

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

PRINCIPAL INTERVIEW FORM

Hello! I am Seymour Miller. I am conducting a study on the role of the principal in securing community participation in the design and implementation of alternative educational programs. As a result of this study it is hoped that guidelines can be elicited which can guide and help administrators to utilize community support for program development.

One step of this research effort is to ask some questions of principals involved in alternative programs. All answers will be held on a strictly confidential basis.

1. Who determined, initially, to develop the program implemented and in which your school is participating?_____ What part did you personally and specifically play in that direction?_____

2. Why were parents involved?_____ In your opinion, does parent involvement mean: (a) committee involvement, or (b) assembly involvement reminiscent of town-hall meetings of yesteryear?_____

3. In the process of developing the program, what part was played by each of the following: (a) parents,_____ (b) district or central office personnel, _____ (c) teachers, _____ (d) principal, _____ (e) students, _____? Who determined who is to do what?_____: What means of communications did you use to inform parents of the meetings or the tasks to be performed?_____

4. How would you characterize the decision-making process in the development of the program? Specifically, whose decisions were most important and how were they developed and communicated?_____

5. What kind of help, if any, did you seek from the Central Office?_____: Did you ask for help from any other source?_____.

6. Were there any conflicts or differences of opinions that arose between you and the Central Office?_____. If so,what kind and how were they resolved?_____ What about between any two groups of participants?_____

7. What part did your teachers play in the development of the program?_____: Why were they involved?_____: Were any pupils consulted at all?_____;

How?_____.

8. What would you say was your most significant contribution to the process you completed?_____.

9. Briefly, what guidelines would one give a beginning principal who is interested in marshalling the support and involvement of his community in developing a program?

Are there any concluding remarks you wish to make?

APPROVAL SHEET

The dissertation submitted by Seymour Miller has been read and approved by the following Committee:

Dr. Max A. Bailey, Director
Associate Professor, Department of Administration and Supervision, Loyola University

Dr. Phillip M. Carlin
Associate Professor and Chairman, Department of Administration and Supervision, Loyola University

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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.

April 16, 1984
Date

Max A. Bailey
Director's Signature