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A STUDY OF THE ROLE OF THE ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL AS PERCEIVED BY PARENTS

by
Truman Owens

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
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TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS		ii
LIST OF TABLES		v
LIST OF FIGURES		vii
CHAPTER		
I.	INTRODUCTION	1
	General Plan of the Study	1
	Impetus for the Study	2
	Statement of the Problem	2
	Need for the Study	3
	Limitations of the Study	9
	Assumptions of this Study	10
	Plan of Presentation	11
II.	SURVEY OF RELATED LITERATURE	13
	Role Theory	13
	Related Research	27
III.	THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	46
	Role Theory	46
	Hypotheses	53
IV.	METHODOLOGY	73
	Survey of the Literature	73
	The Survey Research Method	74
	Development of the Instrument	77
	The Pilot Study	85
	Selection of the Community	90
	Interviewing Procedures	93
	Sampling	94
	Compilation and Analysis	97

CHAPTER Page

V. ANALYSIS OF DATA 99

Explanation of Statistical Procedure . . . 99
Findings 104
Validity of Instrument 132
Reliability of Instrument 136

VI. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS 140

Summary 140
Conclusions 148
Implications 149

BIBLIOGRAPHY 155

APPENDICES

A. EXPECTATIONS FOR PRINCIPAL'S PERFORMANCE . . . 163

B. RESEARCH PROJECT LETTER 169

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		Page
I.	Distribution of Variables - Pilot Study . . .	88
II.	Distribution of Scores - Pilot Study	89
III.	Percentage Distribution of Pilot Study Responses	90
IV.	Relationship of Occupational Class to Restrictiveness	105
V.	Relationship of Formal Education to Restrictiveness	106
VI.	Relationship of Religious Polity to Restrictiveness	107
VII.	Relationship of Sex to Restrictiveness . . .	108
VIII.	Relationship of Age to Restrictiveness . . .	108
IX.	Relationship of Distance from School to Restrictiveness	109
X.	Relationship of Amount of School Contact to Restrictiveness	110
XI.	Relationship of School Election Voting to Restrictiveness	111
XII.	Relationship of Leadership to Restrictiveness	111
XIII.	Relationship of Number of Children in School to Restrictiveness	112
XIV.	Summary of Correlations of Demographic Variables with Restrictiveness	113
XV.	Intercorrelation of Significant Independent Variables	114
XVI.	Stepwise Regression - Step 1	116

TABLE		Page
XVII.	Stepwise Regression - Step 2	117
XVIII.	Stepwise Regression - Step 3	118
XIX.	Stepwise Regression - Step 4	122
XX.	Stepwise Regression - Step 5	122
XXI.	Stepwise Regression - Step 6	123
XXII.	Stepwise Regression - Step 7	124
XXIII.	Means and Standard Deviations of Verification Program Using Equation 1	134
XXIV.	Means and Standard Deviations of Verification Program Using Equation 2	135
XXV.	Results of Test of Instrument Reliability . .	138
XXVI.	Summary of Correlations of Demographic Variables with Restrictiveness	145
XXVII.	Significant Intercorrelations of Significant Independent Variables	147

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE		Page
1.	Significant Counter Positions to the Principal Position	48
2.	Related Positions for this Study	49
3.	Restrictive Pattern for Upper Middle Class Occupations with Variations in Formal Education and Religious Polity	126
4.	Restrictive Pattern for Middle Class Occupations with Variations in Formal Education and Religious Polity	127
5.	Restrictive Pattern for Upper Working Class Occupations with Variations in Formal Education and Religious Polity . . .	128
6.	Restrictive Pattern for Lower Working Class Occupations with Variations in Formal Education and Religious Polity . . .	129
7.	Pattern of Interrelationships of Occupational Classes and Religious Polities to Restrictiveness with Variations in Formal Education	130

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The differences in perceptions concerning what the elementary principal should or should not do, held by parents of elementary school children, are the subject of this study. The population for this study is composed of the parents of children attending the Lincoln Consolidated Elementary School, Ypsilanti, Michigan. These differences in perceptions are to be analyzed and related to a variety of background factors which serve to differentiate the parents.

General Plan of the Study

This paper contains a statement of the problem, the need for the study, the method of inquiry, a survey of the related literature, a statement of the hypotheses, an analysis of the data, and conclusions and implications resulting therefrom.

Overview of method

A survey of the literature was made in order to gain a broad understanding of the role of the elementary principal and the developments in role theory having application to this position. Additionally, the literature provided information related to methodology and insights

related to what demographic variables should be considered in the study.

Data for the study were obtained by the survey method. A questionnaire was developed, pretested and modified; a probability sample drawn; and interviews were conducted. Data were processed at the computing laboratory of the University of Michigan Computing Center.

Impetus for the Study

The stimulus for the present investigation was derived, in the main, from two sources: The writer's personal interest in studying parental perceptions of administrative decisions and the comprehensive study of the role of the school superintendent which was made at Harvard University as a research project of the School Executive Studies.[1]

Statement of the Problem

This study is an attempt to determine the role of the elementary principal as perceived by the parents of elementary school children. In order to achieve this purpose the focus of the study is directed toward a consideration of the degree to which parents perceive the role of the elementary principal as being essentially comprised of mandatory or permissive functions.

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[1] Neal Gross, Ward S. Mason, and Alexander W. McEachern, Explorations in Role Analysis: Studies of the School Superintendency Role (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1958).

The term role as used in this study refers to a set of expectations applied to the occupant of a particular position. This definition falls within the normative category, and is concerned with what the occupant should do, not what he actually does.

Specifically, the study is designed to do three things: (1) to determine the relationship of selected demographic variables to the way parents perceive the role of the elementary principal; (2) to discover which sub-set of the demographic variables yields the best possible prediction as to the way parents will view the role of the elementary principal; and (3) demonstrate a method which can be used by professionally trained personnel for arriving at parental opinion.

Need for the Study

The need for a study of the role of the elementary principal can be substantiated by a brief examination of the historical roots of American public education and a review of the forces which have brought about changes in the nature of elementary school administration over the past two decades.

Historical roots

Traditionally American public education has been viewed as a partnership between the state and the home. This partnership concept was developed from both the legal

and the extra-legal structure. The state has laid down certain mandatory requirements and then delegated its power and control to the local community through the local school board. Hence, the most important control over education is exercised at the local level and is subject to majority opinion expressed through the use of the ballot. Additional control is delegated to each citizen, in that he may choose to send his children to a private school.

The partnership concept has been further strengthened through the exercise of many extra-legal controls. As Moehlman points out American education grew out of the expressed needs of the populace and was "folk made, not expert made."[1] Every voluntary interest group has had the inherent right "to be heard" in regard to the values, purposes, and extent of public education. The public communication media of newspapers, radio, and television having free access to information through open meetings of the local school board, have tended to broaden and reinforce the exercise of public control over the educational system.[2]

Therefore, when viewed from a historical perspective, it can be seen that through the legal structure and the practices that have developed in the extra-legal sense,

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[1]Arthur B. Moehlman, School Administration (Boston: Houghton B. Mifflin Company, 1940), p. 106.

[2]Arthur B. Moehlman, Social Interpretation (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1938), pp. 14-22.

the public schools of the United States have always been subject to direct control of the local citizens. It would also seem apparent that the need for information concerning what the citizen thinks about the actions of the educational leaders has always been of crucial importance.

Forces making for change

Since World War II the United States has experienced a phenomenal increase in its school-age population. Public elementary school enrollment increased from 13,402,000 in 1946 to 20,817,000 in 1958.[1] The result of this population explosion has been to create a need for thousands of new elementary schools. The rapid expansion of elementary buildings has created a corresponding need for large numbers of elementary administrators to be trained and placed on the job within a relatively short span of time.

Over the past 20 years the American citizen has begun to awaken from a long slumber regarding his role in the operation of government. Elsbree and McNally, in discussing the changes which have taken place in our concept of democracy, state:

> From its earlier connotations of political and governmental forms, it has been enlarged to mean a way of life, underlying which are a number

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[1] U. S. Bureau of the Census, Statistical Abstract of the United States: Eighty-second Edition (Washington, D.C., 1961), p. 115.

> of basic principles. Whereas there is no universal consensus on all of these principles, there is at least one on which spokesmen in the United States seem to agree: that every individual should have a part in making the decisions and regulations by which we shall live.[1]

We have witnessed a vast upsurge in direct citizen participation in local governmental affairs. Nowhere has the citizen been so conspicuous as in the operation of the local educational enterprise. Professional educators have been providing more and more opportunities for lay participation in the process of seeking best answers to a variety of educational problems. Likewise, even greater efforts have been expended toward developing better informed publics. Lay advisory committees, citizen's committees, and school study groups have been employed to democratize and involve large numbers in decision-making functions.

Whereas education in a general sense has been the object of most lay groups, the elementary school, possibly due to its unique position, has received the greatest amount of citizen attention.

While lay participation has been on the increase school-community controversies have occurred more frequently in communities throughout the United States. Pasadena, California; Battle Creek, Michigan; Denver, Colorado; and

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[1]Willard S. Elsbree and Harold J. McNally, Elementary School Administration and Supervision, Second Edition (New York: American Book Company, 1959), p. 421.

Eugene, Oregon have received national publicity in this connection.

All of these cases have been reported in professional literature or popular magazines and some have been treated more extensively in such publications as: This Happened in Pasadena by David Hulburd; and Public Education Under Criticism, by Winfield Scott and Clyde Hill.

In the meantime, the definition of the curriculum has been expanded to the point where it includes all the experiences the child has within the jurisdiction of the school.[1] Learning is viewed as an uninterrupted, continuous process. Consequently, more and more attention has been given to the relationship between the child's in-school and out-of-school experiences. This has resulted in a conscious effort, on the part of educators, to bring about a closer relationship between the home and the school.

Significant contributions from the fields of psychology and sociology in the past few years have caused educators to revise and broaden their concept of the learning process. Educators have come to realize that parental understanding and acceptance of the goals of the school are significant factors affecting the degree to which the school may be successful in performing its function. Indeed, the primary function of the administrator in the area of community relations, might well be defined as

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[1] Ibid., p. 419.

bringing about a high degree of congruence between the institutional (school) goals and the needs of the individual (parents).

Viewed in perspective, the forces cited above have brought about a changed cultural matrix in which the elementary administrator must function. This writer believes that in order to carry out his role successfully, the elementary principal needs to be able to predict, with a high degree of accuracy, the standards the community will use to evaluate his performance. Conrad demonstrates the need for this information when he says:

> The extent of the satisfaction which an individual member of a school derives from his work is in part determined by the educational administrator's situationally appropriate adaptations of the organizational system to at least three forces. These are: (1) Standards of organized groups within and outside the school; (2) conflict situations arising from group differences; and (3) the uneasy balance of organizational necessities of the school and the human aspirations of its members.
>
> The first of these tasks is that of recognizing and responding to the standards, group structures, backgrounds and occupations of the many organized and non-organized groups within and outside the school. Standards can be inferred from the way people act on their jobs or other life situations and from their evaluations of situations or of other persons. Standards develop in the course of time in the minds of members of groups and specify what men should do, ought to do, are expected to do under given circumstances. The task of the administrator is complicated by the fact that even within the school there exist multiple patterns of standards, depending upon the number of groups whose standards the personnel accept. When these various standards are augmented by the standards of

groups who are outside the school but who, nevertheless, judge the actions of the administrator, then the complexity of the task of administrative decision can be seen in full perspective.

If the administrator is aware of the standards held by groups, he can more accurately predict the responses of those groups to his administrative action. Such knowledge makes it possible for him to choose pragmatically propitious timing and to select from alternative courses of action. It increases foresight in action and reduces regret. It tends to replace general formulae for procedures with specific ones with a given time and place.[1]

Limitations of the Study

The major limitations of this study are imposed by the sample population, the design of the instrument, and methodology used. The study was limited to one school district and valid generalizations cannot be made which cover a broader geographic area than the school district under study.

One instrument was designed to collect data for the study. This instrument provides only the answers given by the respondents. Therefore, the interpretation of these responses is only valid to the extent that the respondents were honest and sincere, and understood the questionnaire. The study assumes respondents interpreted the questionnaire items as the writer intended.

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[1] Richard Conrad, "A Sociological Approach to Public School Administration," Educational Administration and Supervision, XXXVII (November, 1952), 385-92.

The research method employed made use of the survey research technique. Thus, the data collected consisted of opinions and the study is limited to the extent one is willing to place confidence in stated opinions. Best describes the point of view subscribed to in the present study.

> The researcher must depend upon what the individual says as to his beliefs and feelings. This is the area of opinion. Through the use of questions, or by getting an individual's expressed reaction to statements, a sample of his opinion, . . . the description and measurement of opinion, in many instances may be closely related to the real feeling or attitude of an individual.[1]

Assumptions of this Study

Since all aspects of a research project cannot be subjected to a rigorous testing procedure, it is necessary to identify and state those assumptions which have been accepted to serve as the basic foundation of the study.

This study is based on the following assumptions:

(1) opinions can be measured

(2) the careful development and use of a questionnaire-interview technique will produce valid opinions

(3) differences in opinion regarding the role of the elementary principal exist

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[1] John W. Best, Research in Education (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959), pp. 155-56.

(4) there is social value in knowing these opinions

Support for the first assumption is evident in that an extensive field of endeavor, both academic and commercial, has been developed on the basis that this assumption has a high degree of validity. The second assumption is less tenuous than the first, but must be accepted if the area under study is to be investigated. The assumption that differences in opinion exist can be supported from the writer's own personal experience and easily demonstrated by the simple technique of engaging a small group of parents in a discussion of the principal's role. The final assumption can be considered valid if one accepts that there is a relationship between conceived and operative values. Morris supports this view when he says, " . . . some interaction and some compatibility between conceived and operative values is the common state."[1] Thus, the influence of opinion on action makes the study worth while, since the responses of the respondents are related to the actions they take toward the school.

Plan of Presentation

Chapter I includes an introduction to the problem of perception of the role of the elementary principal.

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[1]Charles Morris, Varieties of Human Value (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1956), p. 11.

Chapter II contains a review of literature related to the study. The theoretical framework of the study will be presented in Chapter III. The procedures and methodology used in the study are described in Chapter IV. Chapter V contains the findings made as a result of the study. Chapter VI will deal with the conclusions drawn by the writer, implications for school administrators and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER II

SURVEY OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter contains a summary of the literature related to the present study. Topics to be discussed in this chapter include role, role definition, role expectations and research related to the role concept.

Role Theory

This study is concerned with the perceptions parents hold for the role of the elementary principal. Role was briefly defined in Chapter I as the expectations held by a group of definers concerning what the principal should do. It therefore becomes necessary, at this point, to present a discussion of role theory as it has been conceived by leading role theorists.

Definitions of role

Neiman and Hughes conducted a review of eighty different articles related to the concept role and concluded that:

> The concept role is at present still rather vague, nebulous and non-definitive. Frequently in the literature, the concept is used without any attempt on the part of the writer to define or delimit the concept, the assumption being

> made that both writer and reader will achieve an immediate compatible consensus.[1]

and further that:

> Hypotheses involving the concept role are extremely rare in the literature. This raises the question of the utility of the concept.[2]

Sarbin echoes the same concern when he says that until recently the term role " . . . was no more than an armchair abstraction and made little, if any, impression on psychological thought."[3] Getzels and Guba, two of the most active researchers employing the concept role, make a similar indictment. They evaluate the current status of the concept as follows:

> Although the concepts role and role conflict have received increasing attention in recent years, achieving the status of central constructs in the work of Parsons, Shils, and others, they have remained theoretical terms largely untried by realistic experimental application.[4]

Regardless of these charges, the writer believes that an examination of the various definitions and conceptualizations that have been proposed for the term role will reveal

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[1] L. J. Neiman and J. W. Hughes, "The Problem of the Concept Role: A Re-Survey of the Literature," Social Forces, XXX (October, 1950), 141-49.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Theodore R. Sarbin, "Role Theory," in Gardner Lindzey (Editor), Handbook of Social Psychology, Vol. I (Cambridge: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1954), p. 224.

[4] J. W. Getzels and E. G. Guba, "Role, Role Conflict, and Effectiveness: An Empirical Study," American Sociological Review, XIX (April, 1954), 164-75.

a theoretical framework possessed of sufficient continuity to permit research like this study to be carried out.

Though he was not the first to record his speculations regarding the theory of role,[1] Linton is most often quoted when the term is under discussion in the literature. For Linton there are three prerequisites for the existence of society: ". . . an aggregate of individuals, an organized system of patterns by which the inter-relations and activities of these individuals are controlled, and the esprit de corps which provides creative power for the expression of these patterns."[2] Thus, the social system is: "The sum total of the ideal patterns which control the reciprocal behavior between . . . the individual and society. . . ."[3] Linton defines role ". . . as the dynamic aspect of status. . . . When he puts the rights and duties which constitute the status into effect, he is performing a role."[4] Status, therefore, is used by Linton to account for the position occupied by an individual, while role is used to indicate the behavior of the individual. This

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[1] See S. Stansfeld Sargent, "Conceptions of Role and Ego in Contemporary Psychology," in John H. Rohrer and Mufzafer Sherif (Editors), Social Psychology at the Crossroads (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951), p. 355.

[2] Ralph Linton, The Study of Man (New York: Appleton-Crofts, Inc., 1936), p. 107.

[3] Ibid., p. 105.

[4] Ibid., p. 114.

behavior in turn serves to validate the status or position. Anticipating the possible confusion resulting from the use of two terms, status and role, Linton points out that the distinction is "of only academic interest," and therefore can be ignored in practical situations.[1]

Newcomb, a social psychologist who considers the term role a central concept, defines role as "the ways of behaving which are expected of any individual who occupies a certain position . . . (or, as many writers use the term, social role) associated with that position."[2] Newcomb, like Linton, sees "roles and positions as inseparable."[3]

Bennett and Tumin define role much in the same manner as Linton and Newcomb:

> By role, then we have reference to what society expects of an individual occupying a given status. This implies that any status is functionally defined by the role attached to it.[4]

In an attempt to classify the various definitions to be found in the literature Gross placed definitions of the type given above in the category of normative culture patterns -- that is, role is seen as standards of behavior

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Theodore M. Newcomb, Social Psychology (New York: The Dryden Press, 1951), p. 280.

[3] Ibid.

[4] John W. Bennett and Melvin W. Tumin, Social Life: Structure and Function (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1948), p. 96.

rather than what the occupant of the position actually does.[1]

An understanding of the function of the term role as it is used in the conceptual scheme of Parsons and Shils can best be accomplished against a background of the action frame of reference. Parsons and Shils conceive of action as behavior which is directed toward the attainment of goals. The behavior occurs in situations and is regulated through a system of norms.[2]

> Each action is the action of an actor, and it takes place in a situation consisting of objects. The objects may be other actors or physical or cultural objects. Each actor has a system of relations-to-objects; this is called his 'systems of orientation.' The objects may be goal objects, resources, means, conditions, obstacles, or symbols. They may be cathected (wanted or not wanted), and they may have different significances attached to them, (that is, they may mean different things to different people). Objects, by the significances and cathexes attached to them, become organized into the actor's system of orientation.[3]

Role, then, is defined as:

> . . . that organized sector of an actor's orientation which constitutes and defines his participation in an interactive process. It

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[1]Neal Gross, Ward S. Mason, and Alexander W. McEachern, Explorations in Role Analysis: Studies of the School Superintendency Role (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1958), p. 11.

[2]Talcott Parsons and Edward A. Shils, "Values, Motives, and Systems of Action," in Talcott Parsons and Edward A. Shils (Editors), Toward a General Theory of Action (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1951), p. 55.

[3]Ibid., p. 54.

> involves a set of complimentary expectations concerning his own actions and those of others with whom he interacts. Both the actor and those with whom he interacts possess these expectations.[1]

Sargent defines role as: "A person's role is a pattern or type of social behavior which seems situationally appropriate to him in terms of the demands and expectations of those in his group."[2] Sargent further amplifies his definition by an explanation of the use of his terminology.

> 'A person's role' is used to underline the fact that roles are always enacted by individuals. . . .
>
> 'Pattern or type' of social behavior suggest that . . . roles are culturally and socially defined deliminations of behavior. . . .
>
> 'Situational appropriateness' indicates the importance of perception. One does not respond to a situation as defined objectively, but rather as he perceives or interprets it.
>
> The 'demands and expectations' of others, learned through one's social experience, give a role its basic character. Most roles are reciprocal; their structure is patterned through the mutual expectations of group members. . . .[3]

It can be seen that definitions of role as conceived by both Parsons and Sargent are based on the orientation of the actor to the situation. Therefore, both definitions differ in their emphasis from those placed under the normative category, and belong under the heading suggested by Gross as "an individual's definition of his situation with

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[1] Ibid., p. 23.

[2] Sargent, op. cit., p. 360.

[3] Ibid.

reference to his and others' social position."[1]

A third category of role definitions refers not to what the occupant of the role should do, nor to the actor's definition of the situation, but rather to what the individual actually does as an actor in the role.[2] Davis defines role in these terms:

> How an individual actually performs in a given position, as distinct from how he is supposed to perform, we call his role. The role, then, is the manner in which a person actually carries out the requirements of his position. It is the dynamic aspect of status or office and as such is always influenced by factors other than the stipulations of the position itself.[3]

Though Cottrell defines role in the "self-other" context, the connection between role and behavior is apparent.

> I shall be using the term role to refer to an internally consistent series of conditioned responses by one member of a social situation which represents the stimulus pattern for a similarly internally consistent series of conditioned responses of the other(s) in that situation. Dealing with human behavior in terms of roles, therefore, requires that any given item of behavior must always be placed in some specified self-other context.[4]

Sarbin stresses interaction and is also concerned with the behavioral aspects of role in the following definition:

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[1]Gross, op. cit., p. 13.

[2]Gross, op. cit., p. 14.

[3]Kingsley Davis, Human Society (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1949), p. 90.

[4]Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr., "The Adjustment of the Individual to His Age and Sex Roles," American Sociological Review, VII (May, 1942), 617.

> A role is a patterned sequence of learned actions or deeds performed by a person in an interaction situation. The organizing of the individual actions is a product of the perceptual and cognitive behavior of person A upon observing person B. B performs one or a number of discrete acts which A observes and organizes into a concept, a role. On the basis of this conceptualization of the actions of B, A expects certain further actions from B. This expectation is covert, and is the equivalent of saying 'locates or names the position of the other.' Once having located or named the position of the other, A performs certain acts which have been learned as belonging to the reciprocal position; these actions are conceptualized as A's role.[1]

The role definitions presented in this chapter have been classified into categories suggested by Gross. These categories were normative culture patterns, an individual's definition of the situation, and behavior of the actors. Neiman and Hughes have proposed a slightly different classification scheme. They suggest that the definitions of role may be organized into three main groups:

> (a) definitions which use role to describe the dynamic process of personality development;
> (b) definitions in terms of society as a whole;
> (c) definitions in terms of specific groups within a society.[2]

Under this classification scheme definitions by Cottrell, Davis and Parsons would be classified under (a), definitions given by Sarbin and Newcomb would be placed under (b), while category (c) would contain the definitions proposed by Linton and Sargent.

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[1] Sarbin, op. cit., p. 225.

[2] Neiman, op. cit., pp. 141-49.

The attempts to systematize the various definitions of role draws attention to the fact that, as of now, no single common definition of the concept exists. Sargent alludes to this point in a discussion of the reasons why sociologists cannot agree on a definition of the term.

> One reason sociologists have failed to agree upon a concept of role is that some have approached role as an objectively defined aspect of the culture pattern which can be considered apart from the persons who actually enact or play the roles. Other sociologists include personal variables in their concept. The social psychologist, always concerned with individuals, naturally leans toward the latter type of conceptualizations.[1]

Gross suggests that the problem of differing definitions is probably due to the particular discipline of the definers.[2] He points out that the principal definitions of role have come from the fields of anthropology, sociology, psychology and social psychology. Recognizing that the concept has evolved from diverse disciplines, Sargent sees role as a concept having a cohesive influence on the behavioral sciences.

> . . . the role concept provides a bridge for interdisciplinary cooperation. The 'situational' emphasis of social scientists and the 'personality' emphasis of psychologists and psychiatrists still exists, but all of us are groping toward synthesis. Now a role is linked to a particular social situation or type of situation. At the same time, roles are learned and perceived by individuals, and may be conceptualized

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[1] Sargent, op. cit., p. 359.

[2] Gross, op. cit., p. 16.

> by them. Hence 'role' has excellent potentialities as an integrational concept in present day social psychology.[1]

Finally, Gross contends that the differences in definition are due, in part, to semantic difficulties.[2] He points out that "what Linton and Newcomb define as role, Davis defines as a status. What Davis defines as role, Newcomb calls role behavior and Sarbin role enactment."[3] Whatever the reasons may be for the different definitions of the term role, the author feels that there is a common theme permeating through most, if not all, of the definitions.

Two basic ideas appear in most of the conceptualizations: (1) individuals in social positions behave (2) with reference to role-expectations. Individuals do not behave in a random manner; their behavior is governed to some extent by their own expectations and those of others in the group or society in which they participate. Some authors, in defining role, include this idea in the concept status or position, while others reflect the idea in the term role, but nearly all include it somewhere. Expectations are sometimes described as being "ascribed by society;" in other formulations they are held by members of the group in which the actor is a participant. Whatever their derivation, expectations are presumed by most role theorists to

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[1] Sargent, op. cit., p. 359.

[2] Gross, op. cit., p. 17.

[3] Ibid.

be an integral part in any formula designed for predicting social behavior. Expectations, however, are not universal; some may apply to certain individuals but not to others. Whether a person is a teacher, or an administrator, a sales clerk or a janitor, a member of one social system or another, makes a difference in the expectations others hold for him or what he holds for himself. Therefore, before the nature of the expectations held for a given individual can be determined, the location of the individual must be established.

Sarbin's summary of his role conceptualizations illustrates this principle.

> Persons occupy positions or structures in interactional situations. Psychologically considered, positions are cognitive systems of role expectations, products of learning. Role expectations are bidimensional, for every role expectation of other, there is a reciprocal role expectation of self. The organized actions of the person, directed toward fulfilling these role expectations, comprise the role. Variation in role enactment is a function of at least three variables: (1) the validity of the role perception; (2) skill in role enactment; and (3) the current organization of self.[1]

Different words are used by other authors but they contain essentially the same ideas. Since this study is concerned with role expectations as they relate to the position of the elementary principal, the minor differences are of no real consequence.

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[1] Sarbin, op. cit., p. 255.

The nature of expectations

According to Sarbin, role expectations are composed of two general kinds -- rights and obligations.[1]

> Rights are role expectations in which the actor of the role anticipates certain performances from the actor of the reciprocal role; e.g., the child's right to be protected by the mother. Obligations (or duties) are role expectations in which the actor of a role anticipates certain performances directed toward the actor of the reciprocal role; e.g., the mother's obligation to provide protection for the child.[2]

A further division of expectations is made by the same author as follows:

> Both kinds of role expectations, rights and obligations, may be analyzed in terms of actions and qualities. Analysis of the role expectations of mother, for instance, may reveal the potential action: mother provides food when the child cries. In addition, certain qualities of the person enacting the role are expected: warmth, gentleness, friendliness, and so forth.[3]

Gross used the same breakdown in his study of the school superintendency.[4] He classified expectations as either rights or obligations and as having reference to behavior or attributes. The latter distinction permits the researcher to determine what the incumbents of a position should do as well as what they should be.

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[1] Sarbin, op. cit., p. 226.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Sarbin, op. cit., p. 227.

[4] Gross, op. cit., pp. 62-63.

Expectations may be related to both individuals and roles. As we interact with other people, we generalize about individuals and roles on the basis of our past experiences. But we do this within a situational context which follows a pattern identified by Brookover.[1] In a discussion of role research, Brookover identified three types or levels of expectations: (1) general expectations, (2) status in situation expectations, and (3) specific situational expectations.[2] General expectations are applied to any person occupying the position in all appropriate situations. An example of general expectations would be the expectations held by a group of students for the position of teacher. Status in situation expectations apply to any person occupying a status or position in a particular situation. For example, the expectations for an art teacher will differ in some important respects from the expectations for a history teacher. Specific situational expectations apply to a particular person in a particular position. For example, the expectations held by a group of parents for Mary Jones, history teacher in school X, would differ in some respects from that held for any history teacher.

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[1] W. B. Brookover, "Research on Teacher and Administration Roles," Journal of Educational Sociology, XXIX (September, 1955), 2-5.

[2] Ibid.

Expectations may differ in that the sum total of expectations applied to any given position are never completely right. Newcomb places the range of expectations associated with a role on a continuum.

> The behaviors included in a role may be thought of as extending along a continuum. . . . At one extreme are behaviors demanded of all occupants of a position, such as that of a mother in our society. At the other extreme of the continuum - but not included in the prescribed role - are those which are forbidden to all occupants of a position. Intermediate between these extremes are various behaviors which are permitted but not demanded - permitted to some mothers but not to others, perhaps, or to all mothers under some conditions, or to mothers who care to indulge in those behaviors.[1]

Parsons and Shils suggest that a range of permissiveness is associated with role behavior.

> An important feature of a large proportion of social roles is that the actions which make them up are not minutely prescribed and that a certain range of variability is regarded as legitimate. Sanctions are not invoked against deviance within certain limits. This range of freedom makes it possible for actors with different personalities to fulfill within considerable limits the expectations associated with roughly the same roles without undue strain.[2]

Other writers, for the most part, recognize that expectations for roles contain an element of permissiveness.[3]

Thus, it can be seen that expectations may be rights or obligations, behavior or attributes, apply to one of three levels of specificity, and range in variability

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[1] Newcomb, op. cit., p. 281.

[2] Parsons, op. cit., p. 24.

[3] See Sargent, op. cit., p. 361.

from mandatory to prohibited behavior. Expectations, therefore, may be analyzed with respect to how incumbents of positions should interact with each other, or how they actually do interact with each other. Likewise, it is possible to analyze role expectations with respect to how the occupant of a social position should behave, or how he actually does behave. If the analysis is concerned with how people should behave, then expectations are being used as an evaluative standard applicable to the incumbent in a position. If individuals are asked to indicate whether they feel that a particular task is expected of a position incumbent, some may reply that it is mandatory, some may indicate that it is prohibited, while others may indicate that it is up to the incumbent to make this decision. These responses suggest that expectations regarding a given position may be analyzed along a continuum which ranges from complete agreement to complete disagreement.

Related Research

Research directed toward an examination of the concept role has mushroomed since 1950. Some studies were undertaken for the purpose of investigating a single aspect of role, whereas others have been conducted on a more ambitious scale. The writer feels that an accurate, discrete classification of these studies is impossible. For example, some studies were concerned with the way one

reference group defined a given role, whereas, others attempted to define the role, relate the definition to behavior, and find a relationship between definition and selected demographic variables. Therefore, the writer makes no claim that his arbitrary classification scheme is superior to that which might be selected by another researcher. For convenience, the studies have been grouped as follows: role and job satisfaction, role conflict, role consensus and definition.

Role and job satisfaction

A number of studies have been undertaken over the past few years which were focused on an investigation of the relationship of morale or job satisfaction to role behavior or expectations.[1] These studies usually involved an investigation of the role expectations held by some particular reference group, the degree to which these expectations were fulfilled or were commonly held by both the reference group and the occupant of the role, and a measure of the amount of job satisfaction or level of morale expressed by members of the reference group.

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[1] For a review of some studies concerned with this problem see: Francis S. Chase, "Professional Leadership and Teacher Morale," Administrator's Notebook, I (March, 1953), 1-4, Francis Chase, "How to Meet Teacher's Expectations of Leadership," Administrator's Notebook, I (April, 1953), 1-4, and Merton V. Campbell, "Teacher-Principal Agreement on the Teacher Role," Administrator's Notebook, VII (February, 1959), 1-4.

Bidwell conducted an investigation to test the hypothesis that teachers would indicate a high degree of satisfaction with their job if the perception of the administrator's role held by teachers and the administrator was congruent.[1] The administrative role was categorized into three types -- democratic, autocratic and laissez-faire. The teachers were asked to indicate the kind of action they would expect of their administrator. A second questionnaire was developed to measure the general satisfaction of the teachers with their jobs. Bidwell found that on the basis of the sample tested, there was a significant relationship between job satisfaction of the teachers and agreement on expectations for the administrative role. It was also discovered that the style of leadership expected from the administrator was not related to job satisfaction. The only requirement necessary for teacher satisfaction was agreement on the role expectations. It should be pointed out that Bidwell's findings regarding teacher morale and leadership style are not supported by other research.[2]

Using the role of the superintendent in the improvement of instruction as a point of focus, Sweitzer

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[1]Charles E. Bidwell, "The Administrator's Role and Satisfaction in Teaching," Journal of Educational Sociology, XXIX (September, 1955), 41-47.

[2]See Chase, "Professional Leadership and Teacher Morale," p. 4.

investigated the relationship of teacher morale to the fulfillment of teacher expectations.[1] The superintendent's role was studied from two dimensions -- expectations for behavior and perception of actual behavior. It was found that a high level of congruence existed between teachers, principals and superintendents as to what the superintendent should do to improve instruction. However, this high level of agreement did not hold for the actual behavior of the superintendent.[2] It was found that status group membership was the most significant variable accounting for the differences in perception of the superintendent's actual role behavior. This factor was far more significant than membership in a particular school district.[3]

Guba and Bidwell reported on an extensive experimental role study conducted by the staff of the Midwest Administrative Center at the University of Chicago.[4] The study was designed to seek answers to the following questions:

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[1] Robert E. Sweitzer, "The Fulfillment of Role Expectations and Teacher Morale" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago, 1957).

[2] Ibid., pp. 165-67.

[3] For another study which found a wide discrepancy in perceived leader role behavior see: A. W. Halpin, "The Leader Behavior and Leadership Ideology of Educational Administrators and Aircraft Commanders," Harvard Educational Review, XXV (Winter, 1955), 18-32.

[4] Egon G. Guba and Charles E. Bidwell, Administrative Relationships (Chicago: Midwest Administrative Center, University of Chicago, 1957).

> (1) Do variations that appear in the definitions of the teacher role as given by principals and teachers in a particular school bear a relationship to the degree of teacher effectiveness, satisfaction, and confidence in the leadership of the principal that are exhibited in that school? (2) To what extent can deliberate changes in administrative practice, intended to increase the frequency of personal contacts between teacher and principal, and to increase the teacher's involvement in school problems, lead to changes in the levels of teacher effectiveness, satisfaction and confidence in leadership.[1]

The investigation was based on a theoretical role structure model which attempted to account for the relationship between the personality needs of the individual and role structure of the organization.[2] Effectiveness was defined ". . . as the extent to which the behavior of a given role incumbent corresponds to a given set of role expectations. . . ."[3] Efficiency was defined as the degree of correspondence existing between the individual's needs and his behavior in performing the role.[4] Satisfaction was defined as the congruence of needs and expectations as perceived by the incumbent.

Findings from the investigation confirmed the general hypothesis that teacher effectiveness, satisfaction, and confidence in leadership[5] were related ". . . to the

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[1] Ibid., p. 1.

[2] Ibid., p. 5.

[3] Ibid., p. 8.

[4] Ibid.

[5] Efficiency could not be tested because a satisfactory measure was unobtainable.

extent to which the perceptions, of both expectations and behavior, held by teachers and principals coincide."[1] The results of the investigation failed to establish that changes in administrative practices produce changes in teacher effectiveness, satisfaction and confidence in leadership.[2] The authors proposed a variety of possible explanations for this finding, but concluded that present data from the study were insufficient to resolve the problem.

Role conflict

Several role studies have been made which were primarily concerned with the problem of role conflict.[3] Getzels and Guba conducted such a study by ". . . examining the relationships existing in a military situation between two highly organized roles, those of officer and teacher."[4] Since officers assigned to temporary duty as

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[1] Ibid., p. 68.

[2] Ibid., pp. 69-70.

[3] For additional studies on role conflict see: Stephen Hencley, "The Conflict Pattern of School Superintendents," Administrator's Notebook, VIII (May, 1960), 1-4, and Samuel A. Stouffer and Jackson Toby, "Role Conflict and Personality," The American Journal of Sociology, LVI (March, 1951), 375-406.

[4] J. W. Getzels and E. G. Guba, "Role, Role Conflict and Effectiveness: An Empirical Study," American Sociological Review, XIX (February, 1954), 164-75.

instructors were required to be "democratic" in the classroom and, at the same time, display their differential status by wearing the military uniform insignia, the authors hypothesized that a great deal of role conflict was built into the situation. The major findings of the study revealed that the extent of role conflict was dependent upon how long the officer had been in a military organization and the character of the subject matter being taught. Officers of long service and those teaching military subjects experienced the least amount of role conflict.

In another study of role conflict the same authors focused their attention on the expectations held for public school teachers.[1] Instruments used in the study were constructed out of material collected from interviews with 41 teachers. The authors concluded, as a result of the study, that: (1) the role of teachers was defined by a general core of expectations and by expectations that vary in relation to the local school and community conditions, (2) expectations attached to the teacher role are often in conflict with expectations for the other roles the teacher occupies, i.e., economic, citizen, and so forth, and (3) that the nature of role conflicts for teachers is related to certain differences in the schools and communities.

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[1] J. W. Getzels and E. G. Guba, "The Structure of Roles and Role Conflict in the Teaching Situation," The Journal of Educational Sociology, XXIX (September, 1955), 30-40.

Seeman attempted to analyze role conflict for the position of the school superintendency based on expectations teachers hold for the position.[1] Using data secured from 26 middle-size communities in Ohio, Seeman was able to identify contradictory role expectations in terms of four dimensions:

(1) authority

(2) status

(3) institutional

(4) means-end

Seeman concluded that role conflict, at least for the position studied, was not a random occurring phenomenon.

Role consensus and definition

The final group of role research studies to be reported in this chapter might be classified as studies directed toward an examination of role definitions or consensus on role expectations. Some of the studies in this category encompassed both problems, and a few explored the relationship of role definition to selected personal and demographic characteristics possessed by the individual definer.

Collins conducted a survey to find out what practices were employed by high school principals which

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[1]Melvin Seeman, "Role Conflict and Ambivalence in Leadership," American Sociological Review, XXVII (August, 1953), 373-80.

contributed to their success or failure.[1] Using the critical incident technique, he interviewed 125 selected individuals who had been in a position to observe and evaluate the work of one or more high school principals. The sample consisted of 25 teachers, and an equal number of school superintendents, lay citizens, high school seniors and high school principals.

Using the Collins study as a starting point, three doctoral students -- Brown, Clark and Strong, made a study much wider in scope.[2] A questionnaire was developed from items obtained from the literature, interviews with school administrators, and the Collins study. The questionnaire was administered to a large sample of high school principals. The respondents were asked to rank each item in terms of its importance to their success as principals and to indicate whether the item was a part of their regular practice. Analysis of the results revealed that instructional leadership was the most important function of the principal.

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[1] James Spencer Collins, "Effective and Ineffective Practices of the Public High School Principal" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953), in Charles M. Greig, "A Study of the Working Patterns of the Secondary School Principals in a Metropolitan Area and Their Effects on the Opinions and Attitudes of Teachers" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Michigan, 1959), pp. 20-22.

[2] Harry L. Brown, Russell S. Clark and Howard R. Strong, "An Analysis of Lay and Professional Attitudes Toward the High School Principalship" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955), in Ibid., pp. 22-24.

The principal may delegate menial tasks without loss of support. The responsibility for counseling with students, parents, and teachers is part of the principal's role.

The job or role of the elementary principal was the subject of two companion studies carried out in the city of Oakland, California by Buffington[1] and Medsker.[2] Buffington sought to have parents define the principal's role through the use of the critical incident technique. Medsker, using the same technique, sought a definition of the principal's role by teachers. Buffington's study resulted in a total of 294 incidents being reported from which he was able to derive 436 behaviors applicable to the role of the elementary principal.

Listed below are the behaviors of the effective principal, as described by parents, in the order of their frequency of mention:

1. The principal develops effective relationships with parents' groups and the community.
2. The principal works with and takes care of children.

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[1] Reed Lawrence Buffington, "The Job of the Elementary Principal as Viewed by Parents" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Stanford University, 1954).

[2] Leland L. Medsker, "The Job of the Elementary School Principal as Viewed by Teachers" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Stanford University, 1956), in Dissertation Abstracts, XIV (1956), 946.

3. The principal knows parents and gives them assistance.[1]

Medsker was able to extract 569 separate behaviors from 402 incidents obtained from the interviews with teachers. The behaviors of the effective principal, as described by teachers, in the order of their frequency of mention are given below:

1. The principal provides leadership for teachers.
2. The principal works with and for children.
3. The principal maintains constructive relationships with the community.
4. The principal provides for effective administration of the school program.
5. The principal works effectively with individual parents.[2]

The behaviors listed above demonstrate clearly that both parents and teachers in these studies viewed the principal's role as a series of personal relationships. For parents these relationships were seen to exist between the principal and parents, and the principal and children. Teachers emphasized the principal's personal relationships with them, with pupils and with community groups. It is interesting to note that the description of the effective principal by both parents and teachers failed to report any critical behaviors in the area of supervision or

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[1] Buffington, op. cit., p. 71.

[2] Medsker, op. cit.

improvement of instruction. Both groups also neglected to mention the relationship of the principal to the superintendent and board of education.

Using the expectations held by teachers, principals, and central office personnel, Gray studied the role of the public school principal.[1] Data were collected on an instrument that was adopted from the expectations for superintendent's performance used in the Harvard Study. He hypothesized that the amount of consensus on role definition would be dependent upon the position held by the role definer and such factors as sex, level of teaching assignment, degree status, and experience in present position. Gray found that all of the variables mentioned above were significantly related to consensus on role definition.

The teacher's role inside and outside the school as reflected in expectations held by teachers, administrators, school board members and citizens, was investigated in a study conducted by Smith.[2] A comparison was made between the expectations held by each group and related to selected demographic variables. The expectations for the teacher's

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[1]Martin Gray, "A Role Analysis of the School Principalship" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1961), in Dissertation Abstracts, XXII (1961), 1882.

[2]Rex Beach Smith, "A Comparative Study of the Expectations Which Teachers, Administrators, School Board Members, and Citizens of Three School Districts Have of the Teacher's Role in School and Community" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, 1960).

role were divided into liberal and restrictive items. Liberal items were viewed as allowing for a wide range of permissible behavior. Restrictive items were viewed as allowing for a narrow range of permissible behavior. The findings of the study revealed that experienced elementary teachers were the most restrictive. Teachers who taught at the secondary level and had the least experience were more liberal in the expectations they held for their role. Administrators, school board members, and citizens who were lowest in education and income, and were non-PTA members were highly restrictive. Conversely, high income, high education and PTA membership was related to viewing the teacher role in liberal terms. For all groups -- women, church members, older persons and those without school age children, were more restrictive than their counterparts. When elementary teachers, secondary teachers, citizens, administrators and board members were viewed as individual reference groups, they ranked on the liberal-restrictive scale as follows:

Secondary Teachers — most liberal
Elementary Teachers
Citizens
School Administrators
School Board Members -- most restrictive[1]

Doyle, in a study, limited to the expectations held for the professional role of the elementary teacher, reported findings which are basically in conflict with

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[1] Ibid., p. 177.

those reported by Smith.[1] He found that teachers tended to define their roles in a more restricted or narrower way than did school administrators, school board members and parents. He found that variables such as years of teaching experience, number of systems taught in, and number of years of future teaching, to be unrelated to the way in which teachers defined their role or their perception of how others defined their role.[2] One possible explanation for the differences reported in the two studies is that Smith's study included the role of the teacher beyond the classroom, whereas Doyle's study was limited to the teacher's professional role. The different findings, on the other hand, may simply reflect the uniqueness of the communities studied.

Wilcox investigated the role expectations held for the position of school superintendent by school personnel and their scores on a scale for measuring authoritarian tendencies.[3] The F- scale was used as the measure and the differences in expectations were tested to see if they were related to age, sex, education and level of teaching

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[1]Louis Andrew Doyle, "A Study of the Expectations Which Elementary Teachers, Administrators, School Board Members and Parents Have of the Elementary Teachers' Role" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, 1956).

[2]Ibid., p. 106.

[3]Ray T. Wilcox, "Authoritarianism and Expectations of Leadership" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of California at Berkley, 1957).

assignment. The findings revealed that a generalized relationship did exist between expectations and F- scale scores. The results also indicated that elementary teachers, female teachers, teachers with the least amount of education and older teachers were more conservative in their expectations for the role of the superintendent and showed stronger authoritarian tendencies.[1]

In an investigation closely related conceptually to the writer's study, Fisher examined the attitudes of laymen regarding administrative autonomy.[2] The focal position for this study was the role of the school superintendent. The attitudes toward autonomy for the superintendent were examined to determine if they were related to certain selected respondent characteristics. Fisher found that individuals who prescribe a high degree of autonomy for the superintendent tend to be highly educated, young (25-44), and earn a higher than average income.[3] Those who are generally non-critical of the schools tend to give more freedom than do those who censure school policy. Also, those who score low on the F- scale, the low authoritarians, prescribe more freedom for the superintendent than those who score moderate or high in authoritarianism.[4]

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[1] Ibid., pp. 175-77.

[2] Raymond C. Fisher, "A Community Study of Administrator Autonomy and Conflicting Role Expectations" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, 1961).

[3] Ibid., pp. 46-49.

[4] Ibid., pp. 67-70.

By far the most elaborate role study reported in the literature was one conducted by the Laboratory of Social Relations and the Graduate School of Education of Harvard University.[1] The role examined in this project was that of the school superintendency. The purpose of the study was to ". . . explore the problems of concensus on role definition, conformity to expectations and role conflict resolution."[2] And further, to ". . . test theoretically derived hypotheses involving expectations for and the behavior of incumbents of positions in social systems."[3]

All instruments developed for the research project were based on expectations for role behavior or role attributes of the school superintendent or school board members. The personal interview technique was employed for most of the data collection. The sample consisted of fifty per cent of the school superintendents of the state of Massachusetts and their corresponding school board members.[4]

Space does not permit the presentation of the complete findings. Further, the limitations of the sample and the research design served to limit the confidence that can be placed in a portion of the results. Therefore,

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[1] Gross, op. cit.

[2] Ibid., p. xi.

[3] Ibid., p. 3.

[4] Ibid., p. 84.

only a brief summary of the findings that appear to relate to the present study will be reported.

It was found that on 63 per cent of the role definition items significant differences existed between the distributions of expectation responses of the superintendent and school board members.[1] To answer the question as to why there was disagreement on role definition between incumbents of two positions in a formal organization, a series of propositions were advanced and tested. The following hypotheses were supported by the findings:

> In specifying the division of responsibility between a subordinate and superordinate, incumbents of each of these positions will assign more responsibility to their own position than incumbents of the other position will assign to it.[2]
>
> Incumbents of both superordinate and subordinate positions will assign relatively greater responsibility to the subordinate for actions requiring greater technical competence than for actions requiring less technical competence.[3]
>
> In specifying the expectations applicable to an incumbent of any position in formal organizations of the same type, incumbents of one position in these organizations who have had a more homogenous preparation for occupancy of their position than incumbents of another position, will have greater consensus than incumbents of the other position.[4]
>
> The longer the members of a social system have interacted with one another, the more consensus they will have on the expectations they apply to incumbents of positions in that social system.[5]

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[1] Ibid., p. 141.

[2] Ibid., p. 123.

[3] Ibid., p. 126.

[4] Ibid., p. 147.

[5] Ibid., p. 179.

In addition, certain demographic variables were examined to discover if a relationship existed between consensus and these factors. It was found that school board members who are homogenous with respect to political-economic attitudes are more likely to reach consensus on role definition than those who are not.[1] The relationship of religion, based on Catholic and non-Catholic, was examined and found to relate to the ability of the school board members to arrive at a consensus on role definition.[2] Motivation for seeking school board membership was measured on three dimensions -- civic duty, represent some element in the community, and political experience. Civic duty as a motivating factor was found not to relate to consensus, but the other two factors were significantly related.[3] The sex composition of the board of education was found not to be related to the agreement. Social class was examined on a single dimension of education and found not to be significantly related to the problem of arriving at role definition consensus.[4] It should be pointed out that the homogenity hypotheses (consideration of the demographic variables) could not be supported when applied to incumbents of different positions.[5] In other words, when school board

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[1] Ibid., p. 185.

[2] Ibid., p. 186.

[3] Ibid., p. 188.

[4] Ibid., p. 191.

[5] Ibid.

members were homogenous on a single demographic variable consensus on role definition could be accounted for, but when the board members and the superintendent possessed the same characteristics on a demographic variable, the degree of consensus was not found to be significantly different.

CHAPTER III

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter includes a description of the theoretical framework on which the present study was based. It will include a specification of the related positions, definitions of terms used in the study, the permissive-restrictive rationale, and the hypotheses advanced for the study along with the rationale for their selection.

The theoretical framework for this study was developed from the literature as described in Chapter II and from the writer's insight as a result of his experience as an elementary teacher and principal.

Role Theory

Role theory as outlined in Chapter II suggests a general conceptual scheme for examining individual and group behavior in social situations. The elementary school is viewed as a social system comprised of a number of related and interlocking specialized positions such as teacher, principal, student, parent, etc. These positions and their relationships have been established by society in order to perform certain functions leading to the attainment of selected organizational goals.

Specifications of positions

The focus of this study is on the position of the principal of the elementary school. Position, as used in this study, refers to the location of an actor in a system of social relationships. Gross has pointed out that ". . . a particular position has no meaning apart from other positions. . . ."[1] Thus, a position, to be completely described, should include a specification of the other positions to which it is related.

Figure 1 illustrates in graphic form the counter positions which play a part in the system of positions related to the status of the elementary principal. The counter positions illustrated in figure 1 represent a selected group. All groups or individuals having formal interaction with the position of principal have not been included. The positions of non-parent, secretary, and custodian must be considered in any attempt at a complete description of the position of principal. It is the writer's contention that the counter positions shown in figure 1 represent those groups having the greatest impact on the focal position under study.

The present study was concerned with the relationship of two positions, i.e., the elementary principal

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[1]Neal Gross, Ward S. Mason and Alexander W. McEachern, Explorations in Role Analysis: Studies of the School Superintendency Role (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1958), p. 50.

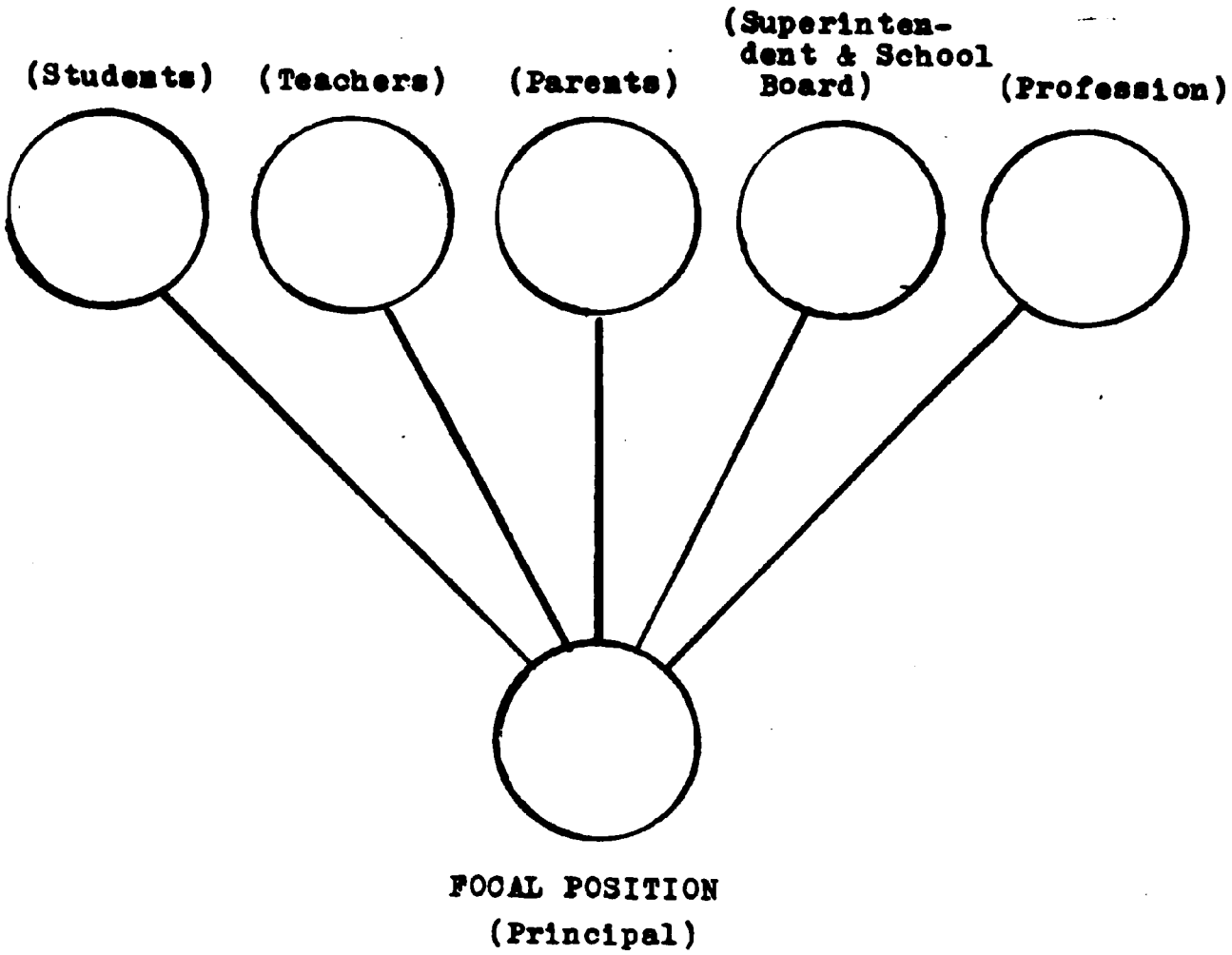


Figure 1.--Significant Counter Positions to the Principal Position

(focal position), and the parent (counter position). Therefore, a simple model as shown in figure 2 was constructed to represent the relational specification of positions for this study.

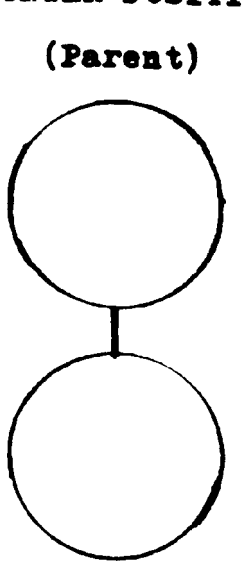


Figure 2.--Related Positions for This Study

Definitions

It will be recalled that the discussion in Chapter II concerning the definition of the term role brought forth a great variety of definitions. Despite the fact that almost every writer used different words, they all seemed to be concerned with either the actual behavior of an actor or the behavior expected of the occupant of a position by some group of role definers. In order to understand the definition of role selected for this study it will be necessary first to define expectations. An expectation, for the purpose of this study, was defined as an evaluative standard which is applied to the incumbent of

a position, i.e., the elementary principal. These expectations are held by a collect of individuals who occupy a counter position to that of the elementary principal. This definition refers to what the actor should do as an occupant of the position. It does not reflect the actual behavior of a position incumbent. Role, then, is defined as a set of expectations. Thus, for purposes of this study, a role is a set of evaluative standards, held by a collect of a specific counter position, and applied to the occupant of a selected focal position. Said differently, the role of the elementary principal was defined in terms of the expectations parents held for what the elementary principal should do.

Permissive-Restrictive rationale

Role theory holds that expectations for a given position in the social system are a product of interaction between two or more people (ego and alter) within a given situation. The pattern of expectations held by a collect of alters may be generalized to include all of the persons occupying the position of ego. When this occurs in a social system, the definition of ego's role in a specified interaction system becomes institutionalized. This, however, does not mean that each individual alter holds the same expectations or places the same value on each expectation as every other alter comprising the group of role definers. Role theory suggests that for each role there

is a range of permissible behavior which is accorded the occupant of the position. Parsons and Shils have stated this position as follows:

> An important feature of a large proportion of social roles is that the actions which make them up are not minutely prescribed and that a certain range of variability is regarded as legitimate. Sanctions are not invoked against deviance within certain limits. This range of freedom makes it possible for actors with different personalities to fulfill within considerable limits the expectations associated with roughly the same roles without undue strain.[1]

Sargent supports this view when he says that

> . . . roles differ greatly in the specificity with which they are patterned. In a dramatic role, or in ceremonies like a formal wedding, a college graduation, or 'changing the guard,' the acts and words are definitely prescribed. In many roles, however, there is little or no prescription of specific acts or words; the latitude is great and conformity is demanded only within rather general categories of 'musts' and 'must nots'.[2]

From this discussion it can be seen that expectations may be analyzed as either mandatory prescriptions for performance or as definitions of the allowable range of permissive behavior.

For the purposes of this study, the role of the elementary principal was examined in terms of the degree to

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[1] Talcott Parsons and Edward A. Shils (Editors), Toward a General Theory of Action (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1951), p. 24.

[2] S. Stansfeld Sargent, "Conception of Role and Ego in Contemporary Psychology," in John H. Rohrer and Mufzafer Sherif (Editors), Social Psychology at the Cross Roads (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951), p. 361.

which parents perceived the role to be comprised of mandatory or permissive functions. To accomplish this goal each respondent was asked to react to each expectation item on the following scale:

absolutely must

preferably should

may or may not

preferably should not

absolutely must not

It can be observed from the response scale given above that some modification had to be made in order to classify responses as mandatory or permissive. To accomplish this goal the scale was collapsed into two categories. The absolutely must and absolutely must not responses were combined and given the classification of "restrictive." Responses obtained in the three remaining categories were grouped together and classified as "non-restrictive." Thus, it was possible under this scheme to obtain an index of the restrictive score for each respondent.

The scale, without these modifications, was used in the Harvard Study. In a discussion of the degrees of differences represented by the scale Gross stated:

> Suppose it is accepted by some group that one 'preferably should not' dress conspicuously in public places. To change this expectation to 'absolutely must not' seems to be a quite drastic restriction of freedom. And on the other side, suppose it is commonly accepted that one 'absolutely must not' break windows of public buildings. To change this expectation to 'preferably should

> not' is at least as drastic an extension of license. In these cases we would argue that the difference is clearly of great importance. There would seem to be no reason why it should not be of equal importance in the case of expectations held for school superintendents. The 'absolute' categories imply inescapable negative sanctions, while the 'preferable' categories imply possibilities of their evasion.[1]

The writer would contend that parents who view the role of the elementary principal as being primarily comprised of mandatory expectations deny the principal the opportunity to exercise his professional judgment. The absolute categories serve to restrict the courses of action available to the occupant of this position.

Hypotheses

The hypotheses advanced for this study, which are discussed below, were based on the relationship of demographic variables to the attitude and perceptions of lay persons concerning the public schools. Some of these relationships have been the subject of related research; some have been proposed in the literature of the social sciences; while others were based on personal observations of the writer. The discussion presented below will include the naming of the demographic variable selected, the rationale for its selection, and the derived hypothesis.

Occupation

Social scientists, in their study of man, have come to accept occupation as one of the two or three most

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[1]Gross, op. cit., p. 108.

important cultural factors determining human attitudes, values, interests, and conduct. Why has man's occupation emerged to become such a powerful predictor of his social behavior? Bonner, using the broader term "occupational class," contends that "the political party with which we affiliate, the social set in which we move, the college which we attend, the person whom we marry, the church to which we belong--these are in no small measure determined by our class position and our occupation.[1]

Bendix and Lipset lend support to the position of Bonner when they state that "his (man's) social position, his economic welfare, and even his daily habits are all determined by the kind of job he holds."[2] Thus the impact of man's occupational class on his social perception is based, to a large extent, on the power of the occupation to limit the range and quality of his social experiences.

Three factors, in addition to those discussed above, prompt the writer to believe that there is a relationship between occupational class of the parent and the way he will define the role of the elementary principal. First, research has established that occupational classes differ in the values they hold for formal education, with the upper classes consistently rating it higher than those in the

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[1]Hubert Bonner, Social Psychology: An Interdisciplinary Approach (New York: American Book Company, 1953), p. 291.

[2]Reinhard Bendix and Seymour M. Lipset (Editors), Jobs and Occupations--A Popular Evaluation, National Opinion Research Center in Class, Status and Power (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1953), p. 411.

lower stratification.[1] Second, it has been shown that there is a relationship between the occupation of a person and his perceptions of the goals or tasks of public education.[2] Third, the upper class occupational groups receive benefits due to the nature of their jobs which are not generally available to persons who occupy lower class positions. Lipset points up these differences and the resulting implications in the following statement:

> Most executives and business owners and many branches of the professions deal daily with complex legal, economic and technical problems which develop the skill in understanding the working of complex social and political mechanisms. The routine clerical and manual jobs, on the other hand, give little opportunity for acquiring such insight.[3]

Lower class occupations depend, to a greater extent than upper class occupations, on an authoritarian structure to attain their organizational goals. Lower class occupations tend to be characterized by narrow prescriptions for occupational behavior and close adherence to authoritarian operational procedures. Thus, the occupational experience of those holding lower class positions is not designed to produce an understanding of or sympathetic attitudes toward the administrative position.

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[1] Ibid., p. 430.

[2] Allen Slagle, "The Task of the Public School as Perceived by Occupation and Age Sub-Publics" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago, 1959), p. 193.

[3] Seymour Lipset and others, "The Psychology of Voting: An Analysis of Political Behavior," in Gardner Lindzey (Editor), Handbook of Social Psychology, Vol. II (Cambridge: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1954), p. 1130.

The rationale presented above strongly suggests that a relationship between occupational class and personal school relations does exist. Therefore, the following hypothesis is advanced for examination in this study:

> Parents who hold occupations of low rank on the occupational classification scale will tend to define the role of the elementary principal in restrictive terms.

Formal education

Persons who have completed a high number of years of formal education can be distinguished from those with low education in a number of important ways. Certainly the quantity and to some extent the quality of their experiences with the school environment have been diverse. Whereas the highly educated persons probably found the atmosphere of the school environment stimulating and rewarding, those who left school early may have experienced little success. Another important difference between the high and low educated groups concerns the maturity of the individual during his terminal years of formal education. The highly educated persons spent their terminal years at the high school or college level. This would indicate that the majority of these persons were at or near a level of maturity consistent with adulthood. Thus, not only have the highly educated had a more successful school experience and a greater number of direct contacts with school personnel than the lowly educated, but these experiences occurred at

a time when their evaluation could be made on a rational rather than an emotional basis. Finally, the highly educated may have had an opportunity to engage in the academic study of the structure of society and, thereby gain insight into the complexities of established social roles.

The relationship of formal education to personal-school relations has been the subject of several research studies. Hines and Grobman, in a summary of several studies completed at the University of Florida, report that parents who ranked low in formal education tended to reflect negative feelings toward the school.[1] Capra came to the same conclusion in his study of parental attitudes toward educational practices.[2] Seager reported from his study concerning the views of various sub-publics on the task of the school the following on formal education:

> The amount of schooling is a consistent predictor of one's perceptions of the task of the school. The more nearly equal the amount of schooling, the more similar the perceptions.[3]

In a study undertaken to discover the relationship of several demographic variables to the amount of autonomy a person would grant to the chief school administrator Fisher

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[1] Vince A. Hines and Hulda Grobman, "What Parents Think of Their Schools and What They Know About Them," National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, XXXXI (February, 1957), 15-25.

[2] James Capra, "Parents Attitudes Toward Educational Practices," The National Elementary School Principal, XXXVII (February, 1957), 40-41.

[3] Roger Seager, "The Task of the Public School as Perceived by Proximity Sub-Publics" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago, 1959), p. 184.

reported that persons who could be classified as highly educated tended to prescribe a high degree of autonomy.[1]

The writer believes that the rationale presented above clearly demonstrates a need to examine the relationship of formal education to the perception of parents concerning the role of the elementary school principal. Thus the following hypothesis is advanced for investigation and testing:

> Parents who rank high on the number of years of formal education completed will tend to define the role of the elementary principal in less restrictive terms.

Religious polity

Generally speaking, the best known differences which serve to distinguish one religious denomination from another are those of a doctrinal nature. There is, however, another distinguishing characteristic of religious bodies which may prove to be highly significant by the effect it has on the social perception of its communicants. The reference here is to the political structure of each ecclesiastical body. Wach, in a discussion of church governmental structure, points out that religious groups

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[1] Raymond C. Fisher, "A Community Study of Administrator Autonomy and Conflicting Role Expectations" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, 1961), pp. 46-49.

may be classified into two or three governmental types.[1] The hierarchical type is characterized by an unqualified acceptance of tradition, a standardization and codification of expressions of religious experience, the development of a hierarchical structure, a division of laity and clergy, and the organization of the clergy into grades with special privileges and prerogatives. Groups which fall into the hierarchical type are: Roman and Oriental Catholicism, Eastern Orthodoxy, and Anglicanism.[2] The congregational type of church governmental structure is characterized ". . . by a highly spiritual conception of fellowship with partial or total rejection of organization, law, and discipline within the body, insistence upon the principle of equality, and periodic returns to the ideals of inception."[3] Congregational groups are represented by the Anabaptists, Baptists, Quakers, Mennonites, Unitarians, and the Christian Scientists.[4] The synodical type, closer in governmental structure to the hierarchical than the congregational type, is represented by Presbyterianism, Lutheranism, Methodist Episcopalianism, and the Latter-Day Saints.[5]

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[1] Joachim Wach, Sociology of Religion (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1954), pp. 145-47.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Ibid.

[5] Ibid.

Rowland, in his study of the goals of secondary education, used religious polity as a demographic variable. He found a relationship between the type of governmental structure of the church attended by parents and their perception of the functions of the public high school.[1]

The writer feels that persons who have been accustomed to unqualified obedience in ecclesiastical matters, may logically be expected to subscribe to a narrow, rigid pattern of behavior for authorities in other fields of human endeavor. On the contrary, experiences with religious bodies having a governmental structure based primarily on the principles of fellowship, equality, and local autonomy should result in an awareness of the need for a broad, flexible definition of the administrative role.

The following hypothesis, based on the foregoing rationale, is offered for testing in this study:

> Parents who attend churches that are organized on a hierarchical or synodical political structure will tend to define the role of the elementary principal in restrictive terms.

Sex

Observations made by the writer during his years of experience with parents of elementary school children

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[1]Monroe K. Rowland, "Opinions of Goals of Secondary Education Held by Parents and by Educators" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Michigan, 1960), p. 76.

lead to the conclusion that men and women hold different expectations for the role of the principal. Women, more often than men, appear to want administrative behavior which is based on a high degree of standardization and uniformity. Their expectations seem to deny the consideration of situational factors in the decision making process. Men, on the other hand, generally exhibit an understanding of the complex nature of the principal's position and accept the idea that the administrator must be accorded a wide range of permissible behavior, if he is to be effective.

There are several factors, based primarily on differences in experience, which may serve to explain why men differ from women in their perception of the principal's role. Man's economic role in contemporary society takes him out of the home and into the world of work. Here, through the process of carrying out his own occupational role, he is exposed to the behavior of one or more persons who occupy positions of an administrative nature. He should be able to see that positions within the organization exist for the purpose of attaining specified goals. He is also in a position to observe and evaluate the effectiveness of at least one person who is responsible for administrative decision making.

Unlike man, woman's role is, for the most part, limited to such tasks as management of the home and caring for the children. Her experience with formal social

organizations is often limited to contacts with the school and church. Chances are these experiences with the church and the school are very brief and would not be considered as vital to the effective operation of either organization. Thus, if differences in quantity and quality of experience with formally constituted social organizations contribute to a person's perception of the administrative role, then men should be expected to define the role of the elementary principal in less restrictive terms than women.

Sex has been used as a variable in several research studies dealing with the perception of personal school relations. Smith found that citizens differed in terms of their perception of the public school teacher's role when classified by sex.[1] Citizens of the female sex consistently defined the role more restrictively than did the male citizens. Rowland reported that he found a relationship between sex and the perception parents held for the role of the secondary school.[2] Gray found that the amount of consensus concerning the role of the school principal that could be obtained from a group of professional and semi-professional personnel was related to the sexual composition

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[1]Rex Beach Smith, "A Comparative Study of the Expectations Which Teachers, Administrators, School Board Members, and Citizens of Three School Districts Have of the Teacher's Role in School and Community" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, 1960), p. 187.

[2]Rowland, op. cit., p. 64.

of the group.[1] Wilcox, in a study of authoritarian tendencies of school personnel, found that women were more authoritarian and perceived the role of the superintendent more conservatively than men.[2]

As a result of the rationale presented above, the writer offers the following hypothesis for examination in this study:

> Parents of the female sex will tend to define the role of the elementary principal in restrictive terms.

Age

The fact that individuals differ on the basis of age in their attitudes and perceptions concerning the social environment has been well established. Thorndike, in his classic work on adult interest says:

> It is a general and presumably correct opinion that adults 40 to 50 are less likely to change their religion, political party, social customs, voting habits, and the like than young people. . . .[3]

Older persons generally hold quite different views than young people toward social movements that might be called progressive.[4] A similar finding was reported by Wilcox.

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[1]Martin Gray, "A Role Analysis of the School Principalship" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1961), in Dissertation Abstracts, XXII (1961), 1882.

[2]Ray T. Wilcox "Authoritarianism and Expectations of Leadership" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of California at Berkley, 1957), p. 177.

[3]Edward L. Thorndike, Adult Interest (New York: MacMillan Company, 1935), p. 78.

[4]Claude A. Bosworth, "A Study of the Development and the Validation of a Measure of Citizens' Attitudes Toward

He found that as the age of an individual increased, there was an increase in authoritarian attitude.[1]

Persons in the younger age bracket are generally at or near their peak in the production of goods and services whereas older persons have begun to decline in this activity. The productive years should be associated with a high level of self-autonomy. If the possession of self-autonomy is related to the ability of an individual to grant autonomy to others, then it should be expected that younger persons would do this more frequently than older persons.

Older persons often encounter child care problems which are unique to their age bracket. The composition of their families is likely to include one or more teen children. If they are unable to resolve the problems relative to the control of their children without undue stress, they may perceive the chief role of the school principal as that of a rigid, strict disciplinarian. Obviously this could result in a narrow concept of the principal's role.

The writer believes the rationale given above is ample justification for the following hypothesis:

> As the age of the parent increases, the tendency to define the role of the principal in restrictive terms will also increase.

Progress and Some Related Variables" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Michigan, 1954), p. 51.

[1]Wilcox, op. cit., p. 178.

Physical distance from school

Persons who reside beyond a convenient walking distance of the school may be prevented, due to transportation difficulties, from participating in school activities which are designed to promote parent understanding of the school's objectives, procedures, and problems. The opportunity for students to engage in after-school programs may be seriously limited if they reside beyond walking distance of the school. In rural and semi-rural areas the school district often is a product of consolidation. This causes the physical distance between home and school to increase--and may present an identification problem for parents. They may find it difficult to transfer their loyalty and personal concern for the local one or two room school over to the larger consolidated one.

From the discussion presented above it seems clear that the physical distance between the home and the school is a factor which should affect the parent-school relationship. Reports of research studies conducted at the University of Florida lend support to this view. The findings of these studies show that patron acceptance of the school deteriorates as the distance increases.[1]

The writer offers, on the basis of the rationale presented above, the following hypothesis to be examined in this study:

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[1]Hines and Grobman, op. cit., pp. 15-25.

As the residence of the parent increases in distance from the school, the tendency to define the role of the elementary principal in restrictive terms will increase.

Contact with the school

Parents who have frequent contact with their child's school have many opportunities to gain an understanding of the operation of the education enterprise through a variety of direct experiences. Parents who seldom or never make contact with the school must rely primarily on the reports of children for their understanding of the school's objectives, procedures, and policies. School contact means direct communication between two or more adults about something that is of common interest. It provides the parent a chance to voice his perceptions of the school and gives the school an opportunity to explain, clarify, and possibly resolve any differences between parent and school whether they are real or imaginary. If the relationship between parent and school is established on the basis described above, one would logically expect that those parents who have frequent association with the school would develop an appreciation and high degree of respect for the school's professional personnel. If the willingness to accord autonomy to the representatives of an institution is related to the understanding of their functions through direct experience, then one should expect a difference in

the perception of the principal's role by parents who have had many contacts as opposed to those who have had few or none.

The findings of research studies which have used school contact as a variable show conflicting results. Shipton conducted a study focused upon the characteristics of people which seem to be associated with how critical they are of the local school system. Among the factors which he found to be associated with persons who are critical of the schools were:

1. Exposure exclusively to private or parochial schools.
2. No present contact with public schools through children.
3. Lack of contact with public school personnel.[1]

Seager in his study of the task of the public school reported that "the type of contact one has with the school (other than formal education) is not a consistent predictor of perceptions about the school's task."[2] Rowland, using the same criteria as the present study for measuring school contact--contact between parent and school to discuss the child--reported that he could find no relationship between school contact and parent perceptions of the secondary

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[1]James M. Shipton, "Who Are the Critics of the Public Schools?", Harvard University Staff Research Memorandum, III (September, 1954), 96.

[2]Seager, op. cit., p. 184.

school's task.[1] Despite these conflicting findings, the writer feels that the factor of parent-school contact is worthy of further study and offers the following hypothesis for examination:

> As the number of contacts between the parent and the school increase, the tendency to define the role of the elementary principal in restrictive terms will decrease.

School election voting

Of all the opportunities available for direct citizen participation in the selection of officials to run their government the school board election generally attracts the smallest number of voters. Since the selection of board members is one of the most important legal rights available to the public in the operation of their schools, it would seem reasonable to expect that those who exercise their rights by voting differ in some respects from those who forfeit their rights by abstaining.

The writer has observed that the citizens who most consistently participate in school board elections are either school district employees and their families or persons who have had a great deal of direct contact with the school as active members of parent-teacher organizations, library committees, citizens committees, room mothers, etc.

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[1] Rowland, op. cit., p. 81.

Certainly persons who fit into either of the above categories should have a reasonably good understanding of the operation of the school. They should be expected to see more clearly than the non-voters that role prescriptions for the principal's position need to be flexible. The writer believes that most persons who vote regularly in school board elections, regardless of their school-connected experiences, have as their basic motivation a deep and abiding interest in the welfare of the schools. Therefore, the following hypothesis is advanced to test the idea that voters and non-voters will differ in the way they define the role of the elementary principal:

> Parents who vote in school board elections will tend to define the role of the elementary principal in less restrictive terms.

Leadership

For the purposes of this study, leadership experience is defined as a person who presently holds or has held within the two preceding years the position of an elected officer in a formal organization. Persons who hold such positions have some experiences in common which serve to distinguish them from persons who have not held positions of leadership.

Persons who occupy leadership positions assume a large share of the responsibility for the attainment of the aims and goals set up by the organization. This means that

they must either share or take full responsibility for devising plans, initiating action, making decisions, executing plans, and evaluating both the progress of the program and the final results. As persons in leadership positions carry out the functions of their office they are likely, at one time or another, to experience frustration. This may be caused by a set of rules or customs which have become attached to the position or a definition of the position by the membership which is so narrow that it serves to prevent the effective functioning of the office. It seems reasonable to expect that persons who have had held positions of leadership would be more likely to see the importance for and be willing to grant a greater degree of autonomy to other persons occupying leadership positions than persons who lack this experience. Thus, the following hypothesis is offered for testing in this study:

> Parents who hold positions of leadership in formal organizations will tend to define the role of the elementary principal in less restrictive terms.

Number of school-age children

Providing all other factors are equal, parents who have several school-age children differ from those who have less in the number of opportunities they have for contact with the school. Though the ratio of parent-school contacts is probably less than one to one, the

quantity should reflect, to some extent, the number of children attending school from one family. Certainly the opportunities for parents to relate to the school through such activities as parent-teacher conferences, attending class or school programs, assisting teachers as chaperones at class social affairs and field trips, and attending parent and teacher organization meetings are more numerous if they have four school-age children than if they have only one. As has been stated several times in the development of a rationale for the hypotheses of this study, frequent contact between the parent and the school should produce differences in the perception the parent will hold for the role of the elementary principal.

It is possible that the quality of the relationship which is established between the parents and the school will differ on the basis of the number of school-age children in the family. It is well known, for instance, that time can be an important factor in the development of mature attitudes and perceptions, even for adults. Since parents who have many children in school must keep a relationship with the school for a greater number of years than parents who have less school-age children, it seems reasonable to expect that parents with the greatest number of school-age children would have the best chance to develop an accurate perception of the principal's role.

The following hypothesis, based on the foregoing rationale, is advanced for examination in this study:

> As the number of school-age children increase, the tendency of the parent to define the role of the elementary principal in restrictive terms will decrease.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter the methods employed in the study are explained. It includes a brief statement concerning the use of the related literature, a short review of the survey method of research, a detailed description of the procedures employed to develop the questionnaire, and the results obtained from the pilot study. Other topics discussed in this chapter include the selection of the community in which the study was conducted, the procedures used in interviewing, sampling, and the compilation and analysis of study data.

Survey of the Literature

A survey of the literature was undertaken to broaden the writer's understanding in the areas of research methodology and role theory. The survey produced information related to the hypotheses which were advanced for examination in this study. It also revealed a number of research studies that have been conducted within the framework of role theory and several that examined the relationship of demographic variables to attitudes concerning educational beliefs and practices.

The Survey Research Method

The data to be obtained in this study concern the attitudes or perceptions of the parents of elementary school children toward the role of the principal. Since opinions are the verbalizations or expressions, and attitudes are the sets or orientation that people hold toward a social institution, custom, belief, or tradition,[1] it is obvious that the research technique selected for this study must yield expressions of opinion from which inferences concerning attitudes and perceptions can be drawn.

The discussion presented below concerns the research method employed in this study -- the survey research technique. The selections are intended to be illustrative and not exhaustive, since it is not the purpose of this report to give a complete presentation of the literature of the field of survey research. It is intended, rather, to report a few selected studies which will demonstrate the appropriateness of the method for this study.

Over the past forty or fifty years, attitudes toward war, schools, politics, religion and many other customs and institutions have been subjected to intensive research. Some investigations have attempted to measure depth, validity, intensity, and duration of attitudes with respect to certain issues. These studies were made possible,

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[1] Charles Bird, Social Psychology (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1940), pp. 142-46.

in no small measure, as a result of the development of a method of inquiry known as survey research.

As early as 1927 the survey technique was employed by Harper to obtain opinions on a variety of issues in politics, economics, sociology, and education. The instrument used in this study was called an agreement-disagreement test.[1] A similar scale was developed a few years later by Mort, Cornell, and Hinton in an attempt to secure opinions concerning the ability of a school system to eliminate antiquated procedures, to initiate new trends, and to take on new services.[2]

Rope was one of the first investigators to adapt the survey technique to the study of a local school situation.[3] Using a prepared questionnaire and trained interviewers, Rope stratified the sample in terms of age, sex, political affiliation and economic status. Opinion was classified as favorable, no opinion, or unfavorable. Findings of the survey indicated that the citizens of the city of Pittsburgh wanted good schools and were willing to bear the burden of increased costs. The community indicated a

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[1]Manly H. Harper, Social Beliefs and Attitudes of American Educators, Contributions to American Education, No. 294 (New York: Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, 1927).

[2]Paul R. Mort, J. G. Cornell and H. W. Hinton, What Should Our Schools Do? (New York: Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, 1938), p. 316.

[3]Frederick T. Rope, Opinion Conflict and School Support (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941), p. 71.

desire to see an upward extension of the school program. The survey also revealed that the average citizen had a very limited amount of knowledge concerning the local tax structure and state financial program for education.[1] Rope concluded that survey research techniques give an "unbiased portrayal of public desires" with reference to the public schools and offer a unique opportunity of "extending democracy through school practices."[2]

Harold Hand and his associates at the University of Illinois used a combination of the group interview and mail questionnaire technique in a study of parental, student and teacher opinion. The study concerned opinion regarding the aims, methods and content of the school program; discipline, personal relationships; and general approval or disapproval of the school program. The results not only yielded responses of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the school, but produced a large number of suggestions for program improvement.[3]

Many school systems throughout the United States have employed the survey research technique as a means of securing information regarding opinions held by the public, employees of the schools, and students. The Denver, Colorado Board of Education sponsored a survey to determine

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[1] Ibid., pp. 86-131.

[2] Ibid., p. 148.

[3] Harold C. Hand, What People Think About Their Schools (New York: World Book Company, 1948), pp. 142-49.

public opinion in that community with respect "to the general degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the work of the public schools, accomplishments of the pupils in the three R's and other significant matters."[1]

The studies cited above indicate that the survey research method of investigation has been applied to a great range of educational research problems. Likewise the procedures have been equally varied. However, the method is well established and in the hands of a trained researcher, it is a powerful tool. In fact, it may provide the only means by which opinions of the public can be secured on matters pertaining to the operation of the public schools.

Development of the Instrument

The problem under consideration in this study concerns the relationship of certain selected demographic variables to the perceptions parents hold for the role of the elementary principal. In order to make such an inquiry certain data had to be collected.

Several methods have been employed by researchers to sample an individual's opinion. Best lists four which are paraphrased below:

1. Asking the individual directly how he feels about a subject by use of a questionnaire, schedule, or interview.

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[1] Denver Looks At Its Schools (Denver, Colorado: Research Service, Inc., 1950), p. 4.

2. Having an individual check those statements with which he agrees from a list of statements.

3. Having the individual indicate the degree of agreement or disagreement that he feels about a subject by marking one of a series of statements about the subject.

4. Inferring an individual's attitudes by his reactions to various projective instruments.[1]

Both questionnaires and interviews are possible methods of obtaining opinions. The use of a mail-questionnaire for this purpose has been criticized on the basis that the returns are seldom representative of the entire group polled, that there is a possibility that directions for completing the questionnaire may not be understood or followed by some respondents, and that questions may be misconstrued. The interview-questionnaire method is not subject to these objections. Considering the size of the sample, the characteristics of the population, and the objectives of the study it was decided that the interview-questionnaire technique offered the greatest potential for this study.

Cannell and Kahn describe the basis for questionnaire development when they state that

> . . . two of the elements which are common to all interviews: (1) the existence of a general purpose for which the interview is undertaken, and

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[1]John W. Best, Research in Education (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959), p. 156.

> (2) the translation of this general purpose into a series of specific objectives or requirements for information.[1]

Following the guidelines listed above the first step in the development of the questionnaire was the formulation of the general objectives to be obtained by its use. This was accomplished by developing a series of propositions to be tested through the compilation and analysis of the data. The next step required that these hypotheses be converted into appropriate terms. An examination of each hypothesis revealed a need for two separate kinds of information: (1) information that would indicate the extent to which the respondent viewed the role of the elementary principal as being composed of mandatory or permissive behavior, and (2) personal information regarding the respondent's age, sex, religion, formal education, etc.

At this point it was necessary to make a decision regarding the form of response to items in the questionnaire. For the purpose of this study, is it better to obtain a choice limited to specific alternatives or to obtain a variety of volunteered answers? Paraphrased below are several factors given by Cannell and Kahn which have a bearing on this decision:

1. The purpose of the interview.
2. How much the respondent knows about the question.

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[1]Charles Cannell and Robert Kahn, The Dynamics of Interviewing (New York: Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1957), p. 104.

3. How easily the respondent can communicate on the topic.

4. Whether the respondent has an opinion on the subject.

5. The extent to which the respondent's situation described in items 1 - 4 are known to the interviewer prior to the interview.[1]

Since the purpose of this study was to classify the respondents with respect to their perceptions of what the principal should do, the closed question seemed most appropriate. It was assumed that the parents of elementary school children would be familiar with the topic under consideration and have opinions regarding what the principal should do. This assumption was tested during the pilot study by the addition of a sixth response to the questionnaire entitled "no opinion." Since the study was conducted in a community that had recently been surveyed regarding the goals of education and realizing that a closed question required less motivation and was somewhat less threatening,[2] the open type questionnaire was deemed inappropriate. Finally, Lazarsfeld has suggested a compromise procedure which meets some of the objections to the closed questionnaire: ". . . the appropriate allocation of functions between the open and closed techniques consists of using open questions for the pilot work and closed questions for

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[1] Cannell and Kahn, op. cit., p. 132.

[2] Ibid., p. 137.

the data gathering."[1] This procedure permits the closed questions to be formulated on the basis of direct experience with at least a small sample of the population, and can take into account the characteristics of the population. A modification of this procedure was used in this study.

In Chapter I it was mentioned that a research project investigating the role of the superintendent conducted at Harvard University was responsible, in part, for the author's interest in a study concerning the role of the elementary principal. The chief contribution of the Harvard Study was made in the development of the data-collection instrument used in this study.

The Harvard Study encompassed the problems of role definition, conformity to expectations, and role-conflict resolution.[2] In order to attain the stated goal of the research project, "to test theoretically derived hypotheses involving expectations for and behavior of incumbents of positions in social systems," a number of data-collection instruments had to be developed.[3] Of special interest to the author's study was one entitled "Expectations for Superintendent's Performances."[4]

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[1]Paul F. Lazarsfeld, "The Controversy Over Detailed Interviews - An Offer for Negotiation," Public Opinion Quarterly, VIII (February, 1944), 38-60.

[2]Neal Gross, Ward S. Mason and Alexander W. McEachern, Explorations in Role Analysis: Studies of the School Superintendency Role (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1958), p. 102.

[3]Ibid., p. 3.

[4]Ibid., pp. 331-34.

This instrument contained thirty-seven statements, each describing a behavior in which the superintendent may or may not be expected to engage as the administrator of the public schools. It was intended to be a sample of the major types of activities in which the superintendent engages when carrying out his job. Some of the items were general statements about a superintendent's behavior, whereas others tended to be specific.

The instrument was administered in the Harvard Study by asking each respondent whether and to what extent he felt a superintendent was obligated to do what was specified in the particular expectation item. The available response categories for each item in the instrument were:

A. Absolutely must

B. Preferably should

C. May or may not

D. Preferably should not

E. Absolutely must not

Realizing the limitations of a doctoral study which, must of necessity, depend upon the resources of a novice researcher, considering the fact that the development and validation of an instrument designed to measure parent perceptions of the principal's role is a project worthy of a complete study, and believing that the impact of educational research could be significantly greater if researchers employed the results of completed studies as an integral

part of their investigations, this writer chose to incorporate appropriate concepts and procedures explored in the Harvard Study into this investigation.

After surveying the existing literature on role theory and administrative research, this writer decided to model the data-collection instrument upon the "Expectations for Superintendent's Performance" questionnaire used in the Harvard Study. The plan for development of the questionnaire entitled "Expectations for Principal's Performance" included the collection of a series of statements which would adequately represent the activities that a principal might engage while performing the functions of his role and the utilization of as many items as possible from the instrument in the Harvard Study. This meant that statements from the Harvard instrument had to be modified along two dimensions: (1) since the Harvard Study was designed, primarily, for use with professional personnel, the wording had to be altered to insure that the respondents would understand the meaning of the items, and (2) the focus of the writer's study concerned the behavior of a different status person, therefore expectation items had to be modified to meet the role of the elementary principal. Examples of these changes are shown below.

1. To clarify and improve understanding of the item:

Original -- Make curriculum changes without consulting the teaching staff.

Modification -- Make changes in what is to be taught without asking the advice of the teachers.

2. To have the item fit the role of the elementary principal:

Original -- Urge people whom he respects to run for positions on the school committee.

Modification -- See that leadership positions in the parent-teacher organization are filled with parents known to be "cooperative" with him.

In order to obtain additional statements for the questionnaire a variety of sources were tapped. The vast body of professional literature related to the functions of the elementary principal was examined. The yield from this source was not large in terms of specific questions, but did provide a systematic means by which the role could be analyzed. If the principal's position is considered in terms of the major environmental groups to which he must relate, the role of the principal could be classified as: (1) principal-teacher, (2) principal-superintendent and board of education, (3) principal-parent and/or community, and (4) principal-profession. This classification was not strictly adhered to, but was used as a rough guide in selecting behavioral statements for the interview schedule.

Parents, teachers, superintendents, and school board members were asked to give examples of principal behavior, both positive and negative, which they had witnessed or experienced. The writer drew liberally from his own experience as a teacher and elementary principal. As might be expected, this procedure produced an extremely long list of expectation items with many duplications and some unique and extreme examples of principal behavior. After the mass of statements were sifted by the writer, a tentative list of 48 items was established.[1]

A panel of judges was formed to evaluate the tentative list and render a decision on the items to be included in the pilot form. Six experienced elementary principals were asked to examine each statement and determine whether it was representative of the type of behavior in which a principal might engage while performing the functions of his position. A criterion was established that an item had to receive five affirmative votes in order to be included in the pilot form.

The Pilot Study

The pilot form of the instrument was compiled, mimeographed, and empirically tested through twenty personal interviews conducted by the author. The pilot study was undertaken to answer three specific questions: (1) Is

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[1]See Appendix A for a copy of the final questionnaire.

the assumption empirically sound that parents of elementary school children have an opinion regarding what the principal should and should not do? (2) Is the scale of available responses adequate for the interview schedule? (3) Are the statements constructed in language that all respondents clearly understand? The pilot study would also provide the author with insights into problems likely to be encountered when the instrument was administered to the study sample.

In order to carry out the pilot study the cooperation of a suburban Detroit school district was obtained. The pilot sample consisted of twenty parents of children attending one elementary school in the cooperating district. Cumulative records of all students attending the school were made available to the author. These were used to stratify the sample in such a manner that the demographic variables to be used in the design were represented over a wide range.

Each interview followed a definite pattern and required between one and one-half and two and one-half hours to complete. After a few introductory remarks to establish rapport and outline the purpose of the interview, the statements were read to the respondent and his reaction recorded on a coded form. At the completion of the administration of the instrument each respondent was asked what he thought each item meant, or how he would express the central idea in his own words. Reactions were recorded by the writer.

An examination of Table I clearly indicates that a broad distribution of the independent variables was accomplished in the pilot study. Though the pilot data were not analyzed to seek specific "findings," simple inspection reveals a trend of low restrictive scores for those respondents who ranked high on the occupational scale and had completed a high school education or better.

Table II shows the distribution of responses to each individual question obtained in the pilot study. Response category number 6 -- "no opinion" was added to find out if the proposed scale of available responses was adequate for the interview schedule. Table III shows the distribution of responses by per cent. Since the "no opinion" category amounts to less than one per cent out of 800 responses, the five point scale of available responses appears to discriminate adequately for the range of opinions expressed by the respondents.

As a result of the pilot study interviews, a few minor changes were made in the wording of some statements in the interest of clarity and two items were eliminated from the schedule. Refinements made on the basis of information gained through the pilot study resulted in an instrument composed of 38 statements.

TABLE I

DISTRIBUTION OF VARIABLES - PILOT STUDY

CASE	OCCUPATIONAL CLASS	EDUCATION	RELIGIOUS POLITY	SEX	AGE	DISTANCE FROM SCHOOL	SCHOOL CONTACTS	SCHOOL ELECTION VOTING	LEADERSHIP POSITIONS	SCHOOL-AGE CHILDREN	RESTRICTIVE SCORE
1	Lower Working	8	Congregational	Male	35	0	1	0	0	2	19
2	Upper Working	10	Hierarchical	Female	43	2	2	0	0	3	10
3	Lower Working	8	Congregational	Female	35	3	3	0	0	1	20
4	Lower Middle	12	Hierarchical	Female	31	3	2	1	1	2	10
5	Lower Working	12	Congregational	Female	31	0	1	2	1	2	22
6	Lower Middle	12	Synodical	Male	28	1	0	1	0	1	4
7	Upper Middle	16	Congregational	Female	41	2	2	0	1	2	7
8	Upper Working	12	Congregational	Female	32	1	3	0	0	1	15
9	Upper Working	12	Congregational	Male	47	0	1	0	0	3	16
10	Lower Middle	14	Synodical	Male	37	1	2	2	0	3	8
11	Lower Working	12	Congregational	Female	42	1	0	0	1	4	27
12	Upper Middle	12	Hierarchical	Female	29	2	0	0	1	1	18
13	Lower Working	10	Synodical	Female	34	1	0	1	0	1	17
14	Lower Working	10	Hierarchical	Male	49	1	3	2	1	3	21
15	Upper Working	12	Synodical	Male	36	0	2	0	0	3	19
16	Upper Working	10	Congregational	Male	27	1	5	1	0	1	16
17	Upper Middle	16	Congregational	Female	52	0	4	2	0	3	5
18	Upper Working	12	Congregational	Male	30	2	1	0	1	1	11
19	Upper Working	9	Congregational	Male	39	2	0	1	0	2	12
20	Lower Middle	12	Congregational	Male	45	1	4	1	0	3	9

TABLE II

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES - PILOT STUDY

QUESTION	ANSWERS*						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	TOTALS
1	7	4	3	4	2	0	20
2	4	4	5	2	5	0	20
3	4	4	6	3	3	0	20
4	10	5	2	2	1	0	20
5	2	3	8	5	2	0	20
6	6	2	2	3	7	0	20
7	7	6	5	1	1	0	20
8	5	4	5	4	2	0	20
9	4	5	4	1	6	0	20
10	5	3	1	2	9	0	20
11	5	4	7	2	2	0	20
12	4	5	6	1	4	0	20
13	3	4	6	2	5	0	20
14	5	5	5	2	3	0	20
15	2	4	4	6	4	0	20
16	2	2	3	3	10	0	20
17	3	4	6	3	4	0	20
18	1	3	3	8	5	0	20
19	7	6	5	2	0	0	20
20	9	7	2	1	0	1	20
21	2	1	4	5	8	0	20
22	4	7	5	1	3	0	20
23	5	6	6	1	2	0	20
24	4	3	3	5	5	0	20
25	0	0	2	4	10	4	20
26	2	4	10	3	1	0	20
27	3	2	7	5	3	0	20
28	2	2	10	3	3	0	20
29	0	4	7	6	3	0	20
30	0	5	4	6	5	0	20
31	7	8	3	2	0	0	20
32	8	8	2	0	0	2	20
33	5	5	7	3	0	0	20
34	2	8	8	2	0	0	20
35	4	5	9	1	1	0	20
36	4	6	9	1	0	0	20
37	2	3	8	6	1	0	20
38	3	4	11	2	0	0	20
39	5	6	5	2	2	0	20
40	3	6	4	4	3	0	20

*Key to answers: 1-Absolutely must, 2-Preferably should, 3-May or may not, 4-Preferably should not, 5-Absolutely must not, 6-No opinion.

TABLE III

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PILOT STUDY RESPONSES

RESPONSE	PER CENT[1]
Absolutely must	20
Preferably should	22
May or may not	27
Preferably should not	15
Absolutely must not	16
No opinion	0

Selection of the Community

Over the years professional workers in the social sciences have wrestled with the definition of the concept "community." To the geographer community has meant a geographically defined area. To the political scientist the community has been defined in terms of political boundaries and governmental service areas. Whereas each discipline of the social sciences has tended to view the community in relation to its own area of concern, the sociologists and cultural anthropologists have attempted to define community as a broad concept. Smucker summarizes his review of the literature on communities as follows:

> A distillation of the literature on communities reveals approximately the following characteristics:

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[1] Percentages were rounded off to the nearest whole number.

(1) a population aggregate

(2) a geographically defined area

(3) a common mode of life

(4) a group of need serving agencies

(5) a sense of identity and involvement

(6) a social heritage

(7) a functional interdependence[1]

Stanley emphasizes the commonality of purpose feature of the community thus: "Community is used to mean a local residence area, the inhabitants of which have, at least to some extent certain basic ideas and ways of behaving in common."[2] Though the writer is aware that the definitions offered above are currently under attack from leading theorists of the social sciences, it was felt that the traditional definition of community was sufficient to meet the purposes of this study.

Criteria for selection

Before a community could be selected for this study certain standards had to be established. These standards were determined after an examination of the purposes and the research design of the study. It was decided that the community must meet the following standards: (1) be

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[1]Orden C. Smucker, "What Is A Community?" Educational Leadership, XVII (February, 1960), 274-78.

[2]William O. Stanley, et. al., Social Foundations of Education (New York: The Dryden Press, 1956), p. 50.

geographically close enough to Ann Arbor, Michigan, to keep the costs of the investigation reasonable; (2) the population must be composed so that all demographic variables could be tested; and (3) a degree of similarity between this community and other communities must exist.

All of the interviewing was done by the author. This meant that time and costs had to be considered a factor in community selection. The community that was selected is located approximately fifteen miles from the city of Ann Arbor.

Since the ability to generalize does not appreciably increase if two or three communities are used in a study of this kind, it was necessary to choose one community large enough to assure the inclusion of all demographic variables under study. The selection was further limited because of the necessity to control the effects of different schools serving different populations within the community. Thus the community had to be one that was served by one elementary school.

Regardless of the scope of a research project it should have, if it is to be useful, meaning for professional educators beyond the boundaries of the community under study. The feasibility of this study applying to other communities is appreciably increased if the criterion of modality is applied to the selection of the community.

Description of community

The Lincoln Consolidated School District is located in Washtenaw County between the city of Ypsilanti, Michigan and the northern boundary of Monroe County. Two small villages, Whittaker and Willis, lie within the district's boundaries, but the center of the community interest is focused upon the school. Most of the residents are employed in neighboring communities since only one manufacturing establishment, a Ford Motor Company plant, is located within the school district. Occupationally the population is largely composed of the working class. A few persons are engaged in truck gardening. The school district receives financial support from the community and Eastern Michigan University. Eastern Michigan University uses the schools of the district as a training school for teachers.

Interviewing Procedures

Permission to conduct the study was granted by the Lincoln Consolidated School District Board of Education after the writer had presented the proposal to the Superintendent.

Since the relationship between the community and the school system was considered as being of paramount importance and considering the fact that the success of the study was dependent upon a high degree of parent cooperation, the writer made the first contact with parents in the sample

by means of a letter (Appendix B). The letter described the purpose and nature of the study and indicated that proper approval had been obtained. In order to prevent prediscussion of the study on the part of the respondents, the exact contents of the study were not revealed prior to the interview. The hypotheses were never discussed with the parents. The final contact preceding the interview was made by the writer over the telephone. If there was no telephone, the writer made this contact in person. The call set up the exact time and date of the interview.

All interviewing was personally conducted by the writer. The interviews were held in the home of the respondent. The interviewing procedure included a brief introduction, a short restatement of the purpose of the study and reassurance to the respondent that the views expressed would be held in strict confidence. The writer would then hand the respondent a card on which the responses had been typed. Each response was identified by a letter. Next, each statement was read to the respondent and he was asked to choose the response which most nearly expressed his feeling on the item. Replies could either be by letter identification or the complete response. The writer recorded the responses on a coded sheet.

Sampling

The classical theory of sampling was developed on the concept of drawing random samples from a homogenous

population of known statistical characteristics. In the fields of education and social science seldom does the researcher possess knowledge concerning such measures as the mean and standard deviation of the population to be sampled. Consequently, the classical theory has been gradually replaced in educational research with newer developments in sampling theory known as statistical inference.[1] Simply stated, this means that generalizations are drawn about the population on the basis of information available from the sample group. Sampling for the purpose of generalizing about a universe or population must meet the criterion of randomness.

Johnson defines random sampling as ". . . a method of selection by which each member of the population has an equal and independent chance of being included in the sample, and that the method of selection is completely independent of the characteristics to be examined."[2] This is accomplished by drawing an individual at random, returning him to the population, repeating the process until an adequate sized sample has been selected. A common method of random selection involves the use of a table of random numbers. If sampling without replacement is desired, the assignment

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[1]James E. Wert, Charoles O. Neidt and J. Stanley Ahmann, Statistical Methods in Educational and Psychological Research (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1954), p. 103.

[2]Palmer O. Johnson, Statistical Methods in Research (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949), p. 189.

of random numbers can be controlled by disregarding the repetition of any number.

In drawing the sample for this study a list of families of elementary school students of the Lincoln Consolidated School District was secured and arranged in alphabetical order. Composing the list in this manner gave assurance that the sample would be free of bias. Each family was assigned a number. A table of random numbers was used to select the sample from the alphabetized list. The procedure used was sampling without replacement, therefore, after a number was drawn once, subsequent appearances of that number were discarded. The design of the study required that only one parent be interviewed from each family. Since one of the hypotheses was based on sex, a further refinement was called for in the sample selection procedure. When a family appeared for selection in which a member of the appropriate sex did not exist, the other member was accepted and the order of choice reversed. It had been determined that a minimum sample of one hundred parents were needed for the successful completion of the study. A recent survey of the high school parent population of the district had produced a return of 85 per cent.[1] Using this experience as a guide, the sample selected for this study was one hundred and twenty-five. The actual

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[1]Monroe K. Rowland, "Opinions of Goals of Secondary Education Held by Parents and by Educators" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Michigan, 1960).

number interviewed was one hundred and seventeen, with five having moved away and three refusing to participate in the study.

Compilation and Analysis

The techniques employed in this study up to this point are well within the range of abilities expected of a professionally trained educator. The analyses of data secured in such a study can be successfully performed on modern computing machines. Though the use of such equipment involves a cost factor, the value of the knowledge resulting therefrom should be well worth the expenditure.

The compilation and analysis of all data obtained in this study was made on IBM computing equipment at the University of Michigan Computing Center. A relatively new program -- Stepwise Regression -- was employed to analyze the data.[1] Since a detailed description of the program will be presented in a later chapter, only a brief explanation is given here.

The Stepwise Regression program is built around the regression-correlation statistical concept. It can be used to study the interrelationships among a group of up to 60 variables. It is particularly useful for analyzing situations involving unknown complicated relationships between variables which are difficult to control. The

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[1]See manual written for the program: James D. Dallemand, Stepwise Regression Program On The IBM 704 (1958).

analysis deals with a set of independent variables x_1, x_2, . . ., x_p, and a single dependent variable y. The ultimate objective of the program is to relate the x-variables to the y variable by means of a linear expression such as

$$y = b_0 + b_1x_1 + b_2x_2 \cdot \cdot \cdot + b_px_p.$$

The power of the stepwise method for this analysis as opposed to the more classical methods lies in the fact that the expression given above is built up variable by variable in order of relative importance of the variables.

Statistical computations provided by the program included simple correlations, intercorrelations, multiple correlations, difference between predicted and estimated scores, and the standard error of estimate. Standard statistical significance tests were applied to establish the acceptance or rejection of each hypothesis.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Explanation of Statistical Procedure

Data obtained for this study were secured by means of a survey of the parents of elementary school children in the Lincoln Consolidated School District. Interviews were conducted with a closed type questionnaire to elicit responses concerning the perception of the elementary principal's role and collect certain demographic data.

This chapter contains an explanation of the statistical process used in the analysis, an analysis of the data obtained from the questionnaire, and a discussion of the validity and reliability of the instrument.

Analysis of the data obtained in this study was made through the use of a computer programmed statistical procedure called stepwise regression. The stepwise method was originally developed by M. A. Efroymson of the Esso Standard Research and Engineering Company. The program has been described in a publication of the General Motors Corporation Research Staff.[1]

The stepwise regression method of analysis is built

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[1] James E. Dallemand, Stepwise Regression Program on the IBM 704 (General Motors Publication, 1958).

upon the statistical concepts of product-moment coefficient of correlation and linear regression. This method of analysis is designed to handle a problem in which data have been simultaneously collected on as many as sixty different variables. One of these is treated as the dependent variable; the remainder as variables of prediction.

Under these conditions the method is capable of providing answers to the following types of questions:

1. What linear combination of the independent variables best explains the data on the dependent variable?
2. How good is the relationship in (1)?
3. What is the linear relationship between the "best" single predictor and the dependent variable? (Similar questions might be asked concerning the best pair, the best three, or any subset of independent variables.)
4. For each subset of (3), how good is the relationship?
5. What is the smallest set of predictor terms that will make statistically significant contributions toward explaining the statistical variation in the dependent variable? (The user may set the level of significance.)
6. How good is the relationship in (5) and how good is the prediction?
7. How much of the behavior of the dependent variable

is still unexplained by the equation? (This is the Standard Error of Estimate.)

The analysis deals with a set of independent variables $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_p$, and a single dependent variable Y. The objective of the program is to relate the x-variables to the Y-variable by means of a linear expression such as

$$Y = b_0 + b_1x_1 + b_2x_2 + \ldots + b_px_p.$$

The regression coefficients $b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_p$ in (1) are determined by least squares, i.e., so as to minimize the sum of the squares of the differences between observed and predicted values of Y.

In order to simplify the description of the stepwise generation of the predicting equation, an example will be used. Suppose there are five independent variables x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, and x_5 which are to serve as candidates for predicting the dependent variable Y.

The first step is to find that variable x_i which best predicts Y. This is done by correlating each of the x_i to Y and selecting that x_i which has the greatest correlation coefficient in absolute value. If more than one x_i shares the largest value, take the x_i with the lowest subscript. If this variable was x_4, then the first predicting equation would be

$$Y = a + b_4x_4.$$

Succeeding steps are of slightly different form. First the x_i are sorted into two subsets $x_{i,1}$ and $x_{i,2}$. The $x_{i,1}$ consists of all those variables that are in the predicting equation at the time of the sorting. The set $x_{i,2}$

consists of all those variables that are not yet in the predicting equation.

For each of the members of $x_{i,1}$ the analysis computes an "importance factor" which is a measure of the relative contribution of the variable to the prediction equation. The smallest of these importance factors is isolated. If the variable associated with this factor is less important than the user requires for the variable to be retained in the equation, then that variable is removed from the equation.

The scale used to determine whether a variable meets the "importance" criterion is simply the chance that the user is willing to take that a variable may be left in the predicting equation that should have been removed. The F-test measures the extent to which a variable will contribute toward explaining the dependent variable behavior, and tests this contribution against a purely chance correlation by comparing the variance with and without the term. The term will be used only when the difference in variance cannot be explained by chance alone.

If and when all the importance factors exceed the minimum value required for retention of the set $x_{i,1}$, the analysis then examines the set $x_{i,2}$. For each variable of this set a "potential importance factor" is determined and

the largest of these isolated. These factors measure the relative contribution which each variable not presently in the predicting equation might make to the equation if it were put in. The largest of these is associated with "best" variable at this stage. Once again a comparison is made to insure that the risk of inserting a variable incorrectly is in agreement with the significance of the "best" variable before the insertion is allowed to occur. Again, the user specifies the risk he is willing to take of a variable being incorrectly inserted into the equation.

Suppose that, in the example considered, x_4 has been retained, and that of the remaining variables x_1 best explains the behavior of Y not accounted for by x_4. If there is sufficient evidence to support the insertion of x_1, then a new prediction equation is formed by least squares:

$$Y = b_0' + b_1 x_1 + b_4' x_4$$

The primes on b_0 and b_4 indicate that these coefficients have undergone one modification in the process and are new values. At this point the variables are again sorted and checked for importance and the procedure repeated.

Computation is terminated whenever either all the x-variables have been inserted into the predicting equation or none of the x-variables that remain as possible candidates for the equation is sufficiently important to allow insertion.

The advantages of the stepwise regression method of data analysis as opposed to the more classical methods

are several. First, the expression $Y = b_0 + b_1x_1 + b_2x_2 + \ldots b_px_p$ is built up variable by variable in order of their relative importance to the explanation of the behavior of Y. Secondly, checks are made continually regarding the continued importance of terms in the equation and only those terms will be inserted into or removed from the equation that meet the significance levels specified by the user. The significance tests prescribed by the user controls the generation of the predicting equation so that each term possesses a maximum risk of appearing incorrectly. Lastly, the program computes a number of statistics before the predicting equation begins. Included among these statistics are the mean for each variable, the standard deviation for each variable, and the correlation coefficient for each pair of variables.

Findings

For convenience the findings of this study will be presented in three parts. The first part consists of an examination of each hypothesis in terms of the simple correlations obtained between the pertinent demographic variable and the restrictive score. Next, each step in the formulation of the regression equation will be presented and discussed. Finally, the relationships established as a result of the generated prediction equation will be presented.

Simple correlations

HYPOTHESIS I: Parents who hold occupations of low rank on the occupational classification scale will tend to define the role of the elementary principal in restrictive terms.[1]

TABLE IV

RELATIONSHIP OF OCCUPATIONAL CLASS TO RESTRICTIVENESS

Range	Mean	Standard Deviation	Correlation with Y	Significance Level
1 - 4	2.59	1.11	.40	.01[2]

Table IV shows the findings related to hypothesis I. The correlation coefficient between occupational class and restrictiveness was found to be .40. For 115 degrees of freedom (n-2), a correlation as large as .243 would occur only once in a hundred cases by chance. Since the obtained correlation coefficient of .40 exceeds that needed to meet the 1 per cent level of significance, the data support the hypothesis. Therefore, it can be concluded that parents who hold low ranked occupations will perceive

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[1] Occupational Classification Scale: 1-Upper Middle, 2-Lower Middle, 3-Upper Working, 4-Lower Working

[2] The 5 per cent level of significance was used as the criterion measure for all statistical analysis of this study. However, where the criterion was exceeded, the writer points this out.

the elementary principal's role in a restrictive way.

HYPOTHESIS II: Parents who rank high on the number of years of formal education completed will tend to define the role of the elementary principal in less restrictive terms.

TABLE V

RELATIONSHIP OF FORMAL EDUCATION TO RESTRICTIVENESS

Range	Mean	Standard Deviation	Correlation with Y	Significance Level
5-18	11	2.39	-.44	.01

Table V gives the results of the findings concerning the relationship of formal education to restrictiveness. A correlation coefficient of -.44 indicates that restrictiveness decreased as the number of years of formal education increased. The obtained correlation is considerably above the 1 per cent level of significance. Support for the hypothesis is sufficient to warrant its acceptance.

HYPOTHESIS III: Parents who attend churches that are organized on a hierarchical or synodical political structure will tend to define the role of the elementary principal in restrictive terms.

TABLE VI

RELATIONSHIP OF RELIGIOUS POLITY TO RESTRICTIVENESS

Range	Mean	Standard Deviation	Correlation with Y	Significance Level
1 - 3	1.71	.778	.23	.05

The findings regarding the relationship of religious polity to restrictiveness are summarized in table VI.[1] The correlation coefficient between religious polity and restrictiveness was found to be .23. A coefficient of .186 would occur only once by chance in 20 cases. Since the obtained coefficient of .23 exceeds that required for the 5 per cent level of significance, the hypothesis is supported by the data and can be accepted.

HYPOTHESIS IV: Parents of the female sex will tend to define the role of the elementary principal in restrictive terms.

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[1] Religious Polity Scale: 1-Congregational, 2-Synodical, 3-Hierarchical.

TABLE VII

RELATIONSHIP OF SEX TO RESTRICTIVENESS

Range	Mean	Standard Deviation	Correlation with Y	Significance Level
1 - 2	1.4872	.502	-.0009	----

Table VII summarizes the results of the findings related to sex as a determining variable of the tendency to define the role of the elementary principal in restrictive terms. A correlation coefficient of -.0009 was obtained. The results indicate that the null hypothesis could not be rejected. Hence, the data do not support the hypothesis advanced.

HYPOTHESIS V: As the age of the parent increases, the tendency to define the role of the principal in restrictive terms will also increase.

TABLE VIII

RELATIONSHIP OF AGE TO RESTRICTIVENESS

Range	Mean	Standard Deviation	Correlation with Y	Significance Level
25-69	38.34	7.58	.117	----

Table VIII gives the results of the findings concerning the relationship of age to restrictiveness. The correlation coefficient obtained was .117. Since the magnitude of the correlation fails to meet the established criterion of significance, the data do not provide support for the hypothesis and it cannot be accepted.

HYPOTHESIS VI: As the residence of the parent increases in distance from the school, the tendency to define the role of the elementary principal in restrictive terms will increase.

TABLE IX

RELATIONSHIP OF DISTANCE OF RESIDENCE FROM SCHOOL TO RESTRICTIVENESS

Range	Mean	Standard Deviation	Correlation with Y	Significance Level
0 - 9	3.44	1.79	.007	----

The summary given in table IX gives the results of the findings related to distance of residence from school and restrictiveness. A correlation coefficient of .007 was obtained. Support for the hypothesis is not sufficient since a significant relationship was not established.

HYPOTHESIS VII: As the number of contacts between the parent and the school increase the tendency to define the role of the elementary principal in restrictive terms will decrease.

TABLE X

RELATIONSHIP OF AMOUNT OF SCHOOL CONTACT TO RESTRICTIVENESS

Range	Mean	Standard Deviation	Correlation with Y	Significance Level
0 - 20	3.62	4.30	-.124	----

Findings related to the effect of school and parent contacts on restrictiveness are presented in table X. The relationship represented by a correlation coefficient of -.124 is not significant at the 5 per cent level. Lacking support, the hypothesis must be regarded as untenable.

HYPOTHESIS VIII: Parents who vote in school elections will tend to define the role of the elementary principal in less restrictive terms.

TABLE XI

RELATIONSHIP OF SCHOOL ELECTION VOTING TO RESTRICTIVENESS

Range	Mean	Standard Deviation	Correlation with Y	Significance Level
0 - 2	.889	.692	-.225	.05

Table XI summarizes the findings concerning the relationship of school election voting to restrictiveness.[1] A correlation of .186 would be significant at the 5 per cent level. Since the obtained correlation exceeds that required to meet the established criterion, support for the hypothesis has been established and it may be accepted.

HYPOTHESIS IX: Parents who hold positions of leadership in formal organizations will tend to define the role of the elementary principal in less restrictive terms.

TABLE XII

RELATIONSHIP OF LEADERSHIP TO RESTRICTIVENESS

Range	Mean	Standard Deviation	Correlation with Y	Significance Level
0 - 1	.3250	.470	-.29	.01

[1]School Voting Scale: 0-did not vote in last two school elections, 1-voted in one of last two school elections, 2-voted in both elections.

Findings concerning the relationship of leadership[1] to restrictiveness are the subject of table XII. The obtained correlation coefficient was -.29. A correlation of .243 would occur by chance only once in 100 cases. Since the obtained correlation exceeds that required to meet the 1 per cent level of significance, it can be concluded that the data support the hypothesis.

HYPOTHESIS X: As the number of school-age children in a family increases, the tendency of the parent to define the role of the elementary principal in restrictive terms will decrease.

TABLE XIII

RELATIONSHIP OF NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN SCHOOL TO RESTRICTIVENESS

Range	Mean	Standard Deviation	Correlation with Y	Significance Level
1 - 7	2.63	1.19	-.098	----

Table XIII summarizes the findings concerning the relationship of school-age children in the family and restrictiveness. The obtained correlation coefficient of .098 is not significant. Therefore, the hypothesis is not

[1]Leadership Scale: 0-hold no leadership positions, 1-holds one or more leadership positions.

tenable and may not be accepted.

TABLE XIV

SUMMARY OF CORRELATIONS OF DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES WITH RESTRICTIVENESS

Variable	Coefficient of Correlation	Significant
Occupational Class	.40	yes
Formal Education	-.44	yes
Religious Polity	.23	yes
Sex	-.0009	no
Age	.117	no
Distance From School	.007	no
Contact With School	-.124	no
School Voting	-.225	yes
Leadership	-.29	yes
Children in School	-.098	no

So far the analysis of data obtained in the study has established that a significant relationship exists between restrictiveness and occupation, education, religious polity, school voting, and leadership. These findings are summarized in table XIV.

TABLX XV

INTERCORRELATIONS OF SIGNIFICANT INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

Variables	Coefficient of Intercorrelation
Occupational Class vs. Education	-.39
Occupational Class vs. Religious Polity	.07
Occupational Class vs. School Voting	-.02
Occupational Class vs. Leadership	-.22
Education vs. Religious Polity	-.10
Education vs. School Voting	.21
Education vs. Leadership	.28
Religious Polity vs. School Voting	-.16
Religious Polity vs. Leadership	-.09
School Voting vs. Leadership	.35

If the analysis had been terminated at this point, valuable opportunities to gain additional insights about the nature of the findings would have been lost. An examination of the information illustrated in table XV will demonstrate just how inadequate the analysis is at this point. Significant intercorrelations are shown to exist between occupational class and education, occupational class and leadership, education and voting, education and leadership, and voting and leadership. If two variables are significantly correlated with each other, it is possible that they both are measures of much the same thing, and the inclusion

of both, instead of either one or the other, may contribute little to the prediction achieved. Clearly, then, if the analysis is to provide direction for the conclusions, further analysis must be employed.

Steps in generation of regression equation

Before further analysis was attempted consideration had to be given as to the nature of the information being sought. Information was needed concerning: (1) What linear combination of the significant demographic variables best explains the data on the restrictive score? (2) How good is this relationship in (1)? (3) What is the smallest set of predictive terms that will make statistically significant contributions toward explaining the variation in the restrictive score? (4) How good is this relationship in (3), and how good is the prediction? How much of the behavior of the restrictive score variable is still unexplained by the equation?[1] Answers to these questions are presented in this section of the chapter.

Table XVI is a summary of the results obtained at the conclusion of the first step in computing the prediction equation. The first variable selected for entry into the equation was education -- the variable with the highest

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[1]For detailed information concerning the mathematical treatment of data in arriving at conclusions see: James E. Dallemand, Stepwise Regression Program On The IBM 704 (General Motors Publication, 1958).

TABLE XVI

STEPWISE REGRESSION - STEP 1

Variable Entering		Education
F - Level		27.6653
Standard Error of Y		6.7791
Coefficient of Determination		.1939
Multiple Correlation Coefficient		.44
Constant Term		31.0408
Coefficient of the Variable	Education	-1.3831

correlation in absolute value. The standard error of Y (standard error of estimate) was reduced from 7.5180 to 6.7791, the multiple correlation coefficient was .44, and 19 per cent (coefficient of determination) of the variance of the restrictive score (Y) was accounted for. Therefore, with one step of the regression equation completed, the best estimate of the restrictive score a parent would make was: 31.04 (constant term) + years of education (-1.3831) + or - one standard error of estimate (6.7791) for 68 per cent of the cases and + or - 2 standard errors of estimate for 95 per cent of the cases. Stated in equation form:

$$Y = 31.04k - 1.3831X_2 \pm 6.7991 \text{ (68 per cent of the cases)}$$

or:

$$Y = 31.04k - 1.3831X_2 \pm 13.5982 \text{ (95 per cent of the cases).}$$

TABLE XVII

STEPWISE REGRESSION - STEP 2

Variable Entering		Occupational Class
F - Level		9.5068
Standard Error of Y		6.5414
Coefficient of Determination		.2560
Multiple Correlation Coefficient		.5059
Constant Term		22.5693
Coefficient of Variable		
	Occupational Class	1.8394
	Education	-1.0479

The results obtained when occupational class was combined with education are given in table XVII. Again the standard error of estimate was reduced, the multiple correlation increased, and the coefficient of determination raised to account for 25 per cent of the variance in the restrictive score. The value of the constant term was modified as well as the coefficient of the variable education. With two steps of regression completed the predictive equation was: 22.5693 + years of education (-1.0479) + occupational class[1] (1.8394). Stated in equation form:

[1] 1-Upper Middle, 2-Lower Middle, 3-Upper Working, 4-Lower Working.

$Y = 22.5693k - 1.0479X_2 + 1.8394X_1 \pm 6.5414$ (68 per cent of the cases)

or:

$Y = 22.5693k - 1.0479X_2 + 1.8394X_1 \pm 13.0828$ (95 per cent of the cases).

TABLE XVIII

STEPWISE REGRESSION - STEP 3

Variable Entering		Religious Polity
F - Level		5.3193
Standard Error of Y		6.4209
Coefficient of Determination		.2894
Multiple Correlation Coefficient		.5380
Constant Term		19.0862
Coefficient of Variable		
	Occupational Class	1.7943
	Formal Education	-.9973
	Religious Polity	1.7787

The third and final step in the development of the prediction equation is the subject of table XVIII. The addition of the variable religious polity generated a further modification of the factors which comprise the prediction equation. The standard error of estimate has been reduced to 6.4209, the multiple correlation coefficient has increased to .5380, and the coefficient of determination has increased

to .2894. The constant term was modified and the three contributing variables have new coefficients. Thus, the best prediction of the restrictive score a given parent would make can be determined as follows:

constant term (19.09) + occupational class (1.79) + education (-.99) + religious polity (1.78).

Stated in equation form:

$$Y = 19.0862k + 1.7943X_1 - .9973X_2 + 1.7787X_3 \pm 6.4209$$ (68 per cent of the cases)

or:

$$Y = 19.0862k + 1.7943X_1 - .9973X_2 + 1.7787X_3 \pm 12.8418$$ (95 per cent of the cases).

To demonstrate the use of the prediction equation consider the example given below. If, for example, a given parent has completed 14 years of formal education, holds an occupation classified as lower middle, and attends a church having a political structure classified as congregational, what restrictive score would he be most likely to make? Substituting in the equation we would have:

$$Y = 19.09^1 + 2(1.79) + 14(-1.00) + 1(1.78)$$

$$Y = 10.45$$

Standard Error of Estimate = 6.42

In 68 per cent of the cases the restrictive score would fall within + or - 1 standard error and within + or - 2 standard errors 95 per cent of the time.

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[1] All figures were rounded off to two decimal places.

An examination of table XIV shows that five dependent variables were found to be significantly correlated with the independent variable restrictiveness. They were in descending order of magnitude: education, occupational class, leadership, religious polity, and school voting. At this point one might wonder why, in computing the regression equation, the program was terminated at the end of three steps. Why were the variables leadership and school voting not included in the prediction equation in view of the fact that they were found to correlate with restrictiveness at a significant level? Moreover, why was religious polity entered into the equation when its absolute value was exceeded by leadership? Answers to these questions will reveal the power of the stepwise method to handle problems of the type posed in this study.

Computation of the regression equation ceased at the end of three steps because the potential contribution of the remaining variables was less than the criterion established by the writer for entry into the equation (F - level = 5%). In other words, a further reduction in the variance of the dependent variable by the entry of either leadership or school voting into the equation would result in no more than might be expected by chance. An examination of table XII reveals that both leadership and school voting are correlated rather highly with education. Also, leadership and school voting are correlated with each

other. It is clear that some of the correlation of leadership and school voting with restrictiveness was accounted for in the variable education. While this conclusion could be drawn by observing the intercorrelations in table XII, the stepwise program produces this result by statistical computation, hence the confidence of the observer in his conclusions is increased.

Appraisal of predictive variable weights

In order to see what order the remaining variables would make their entry into the equation, the writer changed the level of significance for entry and removal of variables to 20 per cent. Tables XIX, XX, XXI, and XII show the results of this procedure. It can be seen that gains in the amount of variance accounted for in the restrictive score were very small. More importantly, by increasing the level of entry and removal from 5 per cent to 20 per cent the chance of error in entering and removing of variables was changed from 1 chance in 20 to 1 in 5. It is interesting to note that even when the significance level was lowered to 20 per cent, the variable school voting could not make a contribution to the prediction large enough to gain entry into the equation.

TABLE XIX

STEPWISE REGRESSION - STEP 4[1]

Variable Entering		Leadership
F - Level		2.9395
Standard Error of Y		6.367
Coefficient of Determination		.3076
Multiple Correlation Coefficient		.5546
Constant Term		19.1850
Coefficient of the Variable	Occupational Class	1.6698
	Formal Education	-.8974
	Religious Polity	1.6945
	Leadership	-2.2682

TABLE XX

STEPWISE REGRESSION - STEP 5

Variable Entering		Children in School
F - Level		3.3594
Standard Error of Y		6.301
Coefficient of Determination		32.7927
Multiple Correlation Coefficient		.5726
Constant Term		21.5560
Coefficient of the Variable	Occupational Class	1.7158
	Formal Education	-.8969
	Religious Polity	1.6708
	Leadership	-2.4968
	Children in School	-.9048

[1]Using 20 per cent level of significance.

TABLE XXI

STEPWISE REGRESSION - STEP 6

Variable Entering		Sex
F - Level		2.2507
Standard Error of Y		6.265
Coefficient of Determination		.3414
Multiple Correlation Coefficient		.5843
Constant Term		19.4803
Coefficient of the Variable		
	Occupational Class	1.6697
	Formal Education	-.9627
	Religious Polity	1.7795
	Sex	1.8116
	Leadership	-2.7832
	Children in School	-.8532

TABLE XXII

STEPWISE REGRESSION - STEP 7

Variable Entering		Age
F - Level		1.3707
Standard Error of Y		6.255
Coefficient of Determination		.3496
Multiple Correlation Coefficient		.5913
Constant Term		15.6423
Coefficient of the Variable		
	Occupational Class	1.6914
	Formal Education	.9428
	Religious Polity	1.6670
	Sex	2.0129
	Age	.0920
	Leadership	-2.8474
	Children in School	-.8742

Resulting relationships

Figures 3 - 6 give a graphic interpretation of the prediction equation generated by the stepwise regression procedure. These graphs demonstrate the effect on the restrictive score when occupational class was treated as a constant while religious polity and education were allowed to vary. For each change from congregational towards hierarchical religious polity there was a corresponding

increase in the restrictive score. Figure 3 illustrates the changes predicted for upper middle class occupations, figure 4 for lower middle class, figure 5 for upper working class, and figure 6 for lower working class.

The graphs presented in figures 3 - 7 were constructed in the manner described below. Two points, 5 and 15 years, were selected on the educational scale. Using the regression equation generated, the predicted score was calculated for respondents who occupy a given classification on the occupation scale, possess a particular religious polity, and have completed 5 and 15 years of education respectively. For example, in figure 3 the restrictiveness predicted for a respondent attending a congregational type church and holding an upper middle occupation with 5 years of formal education was 17.65 and for 15 years of education 7.70. A line was then drawn connecting the two points established by the calculation described above and extended to the limits of the graph. All other lines plotted on the graphs in figures 3 - 7 were constructed by following a similar procedure.

The graph presented in figure 7 is a synthesis of the relationships illustrated in figures 3-6. It should be pointed out that the coefficients for occupational class and religious polity are practically identical -- 1.79 and 1.78 respectively.[1] For purposes of illustration they

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[1] See table XVIII.

FIGURE 3 - RESTRICTIVE PATTERN FOR UPPER MIDDLE CLASS OCCUPATIONS WITH VARIATIONS IN FORMAL EDUCATION AND RELIGIOUS POLITY

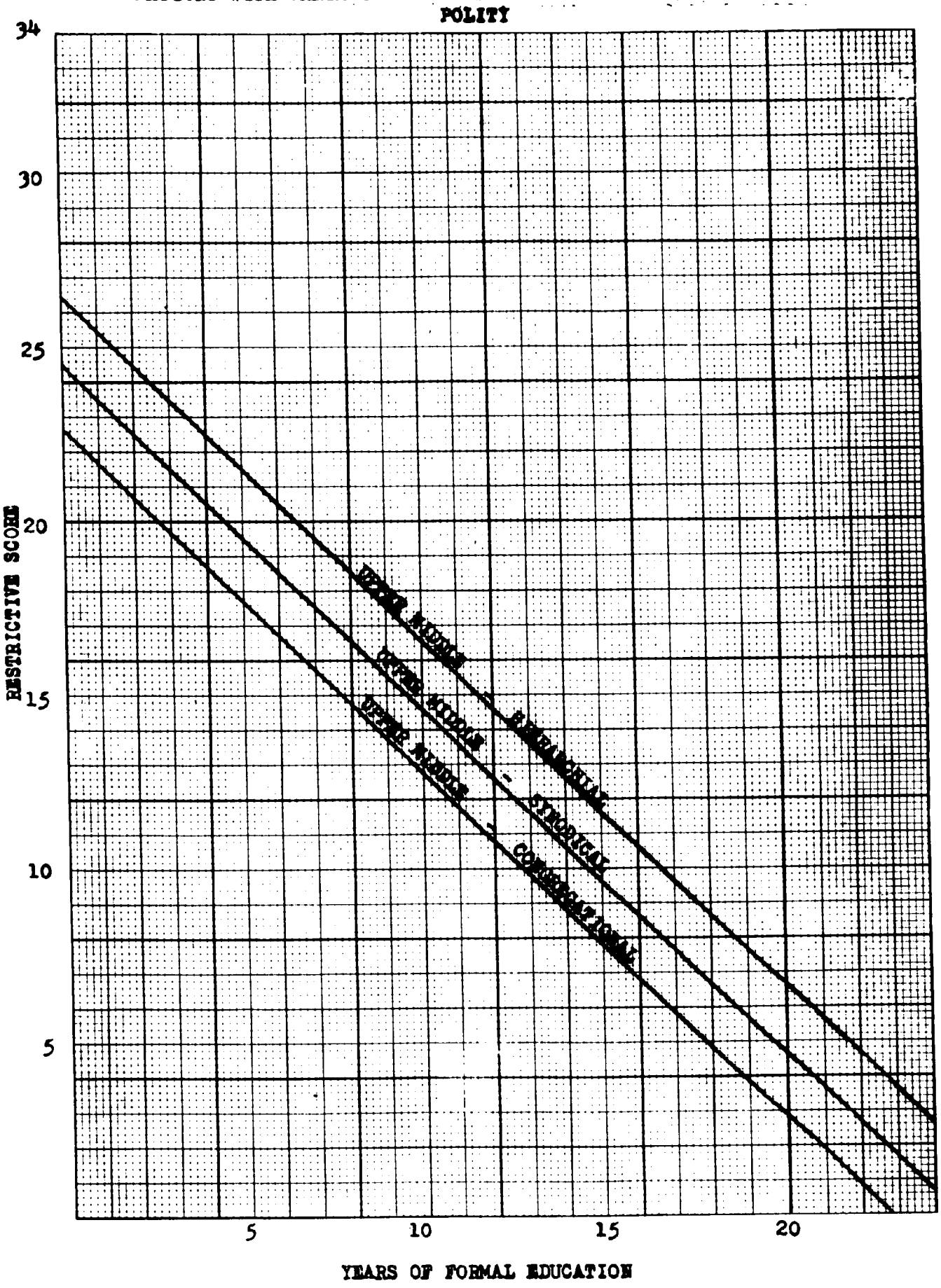


FIGURE 4 - RESTRICTIVE PATTERN FOR LOWER MIDDLE CLASS OCCUPATIONS WITH VARIATIONS IN FORMAL EDUCATION AND RELIGIOUS POLITY

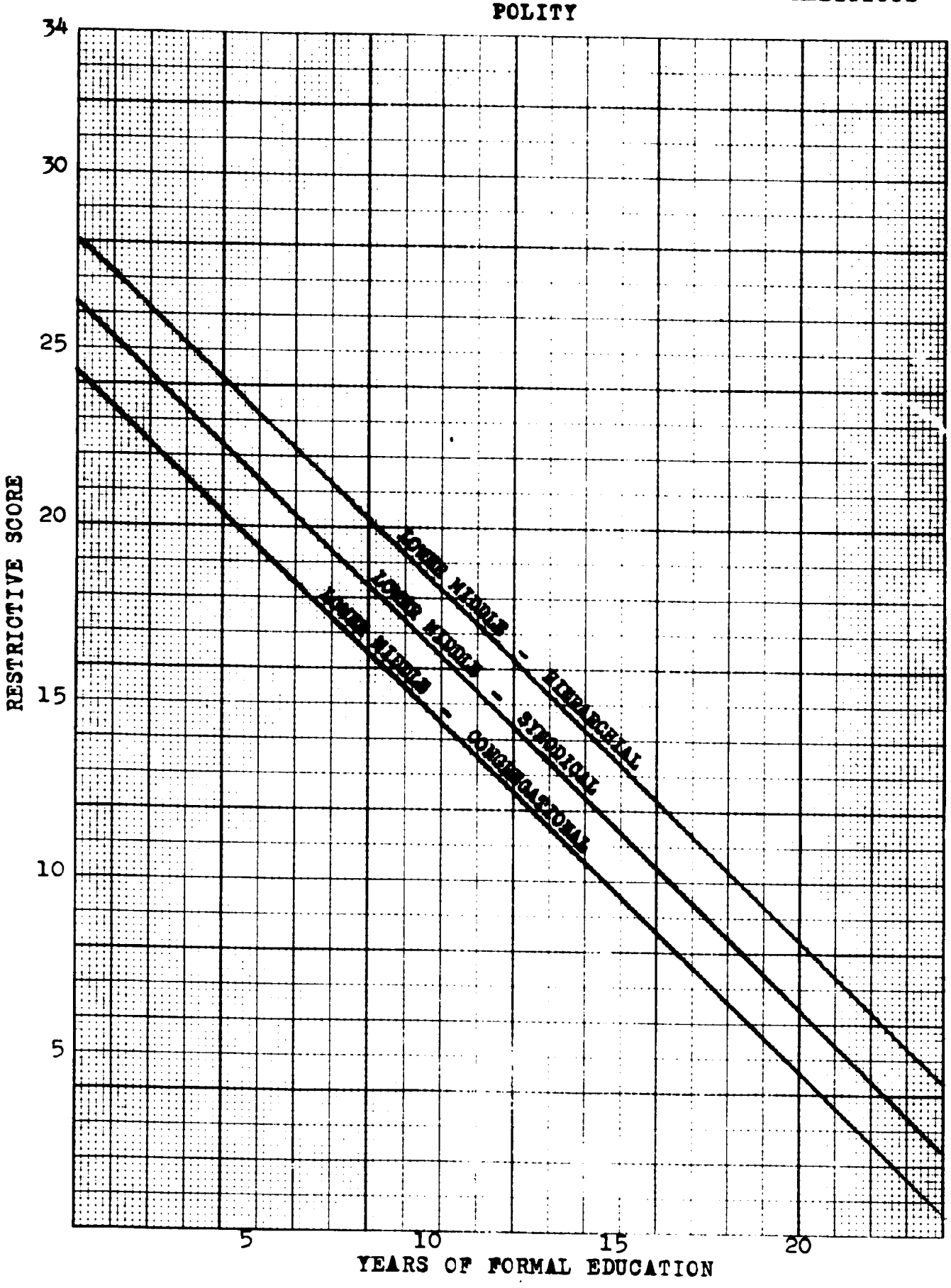


FIGURE 5 - RESTRICTIVE PATTERN FOR UPPER WORKING CLASS OCCUPATIONS WITH VARIATIONS IN FORMAL EDUCATION AND RELIGIOUS POLITY

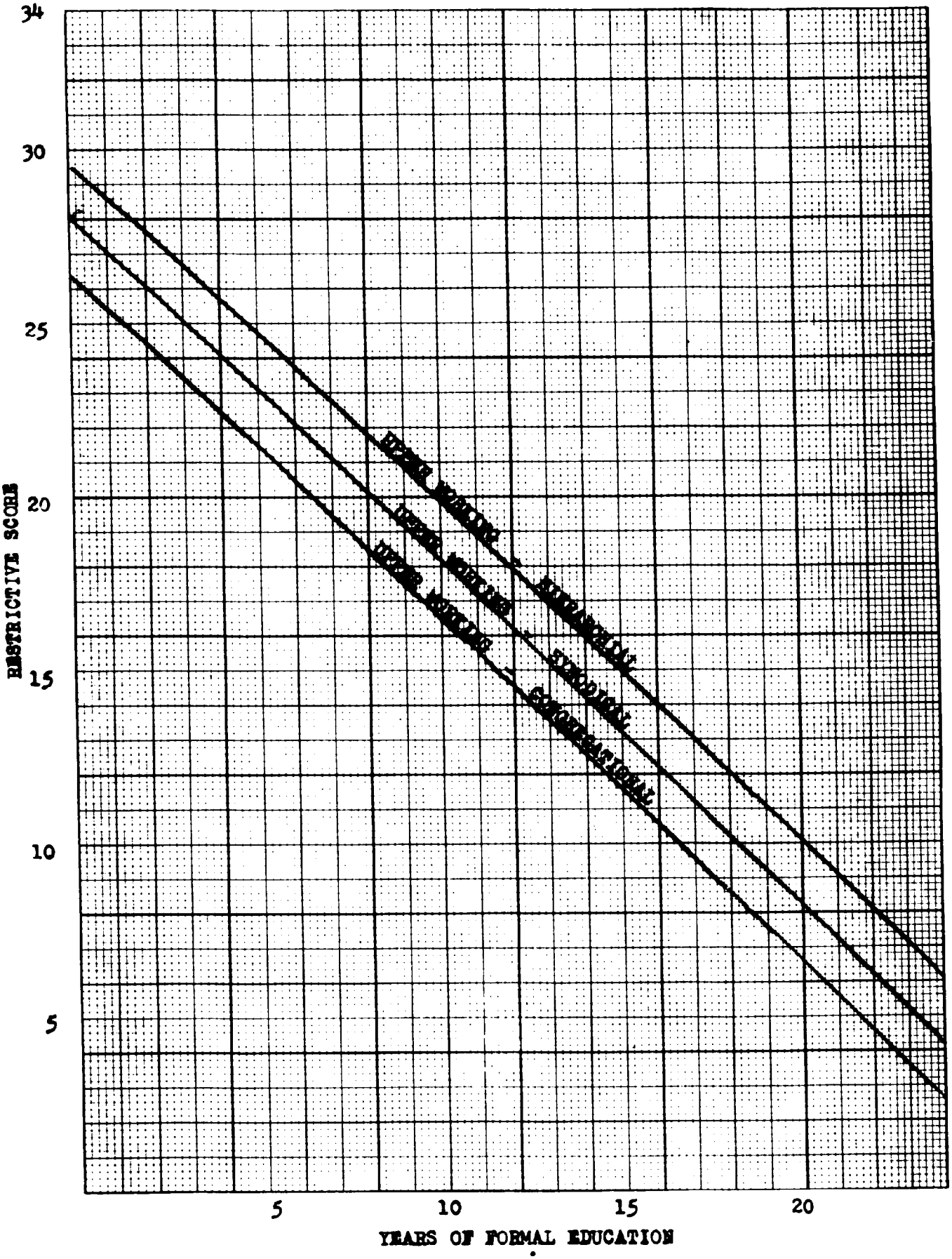


FIGURE 6 - RESTRICTIVE PATTERN FOR LOWER WORKING CLASS OCCUPATIONS WITH VARIATIONS IN FORMAL EDUCATION AND RELIGIOUS POLITY

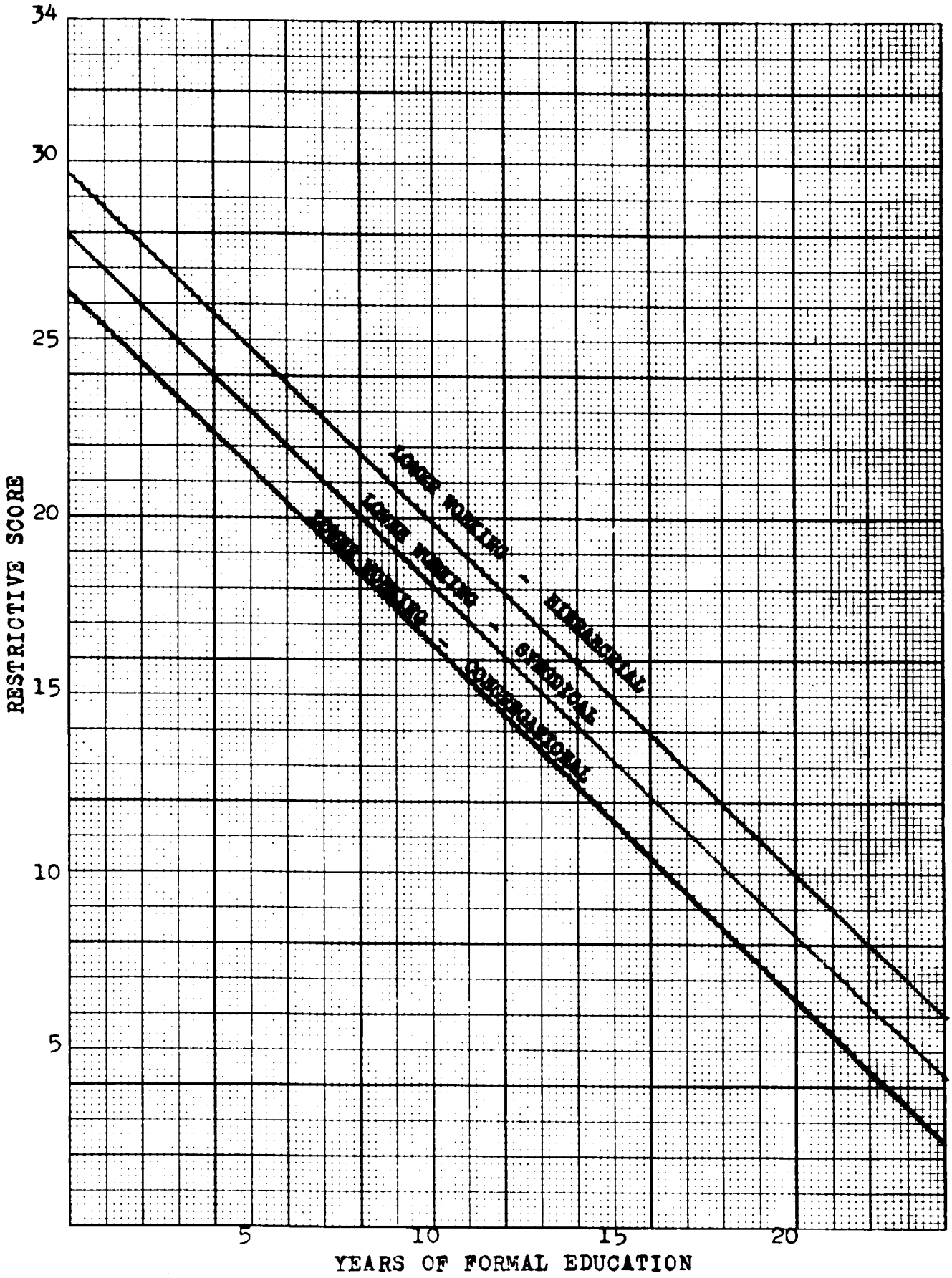
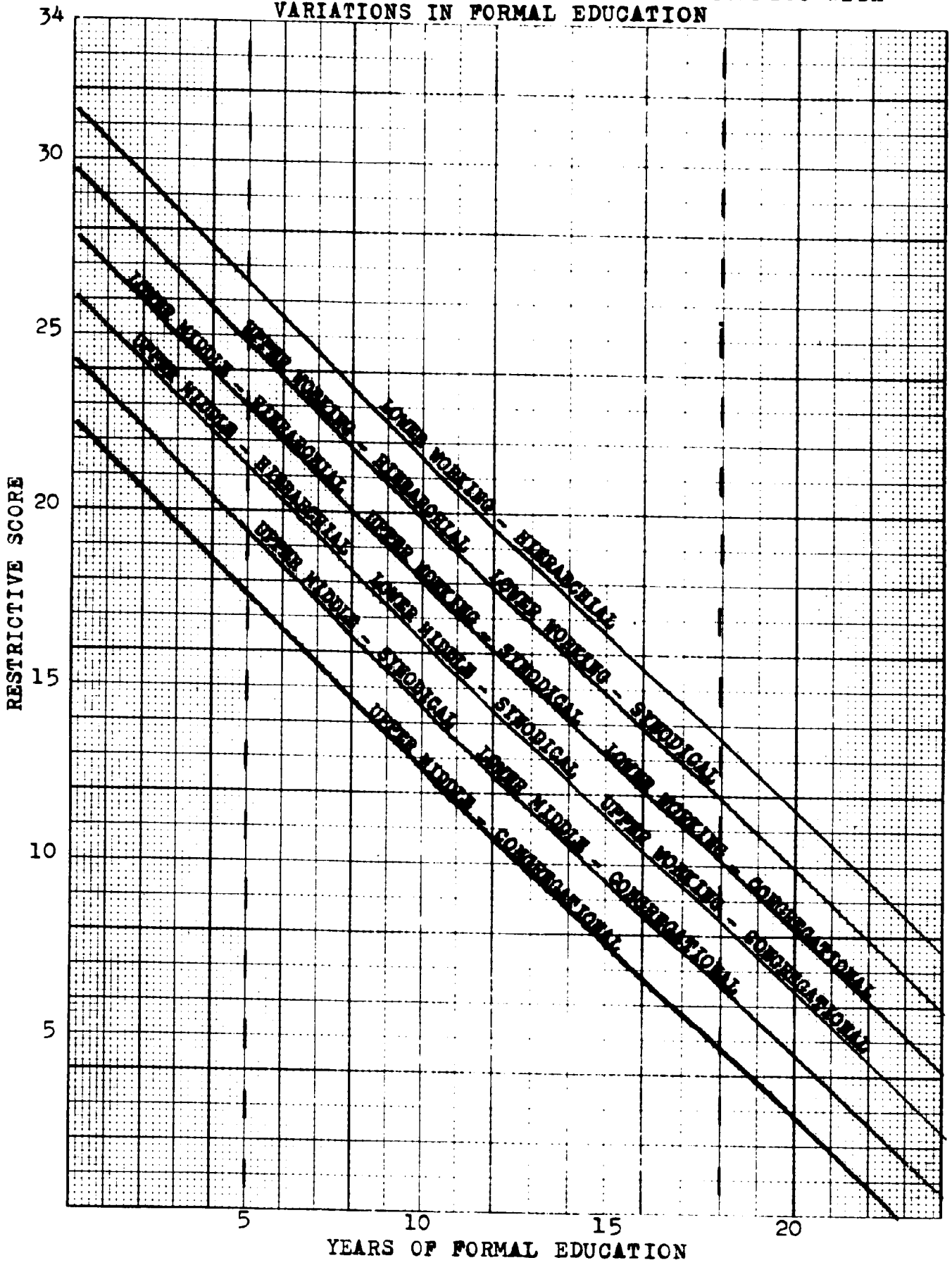


FIGURE 7 - PATTERN OF INTERRELATIONSHIPS OF OCCUPATIONAL CLASSES AND RELIGIOUS POLITIES TO RESTRICTIVENESS WITH VARIATIONS IN FORMAL EDUCATION



have been treated as equivalents in the construction of figure 7. The illustration in figure 7 reveals the effect on the restrictive score of parents who are characterized by various combinations of occupational class and religious polity. The lowest restrictive score would be predicted for parents who hold an upper middle class occupation and attend a congregational type church. Conversely, the highest restrictive score would be predicted for those parents of a lower working class occupation and a hierarchical church. Those holding occupations with an upper middle class designation and attending synodical type churches would be expected to make the same restrictive scores as parents holding lower middle class occupations and attending congregational type churches. The next most restrictive groups would be upper middle class occupation and hierarchical church, lower middle class occupation and synodical church, and upper working class occupation and congregational church. Those holding occupations in the upper working class and attending hierarchical type churches would be expected to make restrictive scores equivalent to those of lower working class occupations and synodical churches.

From figure 7 the linearity of the model generated gives the impression that given a sufficient amount of formal education a parent would exhibit a restrictive score of 0. Obviously this is a distorted picture, and not

a description of reality. This distorted picture is tempered somewhat if one examines the range of formal education which was obtained from the sample studied. These limits are illustrated by vertical dotted lines. It can be seen that within the imposed limits of formal education the highest restrictive score that would be predicted from this model is 25 + , whereas the lowest score would be 5 +. The actual range of restrictive scores obtained in this study was 4 - 34. The observations described above tend to indicate that the relationship between restrictiveness and demographic variables occupational class, formal education, and religious polity is not truly a linear one. In all probability the relationship would better be described as a curvilinear one. It should be pointed out, however, that the linear analysis does not lead to a significant error in that part of the scatter diagram in which the majority of the cases occur. In other words, the curvilinear aspect of the relationship would tend to be a significant factor only in the extremes.

Validity of Instrument

The validation of instruments used in survey type research often presents serious problems. By definition validity means the instrument measures what it purports to measure. The accepted standard for validating an instrument of the type used in this study is through comparison

with an outside criterion.[1] Unfortunately, the writer has been unable to locate a measure of restrictiveness with which the present instrument might be compared.

However, the absence of an outside criterion does not preclude the employment of some techniques for the establishment of a degree of validity. The reader will recall that the procedures described in Chapter II for the selection of items to be included in the instrument were designed to improve the quality of the questionnaire. A review of these procedures is given below.

First, an instrument developed for a very large study at Harvard University was selected as a model, with as many items taken directly from this instrument as were deemed appropriate for the present study. Secondly, additional examples of principal behavior were gathered from parents, superintendents, and school board members. Finally, these statements were submitted to a jury and pretested in the pilot study conducted by the author. These procedures contributed to the establishment of "face validity" of the instrument.

An additional check on the validity of the instrument was made by a statistical procedure known as cross validation. The entire sample of 117 cases was broken into

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[1] A. Angus Campbell and George Katona, "Validity," in Leon Festinger and Daniel Katz, (Editors), Research Methods In The Behavioral Sciences (New York: The Dryden Press, 1953), p. 46.

two random sets. A predictive equation was computed for each set and then verified by applying the equation thus generated to the opposite set. This procedure provided information as to whether suitable models existed for the prediction of restrictive scores of parents when the value of the relevant demographic variables was known.

TABLE XXIII

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF VERIFICATION PROGRAM USING EQUATION 1

	Mean	Standard Deviation
Observed	15.246	7.57647
Predicted	16.669	3.89754

The observed and predicted means and standard deviations given in table XXIII were obtained when the prediction equation generated from data set 1 was applied to data set 2. It can be seen that the difference between the means is small -- 1.423. Using the t test for measuring the significance of the difference between two group means the value of t was found to be 1.0721. Assuming the hypothesis that the difference between the two means to be zero and using the 5 per cent level of significance, it was found that a t of 1.0721 would occur by chance infrequently enough to deny the rejection of the advanced hypothesis. Hence, the difference between the observed

and predicted means can be attributed to the effect of random sampling.

TABLE XXIV

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF VERIFICATION PROGRAM USING EQUATION 2

	Mean	Standard Deviation
Observed	16.217	7.49
Predicted	15.915	5.88

Table XXIV records the observed and predicted means and standard deviations obtained when prediction equation 2 was applied to data set 1. The difference between the means is very small -- .698. Again, using the t test for measuring the significance of the difference between the two group means, the t was found to be .2394. Assuming the hypothesis that the difference between the means to be zero and using the 5 per cent level of significance, it was found that a t of .2394 would occur by chance infrequently enough to deny the rejection of the advanced hypothesis. Therefore, as with equation 1, the differences between the means is too small to be considered true and the difference may be attributed to errors of sampling.

The results obtained from the cross validation procedure establish that the instrument has predictive

validity. It has been established that suitable models do exist for predicting the restrictive scores, however, the models are not unique.

Reliability of Instrument

Several procedures have been developed for testing the reliability of survey instruments. If the instrument is composed of a large number of items, an economical approach to the problem of reliability can be made by use of the split-half technique. The usual procedure in the use of this technique is to give the respondents one score on all of the even-numbered items and another score on all of the odd-numbered items. The two halves of the instrument are then correlated to obtain a measure of its reliability. The equivalent-form technique involves the construction of two forms of the same instrument which are very much alike. The reliability is established by computing a correlation coefficient for the scores obtained on the two forms. This technique is more common to the field of aptitude and achievement testing than survey research. The retest method requires that the same instrument be administered to the same respondents on two different occasions. Again, the reliability is tested by means of a correlation coefficient.

All of the techniques discussed above have advantages and disadvantages. None are infallible for testing reliability. The selection of a particular method is

largely determined by the circumstances surrounding the research study. Considering the resources and time element, the writer chose the retest method as the means by which the reliability of the instrument used in this study would be tested. Parten points out that the retest approach can be successfully employed in survey research if too much time does not lapse between interviews.[1] Evaluating the technique further Parten says that, ". . . although reversals do take place on the resurvey, these shifts tend to balance each other and leave a relatively stable average. . . ."[2]

To initiate the reliability procedure a random sample of 20 respondents was selected from the total sample interviewed. These respondents were contacted and asked to cooperate in a second interview. All respondents selected in the retest sample agreed to be interviewed again. The procedure followed in the retest interviews was the same as used in the original interviews. The range of time between the original and retest interviews was from one to three weeks.

The standard statistical treatment of data obtained in a test-retest approach to reliability involves the calculation of a correlation coefficient. For the

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[1] Mildred Parten, Surveys, Polls, and Samples: Practical Procedures (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950), p. 498.

[2] Ibid.

reasons given below, this procedure was not employed in this study. It will be recalled that in the cross validation procedure two equations were generated. This provided a standard by which the test and retest data could be compared. Furthermore, the utilization of knowledge obtained in the previous analysis meant that a new program did not have to be selected for the computer. Thus, a savings in time and effort was accomplished.

The analysis of the reliability data was accomplished by applying equation number 1, generated in the cross validation procedure, to both the test and retest scores separately. The difference between the obtained means was then examined. Thus, the instrument would be considered reliable if the null hypothesis could not be rejected at the 5 per cent confidence level.

TABLE XXV

RESULTS OF TEST OF INSTRUMENT RELIABILITY

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Value of t
Test	16.0	5.70318	.55
Retest	15.3	5.56398	

A summary of the findings related to the test of reliability are presented in table XXV. It can be seen that the difference between the means is very small.

A t test was applied to this difference and resulted in a t of .55. For 38 degrees of freedom a t as large as 2.02 would be required to meet the 5 per cent level of confidence. Therefore, it appears that the null hypothesis, that there is no true difference in the means, has been substantiated, and the reliability of the instrument has been established.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter is divided into three sections: (1) Summary, (2) Conclusions, and (3) Implications. In the first section a brief statement is given concerning the purpose of the study, the theoretical framework, the methodology, and the findings. The second section states the writer's conclusions based on the findings of the study. The final section will consider the implications of the study for practicing school administrators and for further research.

Summary

Purposes of the study

The purpose of this study was to determine the role of the elementary principal as perceived by the parents of elementary school children attending the Lincoln Consolidated Elementary School, Ypsilanti, Michigan. Specifically, the study was designed to attain three objectives: (1) to determine the relationship of selected demographic variables to the way parents perceive the role of the elementary principal; (2) to discover which subset of the demographic variables would yield the best

possible prediction as to the way parents perceive the principal's role; and (3) demonstrate a method which can be used by professionally trained personnel for arriving at parental opinion.

Theoretical framework

The theoretical framework of this study was based on the role concept and a number of hypothetical statements concerning the relationship of selected demographic variables to the way parents perceive the role of the elementary principal.

For the purposes of this study, role was defined as a set of expectations held by a collect of individuals (parents) occupying positions in a system of social relationships which are counter to the focal position (elementary principal). Expectations were defined as evaluative standards which are applied to the incumbent of the focal position. This definition refers to what the occupant of the focal position should do, not his actual behavior. Expectations were classified, in accordance with the obtained responses, as either mandatory or permissive prescriptions for behavior. Mandatory responses were treated as "restrictive," whereas permissive responses were evaluated as being "non-restrictive" in nature.

Listed below are the hypotheses advanced for this study. For a description of the rationale for each hypothesis see Chapter III.

HYPOTHESIS I. Parents who hold occupations of low rank on the occupational classification scale will tend to define the role of the elementary principal in restrictive terms.

HYPOTHESIS II. Parents who rank high on the number of years of formal education completed will tend to define the role of the elementary principal in less restrictive terms.

HYPOTHESIS III: Parents who attend churches that are organized on a hierarchical or synodical political structure will tend to define the role of the elementary principal in restrictive terms.

HYPOTHESIS IV: Parents of the female sex will tend to define the role of the elementary principal in restrictive terms.

HYPOTHESIS V: As the age of the parent increases, the tendency to define the role of the principal in restrictive terms will also increase.

HYPOTHESIS VI: As the residence of the parent increases in distance from the school, the tendency to define the role of the elementary principal in restrictive terms will increase.

HYPOTHESIS VII: As the number of contacts between the parent and the school increase, the tendency to define the role of the elementary principal in restrictive terms will decrease.

HYPOTHESIS VIII: Parents who vote in school elections will tend to define the role of the elementary principal in less restrictive terms.

HYPOTHESIS IX: Parents who hold positions of leadership in formal organizations will tend to define the role of the elementary principal in less restrictive terms.

HYPOTHESIS X: As the number of school-age children in a family increase, the tendency of the parent to define the role of the elementary principal in restrictive terms will decrease.

Methodology

The data-collection instrument used in this study was a closed-type questionnaire developed by the writer. The instrument was modeled after one used in the study of the school superintendency which was conducted at Harvard University.[1] Some items were taken from the Harvard instrument and modified to fit the purposes of this study. Other items were obtained through a survey of several parents, teachers, superintendents, and school board members. A tentative form of the instrument was drawn up and submitted to a panel of judges in order to determine whether the statements were representative of the type of behavior in which a principal might engage while performing the functions of his position. The instrument was submitted to further testing through the medium of a pilot study.

A probability sample of parents of elementary students was selected and interviewed by the writer. Completed interviews were coded and punched into IBM cards. All data were processed at the University of Michigan Computing Center.

The statistical technique used to analyze data for this study was stepwise regression. This is a relatively new program developed for the 704 computer. The

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[1] Neal Gross, Ward S. Mason, and Alexander W. McEachern, Explorations In Role Analysis: Studies of the School Superintendency Role (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1958).

ultimate objective of the program is to relate the x-variables to the Y variable by means of a linear expression such as

$$Y = b_0 + b_1x_1 + b_2x_2 + \ldots + b_p x_p.$$

Findings

The analysis of data collected in the study produced findings that indicated five of the ten demographic variables selected for examination were significantly correlated with the dependent variable restrictiveness.

TABLE XXVI

SUMMARY OF CORRELATIONS OF DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES WITH RESTRICTIVENESS

Variable	Coefficient of Correlation	Significant
Occupational Class	.40	yes
Formal Education	-.44	yes
Religious Polity	.23	yes
Sex	-.0009	no
Age	.117	no
Distance From School	.007	no
Contact With School	-.124	no
School Voting	-.225	yes
Leadership	-.29	yes
Children in School	-.098	no

An examination of table XXVI indicates that the variables found to be significantly related to restrictiveness are: occupational class, formal education, religious polity, school voting, and leadership. Variables with correlations too small to be considered significant include: sex, age, distance from school, contact with school, and children in school. Said differently, these findings signify that parents with certain characteristics of the significantly correlated variables are more likely to perceive the principal's role in restrictive terms than those who possess different characteristics of the same variables. If, however, the researcher expects to be able to weigh the relative importance of the significant variables in order to predict the probable perception of any parent concerning the role of the principal, he will need more information than is given in the simple correlations of restrictiveness to the various significant demographic variables. He will need to know the nature of the relationship existing between the significant variables and what linear combination of these variables gives the best prediction of the restrictive score.

An examination of the information illustrated in table XXVII indicates that significant intercorrelations were found to exist between occupational class and education, occupational class and leadership, education and leadership, and leadership and school voting. If two

TABLE XXVII

SIGNIFICANT INTERCORRELATIONS OF SIGNIFICANT INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

Variables	Coefficient of Intercorrelation
Occupational Class vs. Education	-.39
Occupational Class vs. Leadership	-.22
Education vs. School Voting	.21
Education vs. Leadership	.28
Leadership vs. School Voting	.35

variables are significantly correlated with each other, it is possible that they both are measures of much the same thing, and the inclusion of both, instead of either one or the other, may contribute little to the prediction achieved. Thus, the development of a method intended to predict the restrictive scores of parents from data concerning the significant variables must account for these existing intercorrelations.

The statistical technique selected for this study -- stepwise regression -- yielded the following equation which will predict the restrictive score of parents when their characteristics are known concerning occupational class, education and religious polity:

Restrictive Score = constant term (19.09) + occupational class (1.79) + education (-.99) + religious polity (1.78).

Stated in equation form:

$$Y = 19.08K + 1.79X_1 - .99X_2 + 1.78X_3 \pm 6.42^1$$

(68 per cent of the cases)

or:

$$Y = 19.08K + 1.79X_1 - .99X_2 + 1.78X_3 \pm 12.84$$

(95 per cent of the cases)

This equation was built up variable by variable in order of their relative importance with education first, occupational class second, and religious polity last. Checks were made continually regarding the continued importance of terms in the equation and only those terms were inserted into the equation that met the specified significance level of 5 per cent.

Conclusions

The writer believes that the results of the study support the following conclusions:

1. That the methods employed to obtain information concerning the perceptions parents hold for the role of the elementary principal are both valid and practical.
2. That there is a significant relationship between the perceptions parents hold for the role of the elementary principal in terms of restrictiveness and permissiveness and:
   A. The occupation of the parent.

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[1] Standard error of Y.

B. The years of formal education completed by the parent.

C. The religious polity of the parent.

D. The participation of the parent in school elections by voting.

E. The holding of leadership positions in formal organizations by the parent.

3. That the perceptions parents hold for the role of the elementary principal can be predicted if the following variables are known:

A. The occupation of the parent.

B. The years of formal education completed by the parent.

C. The religious polity of the parent.

Implications

Few studies in the social sciences offer conclusive proofs or crucial experiments. Generally the social scientist must be content with the development of a theory based on the gradual accumulation of the evidence. The difficulties encountered in the classification of a multitude of significant variables only serve to point out the caution that must be exercised when applying the results of one study to another or generalizing about the findings from one community to the general population. Gross, in his comments about the role of sociology in the field of

education, calls attention to this problem.

> The sociologist cannot make the educational practitioner's decisions for him, nor can the sociologist's research findings based on one population be applied to any educational population indiscriminately.[1]

The preceding paragraph is a prologue to the fact that the results of this study are of modest proportions. The real verification of the results must await further testing. The writer has previously pointed out that his conclusions drawn from the findings of this study are limited to the population contained in the geographic area encompassed by the Lincoln Consolidated School District. However, since people everywhere possess many similarities and some evidence is available to show that persons from different kinds of communities have about the same variations in their opinions regarding the public school,[2] it is possible that the findings of this study may have significance beyond the boundaries of the Lincoln Consolidated School District.

For administration

The educational administrator is vitally concerned with the opinions of citizens about the public school. An

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[1] Neal Gross, "Some Contributions of Sociology to the Field of Education," Harvard Educational Review, XXIX (Fall, 1959), 275-87.

[2] Otis Crosby and Phillip Proud, "What Citizens Really Think About Schools," Nations Schools, XXXI (November, 1953), 61-63.

important segment of this opinion concerns the expectations parents hold for the role of the building administrator. The principal's responsibility is not necessarily to subordinate his own professional judgment to that of laymen or to abdicate his leadership role to some majority consensus. However, if he is to function effectively he must have some means of appraising the public's perceptions, some means to determine cohesiveness, and identify areas of conflict regarding his role. This implies that not only must his own goals regarding his role be clearly defined, but that he must be able to identify the commonalities and the differences between his goals and those held by various segments of the community. The instrument designed for this study has direct implications for the practitioner as a device for measuring parental perceptions of the principal's role.

The public schools are an important part of the total cultural scene. The same conflicts and uncertainties experienced by the rest of society are reflected in the problems and uncertainties of the schools. A single comprehensive assessment of present-day American society is yet to be compiled. However, if such were available, it seems safe to predict that it would reveal a substantial amount of disagreement concerning the goals to be attained, the values to be upheld, the roles to be enacted, and the procedures to be followed. School administrators, like

occupants of other leadership positions in society, cannot effectively enact their roles in a vacuum. They must understand that "the voice of the people is really many voices -- coming from many publics, expecting many different kinds of behavior from a principal. . . ."[1] They must seek to bring increasing order and predictability into their sphere of operation. The findings of this study, properly utilized, could serve as a starting point. Information concerning the three variables which made a significant contribution toward the prediction of a parent's perception of the principal's role -- occupation, education, and religious polity -- is readily available in the cumulative records of each student.

If it is agreed that the school administrator has a responsibility for strong leadership, that he should promote opportunities for parents to gain insight into educational problems and procedures, and help them arrive at a more sophisticated viewpoint of the administrator's role, then what procedures will bring about a maximal change in perception -- or any change? The implications of this study clearly cite the need for new and effective ways to involve parents. Two variables -- number of children in school and number of contacts with the school -- which should have produced understandings of the administrative role were

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[1] E. C. Merrill, Jr., "Obtaining Administrative Competency," School Executive, LXXIV (October, 1954), 79-80.

tested in this study. The results indicated that the amount of contact between parents and school had no appreciable effect on the expectations parents held for the principal's role. These findings indicate that while parent-teacher conferences, lay advisory committees, P.T.A.'s, etc., may serve a desirable communications and public relations function, they do not, in and of themselves, necessarily bring about an understanding of the administrative role. Administrators must provide experiences for the layman which will help him gain insight into the nature of the principal's role if the principal is to be accorded the degree of autonomy needed to function as an effective educational leader.

For further research

Several opportunities exist for further research on the subject of parental perceptions of the principal's role. Since the present study was limited to one community, any replication of the study on a larger scale would add materially to the ability to generalize on the conclusions of this study. Any large scale study should include a variety of types of school communities.

Though the secondary and elementary principal positions have much in common, it is generally recognized that each possesses some unique role functions. A study which examined the perceptions of parents of both positions would be valuable to the practitioner as well as those

responsible for training personnel for these positions.

An important variable, not examined in this study, concerns the effect of the principal's mode of role enactment upon the amount of autonomy parents are willing to grant the occupant of the position. Research designed to investigate this problem could provide an evaluation of the present occupant's degree of success in the area of community relations.

The present study was an attempt to measure the tendency of parents to view the total role of the principal in "restrictive" or "non-restrictive" terms. A fruitful study could be conducted in which the principal's role was broken into several segments and analyzed to see if more autonomy might be granted on some segments than others.

Finally, a before and after type study should be made. This could be accomplished with the present instrument by locating the segment of the community willing to grant the least amount of autonomy to the principal. This should be followed with a deliberate program to change the expectations of this segment of the community concerning the role of the principal. The last stage of the study would include a second administration of the instrument. If the program to bring about change in perceptions was successful, it would make a vital contribution to all of the professions engaged in public service work.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

EXPECTATIONS FOR PRINCIPAL'S PERFORMANCE

SECTION I

Parent's Question: "As a citizen, what obligation do you feel the elementary principal has to do or not to do the following things?"

SCALE: 1._____Absolutely must
2._____Preferably should
3._____May or may not
4._____Preferably should not
5._____Absolutely must not

_____1. Provide a training program to increase the knowledge and skill of each teacher.

_____2. Defend his teachers if they are attacked for using current controversial and political problems as a part of the instructional program.

_____3. Personally handle all serious student discipline cases.

_____4. Support a teacher against unjust criticism.

_____5. See that the teachers have a part in developing policies which affect their working conditions.

_____6. Keep a watchful eye on the personal life of his teachers.

_____7. Make recommendations concerning teachers only on the basis of how well they have performed their job.

_____8. Check the teachers to be sure they are teaching what has been approved by the board of education.

_____9. Insist that the teachers take part in the parent-teacher organization's programs.

_____10. Make changes in what is to be taught without asking the advice of the teachers.

_____11. Encourage his teachers to continue their education by taking college courses.

_____12. Accept full responsibility for the actions of his teachers.

_____13. Encourage teachers to use materials, people, and problems from the community in their teaching.

_____14. Encourage members of the community to be active in school affairs.

_____15. Talk with the parents of children before administering punishment in a discipline situation.

_____16. Encourage teachers to experiment with a variety of different teaching methods.

_____17. Keep his office open to all community members.

_____18. Attempt to settle disagreements between members of the community which arise over the behavior of their children if the situation is school-connected.

_____19. Make certain that the community knows and understands all school regulations and rules.

_____20. Refuse to take sides on any issue on which the community is divided.

_____21. Help school board candidates campaign for election.

_____22. Encourage the use of parent committees to study school problems in cooperation with the professional staff.

_____23. Avoid becoming involved with pressure groups in the community.

_____24. Pay special attention to suggestions of influential citizens.

_____25. Make the building readily available to community groups.

_____26. Accept requests to serve as a leader or committee member of community organizations.

_____27. Personally escort sick children home.

_____28. See that leadership positions in the parent-teacher organization are filled with parents known to be "cooperative" with him.

_____29. Listen sympathetically to personal problems of parents even though they are not connected with the school.

_____30. Be willing to contact other governmental agencies to help secure services needed by the community.

_____31. Keep the superintendent and board of education informed concerning the needs of his school for teaching materials and equipment.

_____32. Carry out decisions of superiors even though he considers them to be unsound.

_____33. Assist the community in presenting its "problems" to the board of education.

_____34. Invite the superintendent and board members to attend and participate in affairs which involve the school and community.

_____35. Read educational books and magazines.

_____36. Continue his education for an advanced degree.

_____37. Attend professional meetings.

_____38. Cooperate with researchers who are attempting to advance knowledge in his field.

SECTION II

1. What is your (his) occupation? (describe in detail)

   _____

   _____

   _____

2. What was the last grade of school you completed? If college, how much and was a degree earned? _____

   _____

3. Do you have a church preference? _____ 1. Protestant___

   2. Catholic_____ 3. Jewish_____ 4. Other_____

   5. None_____

   (If Protestant) What denomination? _____

   (If Jewish) What group? 1. Orthodox_____

   2. Reformed_____ 3. Conservative_____

4. Sex_____

5. Age_____

6. Distance from school_____

7. How many times within the last year have you been to school?_____

   How many times was your visit to talk to someone about your child? _____

8. Did you vote in the school election of June, 1959? And the one in June, 1960? _____

9. How many clubs, organizations, or other groups which meet regularly do you belong to?_____

Do you now or have you within the last two years held an office in any of these organizations?_____

What was the title of this office?_____

10. How many school-age children are there in your family?_____

APPENDIX B

RESEARCH PROJECT LETTER

212 Charlotte
Royal Oak, Michigan

Dear

I am conducting a research project studying some of the current problems in public education. The results of this study will be of considerable value to all those connected with public education.

I am interested in talking with you about your opinions concerning these problems. In the near future someone will contact you asking for an appointment to interview you. I believe you will find the interview experience to be enjoyable and worthwhile. All of your opinions will be completely confidential.

The project is being conducted with the approval of the Lincoln Consolidated Board of Education. It also has the approval of a committee of the University of Michigan faculty members chaired by Dr. Howard Bretsch, Professor of Education.

I am at present an elementary principal in Madison Heights, Michigan. I am conducting this study to fulfill the requirements for Doctor of Philosophy degree at the University of Michigan.

Sincerely,

Truman Owens

TO/rm