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Spatkowski, Theodore Joseph, Ed.D.

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 1988

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# A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR OF SELECTED NORTH CAROLINA HIGH SCHOOL ATHLETIC DIRECTORS

by

Theodore Joseph Spatkowski

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty at the Graduate School at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree Doctor of Education

> Greensboro 1988

Approved by DEC Marcely Dissertation

## APPROVAL PAGE

This dissertation has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of the Graduate School at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

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#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Special mention of my late grandmother, Vincente B. Logwin, who provided for me in my youth a perfect role model.

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The general problem was to compare secondary school athletic directors' descriptions of self-perceived leadership behavior with descriptions of that same behavior as perceived by the head boys' basketball coaches within and among the four school size classifications in North Carolina. In addition, the variables of athletic director's age, school size classification of the director, and the time spent performing the director's duties were examined to determine their influence on the perceptions the directors had of their leadership behavior.

The Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire--Form XII (LBDQ-XII) was used to collect primary data. Specifically, 12 leader behavior dimensions were assessed by the 183 athletic directors and 183 head coaches.

Significant differences existed in the athletic director's self-perceptions, based on the athletic director's age, in the dimensions tolerance of uncertainty and tolerance of freedom. Directors in the 51+ age group perceived themselves to be the most tolerant of uncertainty, while directors in the 31-40 age group perceived themselves as least tolerant. Directors in the 41-50 age subcategory perceived themselves as most tolerant of freedom, while directors in the 31-40 age group perceived themselves as least tolerant. Directors in the 41-50 age subcategory Significant differences existed in the athletic director's self-perceptions, based on school size classification, in one leadership dimension, tolerance of uncertainty. Directors at school size classification AAAA perceived themselves as most tolerant of uncertainty. Directors at AA schools perceived themselves to be the least tolerant of uncertainty and postponement.

No significant differences existed in the self-perceptions of the athletic directors' leadership behavior, based on the amount of time spent performing the director's duties. No significant differences existed between the mean scores of the athletic directors and the head coaches on the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII among the four school size classifications.

Significant differences existed between the mean scores of the athletic directors and the head coaches on nine dimensions. In eight of the nine dimensions, the directors perceived themselves as exhibiting the leadership behavior to a higher degree than did the head coaches. In one dimension, tolerance of uncertainty, head coaches at school size AA perceived their athletic directors as being able to tolerate uncertainty to a higher degree than did the directors themselves.

## DEDICATION

TO MY PARENTS

Mary T. Spatkowski

and the late

William J. Spatkowski

though taken from us early, his light still shines brightly

V

Never let success hide its emptiness from you, achievement its nothingness, toil its desolation. And so keep alive the incentive to push on further, that pain in the soul which drives us beyond ourselves.

Whither. That I don't know. That I don't ask to know.

Dag Hammarskjold --Markings, 1964

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## CHAPTER I

## THE PROBLEM AND ITS SIGNIFICANCE

## Introduction

No form of institution, educational, military, or industrial, has ever existed without leaders. No leader has ever existed without followers. Early theories of leadership have ignored this unique relationship, instead focusing on the notion that leaders were a product of their times, or on the assumption there are certain unique individual traits that make an individual a leader.

Studies to identify those traits tended to conceptualize a leader as having the innate capacity to behave in the same manner, despite the situation. Studies by Stogdill (1948) showed that the trait approach to leadership yielded negligible, and often contradictory, results. Sanford (1952) declared that there are no general leadership traits, "or if they do exist, they are not to be described in any ... common-sense terms" (1952, p.51). In short, as the situation changes, so does the leader's behavior.

Halpin in his book, <u>Theory and Research in</u> <u>Administration</u> (1966), aptly summarized the situation regarding the trait theory of leadership: We will greatly increase our understanding of leadership phenomena if we abandon the notion of leadership as a trait, and concentrate instead upon an analysis of "the behavior of leaders." (p. 81).

Halpin believed that behavior of the leader is conditioned by the policies and regulations, written and unwritten, of the specific organization in which the leader is employed. The leader's behavior is interwoven with the behavior of the followers. The behavior of both is determined by requirements imposed by the institution, of which both are a part.

More recent leadership studies have focused on describing a person's behavior while acting as the leader of the group or organization. Studies have centered attention on the leader-group relationship and how this relationship affects the meeting of individual and group needs.

Research conducted in educational settings has assisted in defining and advancing the theoretical aspects of educational administration. Within the educational field however, few studies have examined the leadership behavior of secondary school athletic directors in their capacity as administrators.

As the responsibilities of the secondary school athletic director have increased, so too have the needs for creative and decisive leadership. One way to add to the theoretical body of knowledge concerning athletic administration is to examine administrative leadership through a variety of

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systematic methods of investigation. The description of the athletic director's leadership behavior is one such way.

#### Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to compare secondary school athletic directors descriptions of self-perceived leader behavior with descriptions of the same athletic directors leadership behavior as perceived by their head boys basketball coaches. It was not the intent of this study to evaluate the effectiveness of the athletic directors, but rather, to compare the athletic directors perceived leadership behavior with that same behavior as perceived by their head boys basketball coaches.

In this study of comparison, the <u>Leader Behavior</u> <u>Description Questionnaire-Form XII</u> (<u>LBDQ-XII</u>) was used to measure twelve dimensions of the perceived leadership behavior of the athletic directors. The twelve dimensions were:

1. speak and act as representative of the group;

reconcile conflicting demands and reduce disorder to the system;

 are able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety and upset;

 use persuasion and argument effectively, and exhibit strong convictions; 5. clearly define their own role and let followers know what is expected of them;

 allow followers scope for initiative, decision and action;

7. actively exercise the leadership role rather than surrendering leadership to others;

 regard the comfort, well-being, status and contributions of followers;

9. apply pressure for productive output;

10. exhibit foresight and ability to predict outcomes accurately;

ll. maintain a close-knit organization and resolve
intermember conflict;

12. and maintain cordial relations with superiors, have influence over them, and strive for higher status.

From data collected, this study sought answers to the following questions:

- Is there a difference in the way athletic directors perceive their leadership behavior based upon the age of the athletic director?
- 2. Is there a difference in the way athletic directors perceive their leadership behavior based upon the school size classification?
- 3. Is there a difference in the way athletic directors perceive their leadership behavior based upon the amount of time they spend performing the athletic directors' duties?

- 4. Is there a difference in the way subordinate head boys' basketball coaches perceive athletic directors' leadership behavior, when compared to the athletic directors' self-perceptions of that same behavior, among the four school size classifications?
- 5. Is there a difference in the way subordinate head boys' basketball coaches perceive athletic directors' leadership behavior, when compared to the athletic directors' self-perceptions of that same behavior, within each of the four school size classifications?

#### Significance of the Study

The role of the secondary school athletic director has The athletic director, as administrator grown more complex. and group leader, must be aware of managerial problems and problems which may arise in human relations when dealing with the athletic coaching staff. To function effectively, the athletic director must be prepared to meet both group and individual goals (Zeigler, 1975). To help meet the demands of this complex profession, new academic courses and programs dealing specifically with sports administration and human relations are being offered in many colleges and No longer is it felt that coaching experience universities. alone is sufficient training for beginning athletic For these courses to meet the needs of emerging directors. sports administrators, it is critical that these offerings be based upon a body of sound empirical knowledge.

Zeigler (1975) contended that prior to 1965 an examination of the literature revealed almost nothing related to physical education/athletic administration theory. New administration courses which have proliferated in recent years could hardly be substantiated by a theoretical body of knowledge. Although considerable research in the administration area has been completed since 1965, Spaeth maintained that the motivation for research had been related "more to the solution of immediate or localized problems" (1967, p. 151) than toward establishing a body of knowledge that is rooted in research.

The study of leadership behavior is an important part of administration. Early research in leadership behavior usually dealt with military or business environments, and it is questionable if this knowledge can be applied directly to the field of athletic administration. Educational research of this nature has tended to focus on the behavior of school superintendents, principals, or college/university department chairs. No study could be found which examined the leadership behavior of secondary school athletic directors on the twelve dimensions of the LBDQ-XII.

Spaeth, after an exhaustive review of studies concerning the behavioral approach to administrative research, recommended that research be used

to study the administration of physical education and athletics (e.g. through the replication of studies involving leader behavior, organizational climates, and role expectations) in order to develop a more scientific basis for professional preparation and practice (1967, p. 153). 6

Spaeth further suggested that research using the behavioral approach include as potential subjects "the administrators and staff members of departments of physical education and athletics" (1967, p. 153).

Research has shown that leadership skills are an important ingredient in the success of an administrator (Andrews, 1958), and that an empirically based body of knowledge concerning administration should be founded on an understanding of the behavior of the administrator (Thompson, 1967). Based on those two findings, and assuming the investigation of the perceived leadership behavior of secondary school athletic directors between two levels of the organization (superordinate and subordinate) would provide further insight, this study was undertaken. It is hoped that it will contribute to the developing body of knowledge in sports administration and may provide a basis for structuring course content in this area.

#### Limitations of the Study

1. This study was limited to athletic directors of public and private secondary schools in the State of North Carolina during the 1986-87 academic year. The generalization of this study's findings to other state school systems, where educational standards might vary, is discouraged.

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- This study was limited to those schools that had a person assigned the responsibility of athletic director.
- 3. This study limited the selection of athletic directors to those persons not also employed as the head boys' basketball coach.
- 4. This study limited the school sample population to member schools of the North Carolina High School Athletic Association (NCHSAA).
- 5. This study made no distinction between male and female athletic directors.

#### Assumptions

This study was conducted on the following assumptions:

- 1. the instrument used, the <u>Leader Behavior Description</u> <u>Questionnaire-Form XII</u>, adequately measured specific dimensions of leadership behavior of high school athletic directors;
- individuals selected for this study responded in an honest and complete manner;
- 3. the head basketball coaches selected for this study were sufficiently knowledgeable about the leadership behavior of their athletic directors to accurately describe such leadership behavior.

#### Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined to insure a clear understanding of their meaning as used in this study:

<u>Athletic Director</u>. The individual within the secondary school assigned the primary responsibility of organizing, directing, supervising, and conducting the school's athletic program. In this study, the athletic director was that person assigned to each school by the local board of education for the administration of the athletic program.

<u>Description of behavior</u>. The responses individuals recorded on the selected instrument (<u>LBDQ-XII</u>) based on perceptions of behavior.

<u>Group</u>. That part of the organization or unit which is supervised by the leader being described. In this study, the group was identified as the head boys<sup>2</sup> basketball coaches.

Head basketball coach. An individual, formally assigned by a board of education, with athletic coaching duties and responsibilities pertaining to the sport of boys<sup>-</sup> interscholastic basketball.

Leader. An individual who, because of office or official status, is expected to motivate, coordinate, and direct the organization, or some element of it, in the achievement of its goals (Davis, 1951). In this study, the leader was identified as the secondary school athletic director.

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Leader behavior. Actions a leader engages in to influence organizational activities.

Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII. The <u>LBDQ-XII</u> is a one-hundred item questionnaire accompanied by a Likert-type response scoresheet developed by the staff of The Ohio State University Leadership Studies. It is published and copyrighted by the College of Administrative Science, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. Its purpose is to describe leader behavior on twelve dimensions.

Leadership. This term is used synonymous with leader behavior.

<u>NCCA</u>. North Carolina Coaches Association. A non-profit corporation, with voluntary membership open to any individual employed in a North Carolina secondary school with assigned coaching/teaching responsibilities.

<u>NCHSAA</u>. North Carolina High School Athletic Association, Inc. The association is a voluntary, non-profit corporation which administers the state's interscholastic athletic program. Any North Carolina public or non-boarding parochial high school is eligible for membership, provided it is accredited by the State Department of Public Instruction (Strunk, 1986, p. 9).

<u>Perception</u>. The observation and value placed on the behavior of the athletic director based on experiences encountered by the observer.

<u>Response</u>. The weight or importance that an individual assigned to an item on the measurement rating scale, the LBDQ-XII.

Subordinate. An individual under the authority of a superior. In this study, the head boys' basketball coach was subordinate to the athletic director.

Superordinate. An individual, in the organization, of higher rank or position. In this study, the athletic director was superordinate to the head boys<sup>-</sup> basketball coach.

Time spent performing duties. The amount of faculty assignment, expressed as a percentage, that the athletic director was contractually accorded to carry out the responsibilities of the position.

## Organization of the Study

The remaining chapters of this study are organized as follows:

Chapter II contains a review of related literature; in Chapter III a description of the procedures used in collecting, tabulating, and analyzing the data is presented; Chapter IV details the analysis of data, discussion, and describes the significant findings of this study; and, Chapter V presents a summary, conclusions, and recommendations for future studies. Also included in this final chapter is a section which presents a broader interpretation, allowing the researcher to speculate and reflect on some of the larger implications of leadership. Appendices and references are included to provide additional information on the structure of this study.

### CHAPTER II

#### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

The purpose of this chapter is to present a review of the pertinent literature related to leadership behavior. Such a review uncovered extensive research in leadership behavior as related to educational, military, and industrial organizations. Relatively few studies have examined the leadership behavior of interscholastic athletic directors. Therefore, related studies from areas other than sports administration were included in this review, particularly from the field of physical education. Rationale for this approach is based on several factors: (1) Presently there is a trend in physical education, and related professions, toward specialization of function, including athletics as well. Yet, it is difficult, if not impossible, to define or describe philosophies of administrative theory that are unique to each field; (2) "--the administrator of physical education and athletics--as a profession requires that some organizational structure be developed within educational institutions through which the body of professional knowledge be transmitted to those who follow" (Zeigler & Spaeth, 1975, p. 3). The situation, particularly at the high school level, "is now such that the appointment of a

director of physical education or an athletic director or a person with some combined title is a very ordinary and expected occurrence" (Zeigler & Spaeth, 1975, p. 3); (3) Bucher (1979) claimed the union between physical education and athletics is based on the fact that athletic programs are an outgrowth of a total physical education program in a school or college. He further maintained, "It is important to stress that there is a need for having an athletic program that meets the needs of all, . . . and that it has leaders trained in physical education" (p. 183). This chapter is organized under four major sections: (1)Leadership Theory, (2) Theories of Organization and Administration, (3) Athletic Administration and Leadership, and (4) The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ and LBDQ-XII)--Its Origin and Application.

### Leadership Theory

They . . (a group of professional educators who were known as Sophists) . . . claimed to teach something the Greeks called <u>arete</u>, often explained as 'virtue' or 'goodness', which really included all the qualities of human excellence that made people natural leaders of others. Many Greeks believed that it was not possible to teach this (Parker, 1979, pp. 19-20).

#### Introduction

Today, as in the times of Socrates, Plato, and Caesar, there is a universal craving for compelling and creative leadership. Attempts to study and understand leadership have existed since ancient times. Arendt (1958) explained that "leadership" is derived from the Latin and Greek verbs <u>to act</u>. Two Greek verbs <u>archein</u> ("to begin," "to lead," "to rule") and <u>prattein</u> ("to achieve," "to finish") correspond to the Latin verbs, <u>agere</u> ("to set in motion," "to lead") and <u>gerere</u> ("to bear") (p. 188). Leadership behavior can logically be seen in two parts; a leader begins the action and depends on followers to take the action to completion.

Leadership is ubiquitous; that is, each person possesses it to some degree. Leadership, as a phenomenon, is neutral in value; it takes on value only when exercised as a behavior. In the past 60 years, researchers, with various applications of the scientific method, have studied leadership. Yet, problems concerning leadership research still exist. One major problem is defining and describing the term leadership.

## Definitions and Descriptions of Leadership and Leader.

In delivering the Twentieth Amy Morris Homans Lecture, speaker Forker (1986) revealed her fascination with the elusive phenomenon of leadership. Her fascination prompted her to attempt to uncover the mystery of leadership.

I wanted to identify the traits that outstanding leaders share, and point to a set of circumstances or a process that contributes to making great leaders. Instead, I found no clear definition of a leader to use as a base. I found confusion in the literature written by the experts. I found ominous signs that lead me to question our abilities to identify and nurture leaders for

today and tomorrow. . . . Although some 3,000 studies have been conducted on leadership over the past 70 years, the researchers are still struggling to discover the formula for successful leadership. The term itself is ambiguous, and therefore difficult to treat analytically. Because it is not a thing, but a quality possessed by a dynamic human being who operates in a dynamic society, it eludes, even defies, definitive descriptions (Forker, 1986, p. 88).

Katz and Kahn (1966) described leadership as a slippery and catch-all concept. One time leadership may mean a "position of leadership;" at another time it may be attributed to a "kind of behavior," while again, it may refer to certain personal "qualities or characteristics." Burns (1978) blamed the complexity of definition on the fact that leadership as a concept has dissolved into small and discrete meanings. He cited a recent study which turned-up Burns concluded there is no 130 definitions of the word. school of leadership, intellectual or practical. There is a lack of standards for assessing past, present and potential leaders. "Without such standards and knowledge we cannot make vital distinctions between types of leaders; we cannot distinguish leaders from rulers, from power wielders, and from despots" (Burns, 1978, p. 2).

Halpin (1966) ascertained that the problem of defining leadership arose because leadership often referred to a role, as well as the behavior of the person in that role, and the evaluation of that person's performance. Therefore, Halpin (1966) described leadership as a complex social

phenomenon that cannot be treated meaningfully apart from related situational factors. Leader behavior he described as the behavior of the formally designated leader of a specific work group and as, frequently used, synonymous with leadership. Halpin's (1966) "intent [was] to avoid the mistake of treating 'leadership' as if it were an entity and of disregarding the coerciveness of situational factors upon leadership behavior" (p. 42).

In developing the <u>Leader Behavior Description</u> <u>Questionnaire</u>, Hemphill and Coons (1957) adopted a working definition of leadership: "The behavior of an individual when he is directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal" (p. 7). Stogdill (1963c) called leadership a process of influencing group activities toward goal setting and goal achievement.

Kimbrough (1968) posited that leadership must involve more than the personal characteristics of the leader. He continued, a person who assumes the leader role is a part of the social system, and leadership is a quality that emerges from the behavior of that person. Sessoms and Stevenson (1981) also considered this interaction between the leader and the group and between the leader and individual members of the group when developing their definition of leadership. They wrote, leadership is "that activity of ideas or behavior of one or more persons in a group that affects the ideas or behavior of one or more persons in the group; a

leader is any person who exerts leadership on other persons"
(Sessoms & Stevenson, 1981, p. 23).

Burns (1978), in his Pulitzer Prize winning book <u>Leadership</u>, drew the distinction between two terms--leadership and power--which are often thought to be synonymous. Power is exercised when power wielders "motivated to achieve certain goals of their own, marshall in their power resources (institutional, skill, economic, or military) that enable them to influence the behavior of respondents by activating motives of respondents relevant to those resources and to those goals" (Burns, 1978, p. 18). The important point is that this is done to accomplish the goals of the power wielder, whether or not these are also the goals of the followers.

To understand leadership, it is necessary to understand power, for leadership is a special form of power. Burns (1978) described two essentials of power: motive and resource.

The two are interrelated. Lacking motive, resource diminishes; lacking resource, motive lies idle. Lacking either one, power collapses. Because both resource and motive are needed and both may be in short supply, power is an elusive and limited thing (p. 12). . . We must see power--and leadership--as not things but as <u>relationships</u>. We must analyze power in a context of human motives and physical constraints. If we can come to grips with these aspects of power, we can hope to comprehend the true nature of leadership--a venture far more intellectually daunting than the study of naked power (p. 11). Power, as noted, is exercised to achieve certain goals of the power wielder alone. No consideration is accorded to the followers. Leadership, unlike naked power, is inseparable from followers needs and goals. The essence of the relationship between leader and follower is the interaction of persons, in pursuit of a common or at least joint purpose. Burns (1978) wrote that:

Leadership over human beings is exercised when persons with certain motives and purposes mobilize, in competition or conflict with others, institutional, political, psychological, and other resources so as to arouse, engage, and satisfy the motives of followers. This is done in order to realize qoals mutually held by both leaders and followers . . . In brief, leaders with motives and power bases tap followers' motives in order to realize the purposes of both leaders and followers. . . . Leadership is exercised in a condition of conflict or competition in which leaders contend in appealing to the motive bases of potential followers. Naked power, on the other hand, admits no competition or conflict--there is no engagement (p. 18).

Burns contended that leadership takes on two fundamentally different forms. The first he called <u>transactional</u> leadership. Such leadership occurs when one person initiates contacting others for the purpose of an exchange of valued things. Each individual is conscious of the power resources and attitudes of the other. Each individual is recognized as a person. Their purposes are related; yet, after the exchange, leader and follower may go their separate ways. Leadership took place, but not one that would bind leader and follower together in a continuing pursuit of a higher purpose (Burns, 1978).

Contrast this to <u>transformational</u> leadership. Such leadership occurs when an individual or individuals engage with others in a way that leader(s) and followers elevate one another to higher levels of motivation and morality. Their purposes, which may have been separate but related, become fused. Power bases become linked, not in a tradeoff, but as mutual support for a common purpose (Burns, 1978).

The point made by Burns concerning leadership being exercised in conflict or competition was also addressed by O'Kane. He maintained that the true leader is deliberately attempting to challenge or change the established system (O'Kane, 1978). The difficulty in understanding leadership exists because of confusion in understanding the verb forms "to manage," "to administer," and "to lead." They are often thought to be synonymous in terms of semantics, as well as functions. O'Kane tells us they are not. To "manage" is to be attentive to basic rules and regulations, in order to keep us in sync with our material world. The "manager" is thus concerned with control of material facts (O'Kane, 1978).

"Administration" is more concerned with social facts. The emphases are on the uses of capital for social good. The "administrator" is a coordinator charged by the followers to help maintain the health of the organization.

To "administrate" is to serve; the "-minis" taken from "minus," meaning servant (O<sup>-</sup>Kane, 1978).

"Leadership" functions are quite antagonistic to those of "management" and "administration." The leader, in attempting to challenge and change the established system, creates conflict. Within this conflict tradeoffs occur and changes take place (O'Kane, 1978).

Blumberg and Greenfield (1986), writing about instructional leadership, were also aware of the distinction between leadership and administration. They defined leadership as the behavior of an individual which initiates a new structure within a social system. The emphasis is on <u>change</u>, rather than solely maintaining or <u>administering</u> existing structures (Blumberg & Greenfield, 1986).

# Leadership Theories

"Great-Man" Theories. The earliest theories of leadership were based on the notion that leaders were a product of their times, and that the destiny to lead was bestowed on a select few. The "great-man" theory of leadership attempted to explain leadership on the basis of inheritance (Galton, 1869). Woods' (1913) research, predicated on the assumption that leaders were "born not made," studied leadership in fourteen countries over periods of five to ten centuries. Woods concluded that the man makes the nation, and that leadership was directly related to natural social hierarchies within each country.

Even as late as 1931 this view persisted. Wiggam (1931) maintained that intermarriage within the aristocratic class produced siblings who differed biologically from the lower class. Dowd (1936) agreed with the notion of leadership by the select few. Every society produces people of varying intelligence, energy and moral force; it seemed only natural to Dowd that the masses would be lead by the superior few.

Jennings (1960) presented the most comprehensive analysis of the great-man theory of leadership. He categorized great-men: Princes--those motivated by a desire for power over others; heroes--those individuals superior in power, courage, and understanding and, as such, followed, admired, and obeyed almost to a point of worship; and supermen--taken from the work of Nietzsche, those individuals who possess the ability to overcome society's constraints, and are able to develop to the utmost of their capabilities (Jennings, 1960).

<u>Trait Theories</u>. The trait theories of leadership are based on the assumption that the unique qualities possessed by leaders can be identified. This theory took hold in approximately 1930, and for the next 25 years, leaders were frequently judged by the traits they possessed or brought to the job. Bass (1981) recognized the works of L.L. Bernard, Bingham, Tead, and Kilbourne, researchers of the 1920s and

1930s, as those who explained leadership through the trait approach.

Tead (1935) identified leaders as possessing the traits of "physical and nervous energy, a sense of purpose and direction, enthusiasm, affection and friendliness, integrity, technical mastery, decisiveness, intelligence, teaching skill, and faith" (p. 83). Stogdill (1948) attempted to discover a pattern of personal traits that might distinguish effective leaders from less effective leaders. He focused his study on the identification of the leader's intellectual, social, emotional, physical or personal makeup.

Research by Ghiselli (1963) discovered certain traits that significantly correlated with management performance ratings and organizational levels in several different organizations. The traits identified were individuality, initiative, intelligence, supervisory ability, and self-assurance. Davis<sup>-</sup> study in 1972 revealed four traits which appeared to be related to successful organizational leadership. He identified these as intelligence, inner motivation and achievement drives, social maturity, and human relations attitude.

Overall, research using the traits approach to study leadership often produced conflicting results. While a leader might posses a certain trait, it could not be determined that it was an absolute requirement for leadership. In addition, studies to measure a trait usually occurred after a leader had assumed the role and did not aid in discovering a cause-effect relationship.

Halpin (1966) stated that research on the personal traits of leadership had "yielded negligible, and often contradictory, results" (p. 82). Halpin stressed the need for researchers to concentrate instead on the behavior of leaders and the social situation in which the leaders operated.

Situational Theories. Early theorists attempted to explain leadership as though it were the product of a single set of forces. The situational approach examines not only the personal traits of the leader, but also the specific conditions under which the leader operates. This theory suggests there is no "one-best" leadership style that should be utilized in all situations, the assumption being that situational demands dictate the style of leadership needed.

As early as 1938 Case contended that the interaction of three factors influenced leadership: (1) the personality traits of the leader, (2) the nature of the group, and (3) the problem confronting the group. Stogdill and Shartle (1955) supported the hypothesis of interrelated factors; they viewed the factors as being the leader, the group, and the situation.

In 1949 Hemphill reviewed research on over 500 groups. He concluded that leader behavior was significantly related

to the situation. For example, Hemphill stated that group size made a difference in the leader's behavior. In smaller groups the leader tended to play a more personal role.

Jenkins (1947) supported the idea that leadership evolves from the needs of a given situation. After examining documents pertaining to military leadership, he suggested that leadership was specific to a particular situation. He further purposed that who becomes the leader and what leadership characteristics are exhibited are a function of specific situations.

<u>Humanistic Theories</u>. In this approach, the human being is considered to be a motivated organism. The organization in which the human being operates is by nature structured and controlled. The function of leadership is to modify the organization in ways that will allow the individual to satisfy personal needs and simultaneously contribute to the accomplishment of organizational goals.

McGregor (1960, 1966), a social scientist, developed what he called "Theory X" and "Theory Y" to explain human nature. Theory X leadership style attempts to direct and motivate individuals to meet organizational needs, the assumption being that individuals are passive, self-centered, disinterested in work, lack ambition, and resist being led. Theory Y describes the subordinate as motivated, possessing a desire for responsibility, industrious, and adaptive. Using this theory, leaders work

to arrange conditions within an organization so that individuals see and work for fulfillment of their own needs, while also directing their efforts toward achieving organizational objectives. Theory Y is a reflection of the work of Abraham Maslow's (1970) hierarchy of needs, where the element--motivation--is central to leadership success, and to the attainment of self-actualization.

McGregor's work drew heavily on that of Chris Argyris (1964, 1978). Argyris maintained that maximum motivation in work is exhibited when the individual is in pursuit of self-fulfillment and experiences psychological growth and independence. Close supervision diminishes motivation, hampers psychological growth, and reduces personal independence and freedom.

A recent development concerning the role of an individual employee in organizations has been dubbed "Theory Z" management. It originated in Japan and assumes that workers have good ideas (Ouchi, 1981). If an organization listens to its employees and attempts to implement their ideas, higher motivation to increase productivity will result. Techniques of group relations are the vehicle used to improve employee performance.

The social process model, developed by Getzels, Lipham and Campbell (1968), is somewhat aligned with McGregor's "X" and "Y" theories. They purposed the idea that the leader is most effective and efficient when individual needs coincide with the efficiency of the organization. Three types of leader behavior were identified: (1) nomothetic, which emphasizes the role, expectations and needs of the organization; (2) ideographic, which stresses individual personality and followers' needs; and (3) transactional, which calls for the changing from one leadership style to the other style as the set of circumstances changes.

Likert (1961, 1967) wrote that leaders must take into account the expectations, values, and interpersonal skills of the followers. He further posited that leaders must involve workers in decisions that will affect them; that the leader's behavior must be perceived by the followers as supportive of their efforts and personal worth; and that the leader will provide freedom for responsible decision making and exercise of initiative which will result in increased group cohesiveness and motivation to produce.

# Leadership Studies, Styles and Models

Lewin, Lippitt and White Studies. These classic studies attempted to determine the impact of various leadership styles on the behavior of ten-year-old children (Lewin, Lippitt & White, 1939). The major contribution of these studies was the description of leadership styles. In the first study, two leadership styles--democratic and authoritarian-- were identified and studied. The second

study identified a third style--laissez-faire. The styles

are defined as follows:

Democratic leadership style implies that individuals have a say in the decision making process. Individuals are free to choose whom they will and will not work with. The leaders role is to suggest alternatives and establish a work path workers can follow. They are also to be fair in their praise and criticism of group members.

Authoritarian leadership style indicates the activities of the group are tightly controlled by the leader. The leader dictates what will be done, how it will be done, and by whom. The leader is aloof from group members; the relationship is impersonal, not hostile.

Laissez-faire leadership style is characterized by a lack of structure or control. There is complete freedom for the group to make decisions. The leader may supply materials and information, but does not attempt to influence group behavior (Lewin, Lippitt and White, 1939).

The New Managerial Grid. Blake and Mouton (1978) conceptualized leadership in terms of a managerial grid, where the horizontal axis represented concern for people on a scale of 1-9, and concern for production represented the other axis with a similar 1-9 scale. Leaders may be high or low on both axes, or they may be low on one and high on the other. Leaders scoring high on both axes have a high concern for people and high concern for productivity. They develop followers who are committed and whose sense of interdependence through a "common-stake" in organization purpose leads to an atmosphere of trust and respect.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt's Leadership Continuum. This nodel dichotomizes leadership style along a continuum in terms of its orientation. In their classic study, Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) attempted to answer the question, 'should the leader function in autocratic or in democratic style, or something in between? They developed an authority continuum with seven designated points between "Boss Centered Leadership" and "Subordinate Centered Leadership." At one end of the continuum the leader was authoritarian and task oriented. At the other end of the continuum, the leader was human-relations oriented and democratic. Along the Tannenbaum and Schmidt leadership continuum, there were also other leadership options. These options consisted of different combinations of leader authority and group member freedom. Tannenbaum and Schmidt stressed the importance of situational leadership. There was no "one-best" style of leadership according to them. They suggested the leader be open and flexible to the use of different styles in different situations.

Fiedler's Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness. Two decades ago Fiedler (1967) presented a model of leadership effectiveness that considered a variety of situational factors. Fiedler supported the notion that leadership must be situationally determined. The model was based on a continuum of favorableness of the situation to the leader. At one end of the continuum were conditions highly favorable to the leader, such as good leader-follower relations and well-defined structure. At the other end of the continuum were situations highly unfavorable to the leader, such as lack of structured task and poor leader-follower relations. Fiedler (1967) concluded that situation favorableness is determined by three basic factors:

- 1. Leader-follower relations. The extent to which the leader feels accepted by the group.
- 2. Task structure. The extent to which role expectations are clearly defined to the followers.
- 3. Position power. The degree of influence a leader has.

Research indicated that in situations which are highly favorable and very unfavorable to the leader, the task-directed leadership style is most effective. In situations that are of intermediate or moderate favorableness to the leader, the human relations style of leadership is most successful (Fiedler, 1967).

Path-Goal Theory of Leadership. An attempt to combine various elements of motivation with leadership is the heart of the path-goal theory of leadership. This approach is concerned with assessing the motivation, satisfaction and performance of the subordinates, and examining the relationship of these elements to leadership style (House & Mitchell, 1974). The leader should be aware of and use various leadership styles appropriate to the situation, in order to affect the followers' motivation, satisfaction, and productivity. The leader, in a sense, "clears the path" for group members to satisfy their own goals, as well as the goals of the organization.

<u>Reddin's 3-D Theory of Management Effectiveness</u>. Reddin (1970) also maintained that the situation dictated which leadership style would be most effective. He believed an individuals' leadership style could be a combination of both the task and relationship orientations. He defined the combinations as: Separated (low task--low relationship orientation); Dedicated (high task--low relationship orientation); Related (low task--high relationship orientation); Integrated (high task--high relationship orientation) (Reddin, 1970).

The four basic styles can be used appropriately or inappropriately, thus, the four basic styles give way to eight different leadership styles: executive, compromiser, benevolent autocrat, autocrat, developer, missionary, bureaucrat, and deserter. Reddin (1970) suggested that a leader must have the ability to change leadership style according to the needs of a given situation.

<u>Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model</u>. Hersey and Blanchard (1977) suggested that leadership style varied according to two variables. The first was the maturity of the group. The second was the demands of the situation. Basically, the leader assessed the demands of the situation and the maturity level of the group members, in order to determine which leadership style would be most effective. Hersey and Blanchard (1977) posited that a group of low maturity individuals should be lead with high task--low consideration. As the subordinates increase in maturity, leader behavior changed by decreasing the emphasis on task structuring and increasing the emphasis on consideration. Maturity is described as the subordinates' experience, achievement motivation, and willingness and ability to accept responsibility (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977).

After reviewing the pertinent literature, it can be concluded there is no one theory, style, or model that can completely or satisfactorily explain the concept of leadership. Research supports the concept that the leader must show concern for meeting the needs of the individual, as well as those of the organization in order to be effective and efficient. In addition, while there are no universal individual traits necessary for all leaders in all situations, it can be concluded that the situation and group interaction are variables relating to leadership behavior.

# Theories of Organization and Administration

## Background

In increasingly complex societies, the struggle to find some reasonable blending of chaos and order is a continuing concern. One response to this dilemma has been the growth of the formal organization. The organization has long been a subject of much interest and study. Some of the first formal investigations of organizations are found in military and political literature. The study of organizations expanded in the latter part of the last century, and particularly in this century, to produce the familiar analysis of bureaucracy.

A reason for the growth of organizational activity was the change in our country from an agricultural society to one based on technology, industry and city living. These changes effected a greater dependency of people on each other. On this delicate balance of human collaboration rests the success of organizations, indeed society itself. Therefore, forces which could disrupt this collaboration must be minimized or eliminated.

Traditionally, theories of organization and administration focus on two general aspects. They either examine the process of subdividing work and work relationships into manageable units, or they may have a greater behavioral emphasis, concerned with the examination and analysis of relatively complex, structured behavior systems (Krupp, 1961). The way theorists define organizations varies only slightly. Barnard (1938) called an organization "a system of coordinated personal activities or forces"; later he referred to a system of "interrelated activities." Davis (1951) described it as a group of people working together, under a leader, to accomplish an objective. Thompson (1961) characterized organizations as the integration of a large number of specialists operating to achieve some objective, upon which is superimposed a highly elaborate structure of authority. Stogdill (1966) called an organization a structured system of behavior with predesigned positions and roles.

An examination of administration revealed a more humanistic concern. Voltmer and Esslinger (1967) posited:

Administration is mainly concerned with guiding human behavior in the service of some goal. Whatever the nature of the organization it is through human behavior that necessary tasks are accomplished. The crux of administration is managing human behavior (p. 2).

McGregor (1966) stated that the essential task of the administrator is to arrange organizational conditions, so that people can reach their own goals by directing their efforts to accomplishing organizational objectives. Gross and Etzioni (1985) also mentioned the humanistic element when they referred to an organization as a "social unit (or human groupings) deliberately constructed and reconstructed

to seek specific goals" (p. 5). Havel and Seymour (1961) agreed that administration is the guiding of human effort into clearly defined channels of responsible action, for the purpose of achieving program objectives. Bucher (1979) summed up the duality of organizational and administrative theory by stating:

Administration is concerned with the functions and responsibilities essential to the achievement of established goals through associated effort. It is also concerned with that group of individuals who are responsible for directing, guiding, coordinating, and inspiring the associated efforts of individual members, so that the purposes for which an organization has been established may be accomplished in the most effective and efficient manner possible (p. 16).

Sessoms and Stevens (1981) put forth that organizations are created to accomplish those tasks that individuals cannot do alone. They further suggested that organizations, as extensions of individual efforts, be humanized; that is, those affected by the organizations' decisions be involved in the decision making process. Hall (1982), after a lengthy discussion of the nature and types of organizations, offered this cumbersome definition:

An organization is a collectivity with a relatively identifiable boundary, a normative order, ranks of authority, communication systems, and membership-coordinating systems; this collectivity exists on a relatively continuous basis in an environment and engages in activities that are usually related to a set of goals (p. 33).

The identifiable boundary that Hall spoke of is something outside the organization, its environment. The

environment is defined as "all phenomena that are external to and potentially or actually influence the population under study" (Hawley, 1968, p. 330). Presently, theorists such as Lawerence and Lorsch, 1967; Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978; Aldrich, 1979; Marrett, 1980; and Hage, 1980, have placed great emphasis on the environment and its role in shaping an organization.

While these definitions seem to vary somewhat, one thing is certain. Institutions of all forms, educational, military and industrial have engaged in organizing for reasons that are clear. These institutions depend on what an organization can offer. Organizing lessens the significance of individual behavior which deviates from values the organization believes worthy. This minimizes conflict. Also, by reducing uncertainty, regarding the system's structure and the human roles involved, stability is increased. As Presthus (1958) contended:

Organization is defined as a system of structural interpersonal relations . . individuals are differentiated in terms of authority, status, and role with the results that personal interaction is prescribed . . . anticipated reactions tend to occur, while ambiguity and spontaneity are decreased (p. 50).

In other words, the needs of the institution are two-fold: It needs a system of relationships among functions, it needs stability, continuity, and predictability in its internal activities and external contacts, along with harmonious relationships among the

people and processes which make it up (Scott, 1961). To meet these needs, administrative science, of which organizational theory is a major element, was developed. Various theories of organization have been, and are being evolved. Three theories of organization having considerable influence on administrative theory are, classical, neoclassical, and modern. Each is distinct, but not unrelated.

## Classical Theory

Classical theory can be traced back to Fredrick W. Taylor, often called the "father of scientific management." Others contributing to this philosophy included Weber (1947), Fayol (1949), Barnard (1938), and Mooney and Reiley (1931).

Taylor's administrative attitude showed great concern for employees' output but little concern for employees' satisfaction. The "one-best way" to perform a task typified this theory. The widespread administrative attitude of the early twentieth century was, that along with raw materials, capital, and machinery, the employee was simply another "factor of production" (Taylor, 1947).

Fayol (1949) viewed authority as a right to exact obedience by virtue of a position on the chain of command. He also proposed that all activities involved in administration could be divided into six operations:

- 1. Technical Operations
- 2. Commercial Operations
- 3. Financial Operations
- 4. Security Operations
- 5. Accounting Operations
- 6. Administrative Operations

In Weber's (1947) view the bureaucratic organization was the epitome of rationality. The ideal bureaucratic organization is able to achieve the highest degree of efficiency for accomplishing objectives. The source for this superiority was rationality and the utilization of technical knowledge. Weber put forth that the ideal bureaucracy has the following characteristics:

- Clear division of labor. Tasks are distributed in a fixed way and legitimatized by recognition as official duties.
- The scalar principle. Functions are arranged hierarchically, resulting in a chain of command.
- 3. Abstract rules. All activities of the organization are governed by those rules which are applied uniformly in particular cases.
- Officials act impersonally. In application of rules to the internal affairs of the organization and to contacts outside the organization officials will act impersonally.
- 5. Objective standards for employment. Selection criteria for employment applicants are based on the qualifications of the applicant relative to objective standards for the job set by the officials of the bureaucracy (Blau, 1956, pp. 28-32).

Barnard (1938) contended that the foundations of classical theory are common purpose, communication, and willingness to serve.

Common purpose. The purpose of every organization is found in its goals and objectives. They provide the aims toward which coordinated activities of administrators are directed.

Communication. Communication is the "linking-process" that supplies information to and from the working parts of the organization, both human and nonhuman, which are responsible for pursuing the primary and subgoals of the organization.

Willingness to serve. This refers to the motivational framework out of which attitudes of positive cooperation are evoked from the human elements of the organization for the accomplishment of organizational goals (pp. 83-91).

Barnard stated that an organization can be either effective (accomplish its ends) or efficient (satisfy individuals work motives); however, it must be both to build a cooperative system. This is accomplished, he concluded, by an administrator who has to be an expert in understanding and handling the variety of technical and human relationships in an organization's social system (Barnard, 1938).

Mooney and Reiley were concerned with the distinction between organizing as a depersonalized process and the day-to-day personalized administration of an organization. The researchers concluded that organizing activities takes place before administration of the organization. Thus, organization is placed on the level of a science, while administration they considered an art (Mooney & Reiley, 1931).

The theories of organization and administration developed by classical theorists, such as Fayol and Taylor, are inherently weak because their statements are often too general to be of much help to the practicing administrator (Hodgetts, 1982). Another weakness of the classical theories is that while they are not unaware of the human problems which affect organizations, they do not treat them in any systematic way. The focus is on the mechanics of organization; therefore, the classical school overlooks the impact people have on the anatomy of the formal structure (March & Simon, 1958). Agreeing with this view is Hanson (1979) who described the classical theorists as being productivity-minded. Using this philosophy, he felt the leader showed great concern for employees' output but little concern for employees' satisfaction.

#### Neoclassical Theory

Neoclassical theory is often referred to as the human relations movement. This period occurred during the 1930s and 1940s, with impetus provided by the classic Hawthorne Studies (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939).

The studies, undertaken by Western Electric at its Hawthorne plant, were an attempt to determine the

relationship between work environment and productivity. The Hawthorne Studies exposed a common management misconception. The organization, thought to be no more than a formal arrangement of functions, was also shown to be a social system. Employee productivity was affected not only by the way the job was designed and the economic reward received, but by certain social and psychological factors as well (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939). The experiments showed that workers wanted to participate and be recognized. Also. the study revealed that employees' feelings and emotions were strongly affected by certain work conditions, such as leadership styles, group relationships and management Hawthorne researchers Elton Mayo's and F.J. support. Roethlisberger's conclusions led to the wide scale implementation of behavioral science techniques in industry. The presumption was that treating employees as human beings would not only enhance employee's satisfaction, it would also enable achievement of organizational goals for higher productivity as well (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939).

Another approach to compensate for deficiencies in classical doctrine was Pfiffner's and Sherwood's (1960) concept of "organizational overlays." Using classical theory as a starting point, Pfiffner and Sherwood added various modifications which resulted from such behavioral overlays as small groups, informal authority systems, such as decision and power systems, and informal communication channels.

Two aspects of the functional processes of organizations studied by neoclassicists were the delegation of authority and responsibility, and gaps in or overlapping of functional authority. Speaking to this, Davis (1957) found too much or insufficient delegation may render an executive incapable of action, or may result in frustration. Overlapping of authority often resulted in personality clashes. Gaps in authority caused failures in getting jobs done, with each party blaming the other for shortcomings in performance (Davis, 1957).

Gardner and Moore (1955) attempted to answer questions regarding span of control, which relates to the number of subordinates an administrator can effectively control. A short span resulted in tight supervision; wide span required a good deal of delegation with looser controls. They concluded, because of individual and organizational differences, sometimes one is better than the other. There is a tendency, however, to favor the looser form of organization because tall structures of control breed autocratic leadership, which is often a cause of low morale (Gardner & Moore, 1955).

The neoclassicist school does not have a bona fide theory. Rather, it is identified more broadly with those movements which recognize the inadequacies of the classic model of organizational theory. Its middle-of-the-road form attempted to save classical theory by introducing behavioral modifications to the formal system (Scott, 1961).

The neoclassical approach fell from favor with administrators in the 1950s and 1960s. Reasons cited for its demise include incompleteness, failure to consider individual worker's differences, and lack of integration among the many facets of human behavior it studied (Scott, 1961). Modern organizational theory has attempted to cover these shortcomings.

## Modern Organization Theory

Modern organizational theory has distinctive qualities that sets it apart from other theories and approaches. It has a conceptual-analytical base, it relies on empirical research data and, above all, it has an integrating nature (Scott, 1961). These qualities are wrapped in a philosophy maintaining that the only way to study an organization is to study it as a system. This approach, often referred to as the human resources philosophy, contends that organizational needs and human needs are mutual and compatible. Programs and practices should be created with the goal of balancing the needs of the organization and the employee.

Boulding (1956) believed that studying human organizations as a system, in spite of their complexity, could provide a useful tool of analysis. Boulding's theory

cannot be overlooked, for it is the forerunner to modern organization theory. In developing what he called a general systems theory--its aim to use the elements and processes common to all systems as a starting point, in order to create a science of organizational universals--Boulding (1956) presented a convenient classification of these hierarchical levels:

- 1. The static structure--level of framework, the anatomy of a system.
- 2. The simple dynamic system--level of clockworks that involve necessary predetermined motions.
- 3. The cybernetic system--level of the thermostat, simple feedback and control circuit designed to enable a system to maintain a given equilibrium.
- The open system--level of self-maintaining systems that exhibit the ability of rejuvenation, growth, and reproduction. This level moves toward and includes living organisms.
- 5. The genetic-societal system--level of cell society, characterized by a division of labor among cells.
- Animal systems--level of mobility, evidence of goal-directed behavior.
- 7. Human systems--level of symbol interpretation and idea communication.
- 8. Social system--level of human organization.
- 9. Transcendental system--level of ultimates and absolutes that exhibit systematic structures but are unknowable in essence (pp. 202-205).

Boulding believed there were universals common to all levels of organization. Thus, the understanding of more complex systems would be possible if structurally analogous elements could be found in simpler systems. Boulding (1956) maintained, it is easier to study the less complex and then generalize to the more complex.

The work of March and Simon (1958) drew heavily from that of Barnard (1938). They and Barnard are credited with starting the era of administrative science. A great deal of their work is devoted to a discussion of the individual in an organization, the opposite of the classicists who did not see this distinction.

Barnard's work is closely associated with the "acceptance theory" of authority, while March's and Simon's work is often referred to as the "decision approach" to organizations. Barnard contended that an individual will accept authority if:

- 1. the order is understood;
- 2. it is in the individual's best interest to comply;
- 3. the individual perceives it as consistent with the purpose of the organization; and
- 4. the individual is mentally and physically able to comply (Barnard, 1938).

An individual's decision to produce, according to March and Simon, is a function of:

- the character and consequences of the evoked set of alternatives;
- 2. the values the individual compares these to;
- 3. group norms; and

4. formal policies and incentive practices (March & Simon, 1958).

Beginning with March and Simon, it becomes apparent that the study of organizations has shifted to place more emphasis on the human factors involved. An individual in an organization faces two major decisions, the decision to participate and the decision to produce. Both choices are affected by two different sets of factors. The decision to participate is based on the inducements/contributions balance, or the concept of organizational equilibrium. In deciding to produce, an individual takes into consideration such factors as the individual's goals, values, group affiliations, and cues received from the internal and external environments (March & Simon, 1958).

Building on this work, Etzioni (1961) examined why people respond in organizations. He described several different bases for compliance. His basic argument was that compliance is related to the type of power used and the orientation of the individual. Etzioni grouped power into three types: (1) coercive--based on physical sanctions; (2) remunerative--economic control; and (3) normative--symbolic rewards, esteem, approval. Individual involvement in an organization can be classified on a continuum from low to high: (1) alienation--low involvement; (2) calculative; and (3) commitment--high involvement.

Thompson focused his writings on the problem of conflict in organizations. An organization is defined as a highly rationalized, impersonal integration of a large number of specialists operating to achieve some objective (Thompson, 1961). According to Thompson, in organizations there is a growing gap between the right to make decisions and the ability to make those decisions. The right to decide is vested in a person acting in a hierarchical role. Yet, the specialist performing the task usually has the greatest ability in the decision area. In today's more technical and skilled organizations the superior has lost the ability to command, but not the right to command (Thompson, 1961).

A possible turning point in the development of theory about organizations was the research project undertaken by Woodward. In an empirically-based work that examined a large sample of British firms, Woodward supplied strong support for the criticisms that there is no one-best-way to organize (Woodward, 1965). Woodward concluded that classical theory was lacking because it failed to consider the formal and informal aspects of organizational behavior. She also found the human relations movement (neoclassical) to be inadequate in its explanations of organizational and behavioral complexities (Woodward, 1965). The conclusion was obvious; an organization should be planned which best facilitates the interaction of the people in it.

More recent studies in organizational theory reflect a denial of traditional assumptions about rationality of organizations. Weber's view of the organization, including the rational model of decision theory, is being replaced by the concepts of loosely coupled systems (Weick, 1976).

Among the new proposals of what organizations are like, Weick (1985) identified six themes that are found in the literature:

- 1. There is less rationality than meets the eye.
- 2. Organizations are segmented rather than monolithic.
- 3. Stable segments in organizations are quite small.
- Connections among segments have variable strength.
- 5. Connections of variable strength produce ambiguity.
- 6. Connections of constant strength reduce ambiguity (p. 109).

Ambiguity within an organization reduces rationality to variability. Variability makes it difficult to anticipate, plan, implement, coordinate and control (Weick, 1985).

March and Olson (1976) identified four sources of ambiguity:

- intention--organizations have inconsistent and ill-defined objectives;
- understanding--unreliable connections between actions and their consequences;
- history--no single version of past events exists; and

4. organization--participation and attention vary (p. 12).

An organization as a living entity is constantly undergoing change. Often change is the result of applied research and careful planning. At other times, ambiguity within the system exerts pressure on organizations to modify their structures in order to cope and survive.

How change occurs within organizations has been the topic of much study. In discussing change, Weick (1979) used what he called a "sociocultural evolution model" to describe the organizing process. He maintained:

- Evolution is the result of variation, selection and retention.
- Variations that are unjustified, i.e., untested, are emphasized in evolutionary theory. After generation and testing theory may be labeled justified or rational.
- 3. Evolution is essentially opportunistic.
- Selection criteria are numerous and vary from time to time, from organization to organization, from unit to unit within a single organization.
- Retention opposes variation. At any given time, in complex organizations, the majority of mechanisms curb variation, foster retention (pp. 122-129).

While recent organizational studies have proliferated, many of these writings are based upon the traditional paradigm. Pfeffer (1982) concluded that organizational studies of recent vintage are goal directed and rational. Griffiths (1983) claimed empirical research in education administration is in the functionalist cell, which he described as:

Combining an emphasis on the sociology of regulation and objectivity, this cell includes almost all the theoretical and empirical activity in organizational studies. It unites the dominant substantive paradigm on organizations (the sociology of Weber) with the dominant paradigm of social science inquiry (positivism) (p. 212).

### Athletic Administration and Leadership

### Background

The roots of athletic administration can be traced back to America's Colonial Period. Early colonial settlements were scattered far apart, and the population was almost 95 percent rural. The struggle for existence was so time consuming there was little time for recreation. Even so, the natural urge for people to get together for companionship brought forth spontaneous forms of recreational activities. Though unorganized and without universally recognized rules, the earliest settlers of colonial days participated in many sports (Rice, Hutchinson, & Lee, 1969).

School hours during the colonial years were so long that little opportunity existed for students to engage in sports. As for the colleges, though the curriculum tended to ignore physical activities for the students, the games of the students are as old as the colleges themselves. Opposition to sports activities was quickly raised by school administrators who ruled them harmful. Spears and Swanson (1983) spoke to this when they wrote:

Students of the period were younger than today's students and played games such as town ball, rounders, and one ofcat. In spite of periodic bans, football, more like soccer than present-day football, was a popular activity. The young men also rowed, wrestled, ice skated, danced, swam, played quoits, boxed, and fenced. While some school administrators sought to prohibit such activity, particularly the more violent football games, others encouraged faculty members to join their students occasionally in such play, in order to present a proper example and to prevent rowdiness. . . . but the only faculty supervision was that provided on a volunteer basis by interested individuals (pp. 85-86).

Intercollegiate games, between schools located near each other, have been reported as early as the 1820s, though it was not until the 1850s that contests took place for which specific reports are available. During this period, athletics, particularly at the college level, were student controlled. "The clubs, composed of students and an occasional faculty member, also functioned as social organizations. Officially, however, the clubs had no affiliation with the college or university other than the members being students" (Spears & Swanson, 1983, p. 126). Often non-students from the local town were recruited to represent the college club (Rice, et al., 1969). Intercollegiate sports for men, which began with occasional student challenge-matches, had, by the late 1800s, been established as a significant part of campus life. In the early twentieth century, the most popular intercollegiate sport was football. Most colleges across the country fielded a team for this rough contact sport. Often the football team was coached by men of no educational background, and the playing rosters consisted of townspeople and faculty members. A sudden increase in football related injuries and fatalities, especially those in the 1905 season, led to increased efforts to govern amateur sports. A convention of delegates from 63 institutions met in New York and formed the Intercollegiate Athletic Association of the United States. In 1910 the name was changed to the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) (Spears & Swanson, 1983).

With creation of this body, rules and regulations governing all major sports played by colleges were developed. Along with the increased regulation of men's intercollegiate sport

was the trend away from volunteer student-run athletic associations to college-controlled administration. The rise of football played a significant role in this move. Its increasing popularity and financial complexity required administrative and faculty control. Hired coaches and larger stadiums represented major investments, and the colleges saw the need to appoint "athletic directors" to supervise their investments (Spears & Swanson, 1983, p. 184).

### Development of Interscholastic Athletics

There was little of interscholastic athletics in the country in the 1800s. What little there was came almost

entirely in the closing decade of the century. The story of high school athletics is largely the same as the story of intercollegiate competition of the late nineteenth century, namely a story of boys organizing and administering sports for themselves. Student controlled sports occurred most often in smaller town schools were there were no physical education teachers. Assistance came from townspeople, instead of the schools. Rice et al. (1969) claimed interscholastic, as well as intercollegiate, athletics were developed following the same process: (1) intramural or playground athletics; (2) the rise of the student manager; (3) arrival of the professional coach; and lastly, (4) faculty control of athletics.

Supporting Rice's et al. contention that the development of high school athletic programs followed a well-defined pattern were Shepard and Jamerson (1953) who described the process as follows:

- Athletics were first sponsored by the students, with the school's administrators and faculty being unsympathetic or hostile.
- 2. The community assisted the students in the form of finances and coaching aid, with school administrators and faculty being either indifferent or intolerant.
- 3. The administrators and faculty recognized the malpractices in athletics and moved toward faculty control and guidance.
- 4. Athletics were accepted by school administrators and faculty as an essential part of the school program (p. 3).

Objections to high school athletics were voiced by educators and laypeople alike. The chief objection to the new athletic activities was that they neglected the many to train a few to insure victory in interscholastic contests (Rice et al., 1969). Despite these protests, in the early years of the twentieth century high school athletics developed into full bloom.

It became apparent that control of interscholastic athletics depended on leadership and control by the individual institutions. Purposing to work for the common interest in control and direction of sports for high school boys, the National Pederation of High School Athletic Association was formed in 1920 (Rice et al., 1969). In an attempt to dissolve fears that winning was the only noticeable goal, and to reveal that playing sports could have educational value, the Federation stated its activities

are based on the belief that strong state and national high school athletic organizations are necessary to protect the activity and athletic interests of the high schools, to promote an ever increasing growth of a type of interscholastic athletics which is educational in both objective and method and which can be justified as an integral part of the high school curriculum, and to protect high school students from exploitation for purposes having no educational implications (Strunk, 1986, p. 10).

During the period of 1945-1975 interscholastic athletics enjoyed continued growth. The changing philosophy regarding athletics for females, along with the passage of Title IX,

saw a dramatic increase in girl's participation in interscholastic sports.

In the late 1970s and early 1980s high school sports suffered a setback. Inflation, coupled with decreasing state tax allotments, placed severe financial constraints on local school districts (Spears & Swanson, 1983). This resulted in the elimination of programs, increased dependence on outside financial support, and employment of part-time, non-teaching coaches.

Athletic administration has evolved into a highly sophisticated big business. The administrator must possess the skills and knowledge most often associated with business administration. "To the athletic director this means performing certain managerial functions such as planning, budgeting, organizing, staffing, coordinating, reporting, innovating and representing" (Fuoss & Troppman, 1976, pp. 35-36).

# Administrative Theory and Practice in Physical Education and Athletics

As a field of scholarly endeavor, physical education and athletic administration developed later than related fields, such as business administration and public administration. Traditionally, administrative theories of physical education and athletics have parallelled, if not lagged slightly behind, theories developed in the field of educational administration. As a result, many relevant concepts for physical education and athletic administration practitioners and scholars have their origin in these related fields and in basic disciplines, such as sociology, political science and psychology.

One criteria a recognized profession needs is an organized body of knowledge based on research. Zeigler (1975) contended that prior to 1965 an examination of the literature revealed almost nothing related to physical education and athletic administration theory. Although considerable research in the administration area has been completed since 1965, Spaeth (1967) maintained that the motivation for research had been related "more to the solution of immediate or localized problems" (p. 151) than toward establishing a body of knowledge rooted in research.

Zeigler and Spaeth (1975) found "little evidence to indicate that administrators of physical education and athletics, either in practice or in administration courses, are concerned with the theoretical aspects of administration" (pp. 5-6). They cited two reasons for the lack of interest in research in administrative theory. Administrators are divided into two groups, "practitioners" and "scientists." Practitioners believe that theory of this nature has no practical use. To be successful, the administrator must find immediate solutions to day-to-day problems. Scientists reject administrative theory for a different reason. They tend to see the study of administration as practical and vocational in nature; thus, it is not considered as an academic, disciplinary study.

Early writers in physical education and athletics showed little concern for theories of administration. As with early leadership studies, the focus was on identifying characteristics and traits of the teacher as administrator. Wiley (1973) pointed out the lack of theoretical orientation in the early literature of physical education and athletics by saying:

For many years, texts concerned with the administration of physical education took the traditional approach by reporting on many of the aspects of administration from a practical point of view. These writings focused on aspects of the programs that reflected the parochial concerns of administrators. Minimal attention was given to the behavioral aspects of administration and a little more to the contemporary writings of authors in other fields, particularly those in political science and business administration (pp. 26-27).

Physical education and athletic administration theory, during the period of 1930-1960, appeared to be related to general problems along with the identification of leader qualities. In a 1933 leadership study, Savage examined the influence physical education teachers had on student development. She concluded the leader was obligated to provide character and moral training through physical education activities.

In research of a practical nature, Hughes (1933) was concerned about professional improvement as it related to the aims and objectives of physical education. A product of his research, which concerned the qualities of a leader, was a guide to organizational administrative standards and policies.

Trethaway (1953) examined research conducted in physical education between 1895 and 1940 and found administration was associated with: (1) increased numbers of students in the program; (2) facilities; (3) the combining of departments of health, physical education, and recreation; and (4) organization of interschool athletics.

Reflecting the practical, if not scattered, approach to the administration of physical education and athletics, Voltmer and Esslinger (1949) presented the following subject matter in their text: (1) aims and objectives of physical education; (2) the service program; (3) the physical plant; (4) athletics; (5) programs of health; and (6) the professional staff.

The 1960 publication, <u>Current Administrative Problems:</u> <u>Athletics, Health Education, and Recreation</u> (Vannier, 1960), showed administrators were concerned with: (1) the scheduling of physical education classes, (2) supervising physical education, and (3) planning, maintaining, and using physical education facilities. A focus on local problems also surfaced; they included: (4) maintaining quality

standards of physical education programs, (5) credit for physical education, (6) excuses for missed physical education classes, and (7) selection of physical education teachers.

Compare this with a 1981 survey taken by the College and University Physical Education Department Administrators<sup>-</sup> Council (CUPEDAC) Executive Committee. Respondents were sent an open-ended questionnaire which requested the identification of issues and problems facing physical education administrators. Issues and problems were categorized into eight main areas: (1) faculty, (2) staffing, (3) budget, (4) curriculum, (5) management, (6) communication and philosophy, (7) professional, and (8) miscellaneous (McIntyre & Tankersley, 1982, p. 10). Included under miscellaneous were problems such as security, legal liability and contracting for off-campus space.

In the early 1960s, several physical educators saw the need for professionals who specialized in administration. In their texts on the administration of physical education, Havel and Seymour (1960) and Howard and Masonbrink (1963) described the need for the development of administrators possessing special skills, in order to perform their jobs effectively.

The emerging trend in business management in the early 1960s was the human resources movement. With this approach organizations benefited from two significant payoffs:

increased organizational effectiveness and satisfaction of individual employee's needs. In physical education and athletics, though, the traditional approach to administration continued to be the norm, as the mid-1960s approached.

One of the first to break away from the traditional approach by reporting on the processes of administration in physical education and athletics was Zeigler. He proclaims that it is necessary for administrative members of physical education and athletics to align themselves with the more progressive trends in education (Wiley, 1973, p. 27).

Zeigler's (1959) approach to understanding administration was based upon the social science case study point of view. Also reflecting this view were Voltmer and Esslinger (1967) in their revised edition of a text on physical education administration. They completely modified their approach to administration theory by focusing on the human behavior aspects. Conscious of the social science trend, the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation (AAHPER) published its first yearbook based upon a human relations orientation in 1951.

Zeigler's work centered on attempts to understand human behavior more completely. He encouraged directors of physical education and athletics to view administration as administration and use materials and research from other fields to gain this knowledge. The traditional concept of administration preached that the best way to learn administration was to practice administration. Zeigler (1975) disagreed with this view, and speaking specifically of physical education and athletics, claimed that past administrative practice, "mostly of a trial and error nature, has sufficed up to the present, but now a most disturbing fact confronts us as we look to the future. An <u>administrative revolution</u> has been and is taking place. It is here to stay" (p. 7).

Zeigler had become a leading advocate for development of administrative theory specific to physical education and athletics. Further, he advocated studying an administrator's behavior in relation to the task and the organization's objectives in physical education. This approach, coupled with more rigorous research techniques, "should enable our field to follow a <u>programmatic</u> approach to research in the area of administration as it might relate to physical education and athletics" (Zeigler, 1975, p. 25).

Spaeth (1967) was one of the first physical educators to follow Zeigler's lead, and directed her research toward physical education administrative theory. She conducted an analysis of studies concerning the behavioral approach to administrative research in physical education and athletics. Spaeth (1967) concluded, "There is an almost total lack of theoretical orientation in the design of research and interpretation of findings in the sample of administrative research . . . reviewed in this investigation" (p. 145).

Zeigler (1975) amplifying on Spaeth's conclusion posited, "We have witnessed an endless stream of articles, studies and texts, but that we don't know what it all adds up to, and where we can or should go from here!" (p. 23).

Two conclusions reached by Spaeth (1967) in her study are worth noting:

- The behavioral approach to research in educational administration, as reviewed in this investigation, is equally relevant to the administration of physical education and athletics. This approach focuses on the interactions between people rather than on the technical aspects of administration (p. 144).
- 2. The administrative research in physical education and athletics reviewed in this study also generally lacked the methodological rigor necessary for contributions to the development of scientific knowledge about administrative performance. Evidences of this were found in inadequate sampling techniques, lack of objective measurement in data collection, inadequate control of variables and statistical treatment of the data for the complexity of the problems, and the general lack of theoretical orientation (p. 146).

Spaeth's findings showed administrative research in physical education and athletics had tended to focus on technical aspects of administration related to various task areas. The research was almost always descriptive instead of analytical. This resulted in information about the content of administration, rather than knowledge of the administrative process in which the administrator has an important role (Spaeth, 1975). Recent literature in physical education and athletic administration has reflected the influence of social science and an understanding that an individual needs special preparation to become an administrator in such a diverse, specialized field.

Resick, Seidel & Mason (1979) were careful to mention these concerns when they wrote:

Value conflicts are indeed perplexing to the reasonable administrator who is conscientious about getting the job done as well as dedicated to a humanism that suggests that a staff is comprised of persons, not merely people (p. 4). . Physical education is a many-faceted field, the physical educator, male or female, is typically a person who plays many parts in his or her official capacity. . . . Each of these duties carries with it specific administrative details. The more prepared one is for this aspect of the position, the less traumatic will be the actual discharge of one's responsibility (p. 6). . . . In sum, the [sports administrator] . . . is placed in a position in which administrative functions are Thus, it is essential for him or many and varied. her to become as familiar as possible with a general theory of administration (pp. 6-7).

Leith (1983) emphasized that athletic administration is a diverse subject area, and that competence in a wide variety of skills is necessary. The athletic director needs the technical skills to produce the best possible product and the humanistic skills to deal with a range of people, from top administrators to individual athletes (Leith, 1983). Stating that the administrator in the sporting environment needs a variety of specific skills, Voltmer, McCue and Tillman (1979) listed technical skills, human skills, and conceptual skills as essential.

The need for the administrator to be skillful in many areas was echoed by Robbins (1980), who stressed the importance of humanistic skills. Robbins (1980) described administration as the universal process of efficiently getting activities completed with and through other people. To accomplish objectives, the administrator follows the processes of planning, organizing, leading and controlling.

Purdy (1973) referring to the athletic director as the "middleman," stated that to be effective and efficient, the sports administrator must be highly organized and able to handle diversified responsibilities. O'Hanlon's (1978) support for this contention was evident when he wrote:

The effective administrator in the 1980s will be one who can skillfully direct the program planning process; broaden the program to achieve more comprehensive goals, with emphasis on producing healthy life styles; encourage and enable professional growth and development; and create a supportive atmosphere for faculty calling forth increasingly stronger performance by teachers. The effective administrator of the future will not be a "boss" in the hierarchical sense of the term but rather a person who stimulates and directs action, a person who teaches and leads through a systematic presentation of experiences which enable those being lead to develop additional competence (p. 38).

The role of athletics in the secondary curriculum has expanded; so too has the need for competent leadership. From this demand for creative leadership, has evolved a recognized need for the analysis of administrative

leadership through a variety of systematic methods of investigation. Spaeth (1967) recommended research be used

to study the administration of physical education and athletics (e.g. through the replication of studies involving leader behavior, organizational climates, and role expectations) in order to develop a more scientific basis for professional preparation and practice (p. 153).

Zeigler (1975) has also recognized the need for physical education and athletic research to include the behavioral aspects of the administrator. He encouraged the researcher to examine the educational opportunities found in interscholastic athletic administration:

The potential for pure and applied research in physical education are limitless. This is especially true because of the unique nature of this field and its relationship with so many of the humanities, social sciences, and natural Such is the case of developing the sciences. social science of administration. If we don't do something about this relationship quickly, for example, we are going to miss a fine opportunity to relate to our colleagues in educational administration and the behavioral sciences as they endeavor to learn how men may best manage organizations. . . . We should keep in mind that a recognized profession needs an organized body of knowledge based on research (Zeigler, 1967, p. 68).

Studies of Administration and Leadership in Relation to

#### Athletics

Before 1972 only a few studies had been conducted in the area of intercollegiate and interscholastic athletics in which administrative theory had been related to leadership behavior. Beginning with 1972 a number of research projects investigating the administrative and leadership behavior of athletic directors has been produced. An overwhelming number of these studies were conducted at the university/college level; very few of them examined the secondary school sports administrator. There were several studies specifically related to the leader behavior of athletic directors. Some such studies were those of Morris (1972), Sprandel (1973), Austin (1973), F. Buckiewicz (1974), Toms (1978), Teets (1978), Warren (1983), and Harper (1986), with three of these--Morris, Teets, and Harper--investigating the secondary school athletic director.

Morris (1972) compared the high school athletic director's self-perceived leader behavior to descriptions of that same behavior as perceived by members of the coaching staff in relation to their responsibilities and social distance. The subjects for the study were athletic directors and athletic coaches in 20 randomly selected Class AA high schools throughout Illinois. Using the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire-Real (LBDQ-Real), he concluded that significant differences existed between the athletic director's self-perceived behavior and descriptions of that same behavior as perceived by the coaching staff. There were no significant differences between the descriptions of the leader behaviors as perceived by head coaches and assistant coaches. The higher scores on the consideration dimension suggested that the human, instead of

the technical aspects of leadership, were more important to both the athletic director and the coaching staff.

The purpose of Teets' (1981) study was to determine if the athletic director's self-perception of real and ideal leader behavior differed from the head basketball coach's perception of that same behavior among the three school size classifications of West Virginia high schools. A total of 81 athletic directors and 73 head basketball coaches from 112 West Virginia high schools responded to the questionnaires. Teets concluded that in all three school size classifications, no significant differences were found between the athletic director's self-perceptions on either the ideal or real leader behavior dimensions and the head basketball coach's perceptions of the athletic directors.

Harper (1986) analyzed a group of state high school "Athletic Director of the Year" award winners from 1981-1985, to determine their perceptions of their own administrative behavior. The sample consisted of 90 secondary school athletic directors from across the country. Harper's conclusions include: (1) there are numerous skills and behaviors associated with the profession of athletic administration; (2) athletic directors perceived their responsibility and authority roles higher than their delegation role; and (3) the group of athletic directors, as a whole, were task-oriented in the exercise of their

professional responsibility, according to Fiedler's Contingency Theory.

The leadership behavior of the college athletic director was examined by Sprandel in 1973. By examining seven athletic directors, in selected midwestern colleges, he found that the sport administrators favored a consideration style of leadership behavior in their ratings of actual and ideal leadership behavior. Staff members though rated the athletic directors as failing to conform to the standards of leadership that they set for themselves.

The <u>LBDQ-Real</u> and <u>LBDQ-Ideal</u> was used by Austin in 1973 to measure the leadership behavior of eight university athletic directors. Also measured were the interpersonal needs of the athletic directors. Austin reached the following conclusions: (1) the athletic director's need for affection was significantly related to their consideration leadership ideology; (2) the athletic directors' mean ideal leadership behavior was significantly higher than the mean of such scores given the athletic directors by their head coaches; (3) Austin recommended that the ideal athletic director should strive to be more structured as an administrator than was presently the case.

The leadership behavior of 24 athletic directors in colleges and universities was studied by F. Buckiewicz using the <u>LBDQ-XII</u>. He concluded that athletic directors as a group, and coaches as a group, tended to perceive the

leadership behavior of athletic directors quite similarly. The perceptions by coaching staff members of their athletic director's leadership behavior was in agreement with the descriptions by the athletic directors of their own self-perceived behavior.

Toms (1978) explored the differences in leadership characteristics of athletic directors in the three divisions of the NCAA and the NAIA. Regarding the amount of difference among the four divisions on task-oriented leadership style and the amount of difference among the four divisions on people-oriented leadership style; Toms concluded there were no significant differences among the four divisions concerning leadership style. University and college athletic directors in the four divisions tended to perceive their behavior similarly.

Warren (1983) examined the differences in the perceived and expected leader behavior of 98 college athletic directors. Warren found significantly lower scores on both dimensions--consideration and initiating structure--of perceived leader behavior in comparison to expected leader behavior among athletic administrators. Of interest is the finding that athletic directors with 14-above years experience had a smaller margin of difference between their perceived and expected leader behavior, than athletic directors who had fewer years of experience. In 1986 Evans, Ramsey, Johnson, Renwick, and Vinneau compared male and female intercollegiate athletic directors on a number of variables, including leadership behavior, job perception, and job satisfaction. The sample consisted of 171 male athletic directors and 33 female athletic directors employed at institutions of higher education in all three divisions of the NCAA. The results of the study indicated that no statistical significant sex differences existed between the male and the female athletic directors in job satisfaction, job role perception, and leadership behavior.

## THE LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE (LBDQ AND LBDQ-XII)--ITS ORIGIN AND APPLICATION

Interest in the almost ageless phenomenon of leadership is as old as recorded history. In the past 60 years, researchers have applied various scientific methods in an attempt to develop leadership theory. The earliest theories tried to identify personal characteristics of the leader. Research by Stogdill (1948) and Meyers (1954) concluded there was no single characteristic possessed by all leaders. Instead, they found an interactional nature between the skills an administrator possessed and the leader's personal characteristics.

After World War II, attention was focused on leadership from a different perspective. Theories were concerned with

development of effective and cohesive organizations. This was accomplished not only by the reaching of organizational goals, but by allowing individuals the opportunity to reach their own potential in the satisfaction of their own needs. This philosophy is often referred to as humanistic theories.

Research in the humanistic theories area (March & Simon, 1958), (Etzioni, 1961), (Selznick, 1957) supported the idea that the leader must balance the needs and requirements of the organization and the employee. Halpin (1966), speaking to this philosophy, stated:

There is nothing especially novel about these two dimensions of leader behavior. . . Practical men know that the leader must lead--must initiate action and get things done. But because he must accomplish his purpose through other people, and without jeopardizing the intactness or integrity of the group, the skilled executive knows that he also must maintain good "human relations" if he is to succeed in furthering the purposes of the group. In short, if a leader--whether he be a school superintendent, an aircraft commander, or a business executive--is to be successful, he must contribute to both major group objectives of goal achievement and group maintenance (p. 87).

It was under these changing philosophical conditions that The Ohio State University initiated a study of the social nature of leadership. The project, begun in 1945, was carried out by the Bureau of Business Research at the University. Leadership was studied using an interdisciplinary approach, with the major contributors being psychologists, sociologists and economists. "When the Ohio State Leadership Studies were initiated in 1945, no satisfactory theory or definition of leadership was available" (Shartle, 1957, p. 1). Lacking a satisfactory definition, Shartle and his colleagues decided leadership should be studied value free. That is, <u>leadership</u> should not be thought of as synonymous with <u>good</u> <u>leadership</u>. The behavior of leaders was to be studied, and not whether this behavior was effective or ineffective (Shartle, 1957).

One of the principal objectives of the Ohio State Leadership Studies was the testing of hypotheses concerning the situational determination of leader behavior. Shartle (1957) explained:

It was hypothesized that performance in a position of leadership is determined in a large part by demands made upon the position. This and related sub-hypotheses were accompanied by hypotheses concerning the variables that are important in a study of leadership. On the basis of practical experience and the analysis of previous research, it was hypothesized that status, work performance, personal interactions, responsibility, authority, and personal behavior patterns constituted a minimum set of variables necessary for a study of leadership in organized groups. These hypotheses were not systematized so as to form a theoretical They serve primarily to give direction to system. the research, to define the variables to be investigated, and to suggest methods of measurement (Shartle, 1957, p. 1).

A product of the Ohio State Leadership Studies was development of an instrument that could be used to analyze leadership behavior in a variety of settings and situations. The testing instrument became known as the Leader Behavior <u>Description Questionnaire</u> or the <u>LBDQ</u>. The basic premise of the <u>LBDQ</u> is that a work situation is a complex social situation and leader behavior is a product of situational factors, coupled with personal characteristics (Hemphill & Coons, 1957).

With the <u>LBDQ</u>, an attempt was made to develop an objective method for describing how leaders went about doing what they did. In the realm of how a leader behaved, research staff members tentatively designated nine dimensions of leader behavior. They were: integration, communication, production emphasis, representation, fraternization, organization, evaluation, initiation and domination (Hemphill & Coons, 1957, p. 9).

Members of the Personnel Research Board of The Ohio State University wrote items of behavior which they felt applied to the nine dimensions of leader behavior. As a method of obtaining items of behavior from a larger population, two advanced university classes were asked to participate. In all, 1790 items were acquired from all sources. Of these, 150 were chosen and arranged in the form of a preliminary questionnaire. This questionnaire was supplied to each member of the staff for inspection. Each item was examined for overlap of content, freedom of overlap with items in other dimensions, range of content and general evaluation tone (Hemphill & Coons, 1957). After minor editing and several additions, the items were arranged

randomly throughout a questionnaire called the <u>Leader</u> Behavior Description Questionnaire or LBDQ.

For the <u>LBDQ</u>, the staff decided on a multiple choice format. The choices were five adverbs stating frequency of behavior that ranged from <u>always</u> to <u>never</u>. By using adverbs it was hoped to accomplish two things:

- To divide the range of frequency of behavior into approximately equal psychological steps by the five choices, and;
- 2. To coordinate the adverbs with the item in such a way that there would be no obvious reason to choose one response rather than the other, so far as the instrument itself would be concerned (Hemphill & Coons, 1957, p. 14).

In early testing of the <u>LBDQ</u> researchers studied armed forces personnel, individuals involved in the manufacturing process, educators, students, civil servants, and others. In all, twenty-nine different groups and group situations were identified among the completed questionnaires.

From the initial application of the <u>LBDQ</u> data collected from 152 leaders and their 205 subordinates allowed Hemphill and Coons (1957) to draw several significant conclusions, two of which are of particular note:

- 1. The extreme responses, <u>always</u> and <u>never</u>, were less frequently used by leaders in describing themselves than by subordinates in describing leaders (p. 17).
- 2. . . there are likely to be major differences between leaders' self-description of their behavior and descriptions of leader behavior by subordinates (p. 19).

Halpin and Winer (1957) undertook several refinements of the <u>LBDQ</u>. They believed previous studies demonstrated that the ten dimensions of the LBDQ were not mutually exclusive.

A modification of the <u>LBDQ</u> was used to study the leadership behavior of Air Force aircraft commanders. Of the four dimensions studied, two--consideration and initiating structure--"accounted for 83.2 percent of the common-factor variance" (Halpin & Winer, 1957, p. 41). The importance of these two dimensions of leader behavior was confirmed by Fleishman (1957).

In the final form of the <u>LBDQ</u> the total number of items was reduced to 40, with 15 measuring consideration, 15 items measuring structure, and 10 buffer items. In the relationship between superordinate and subordinate, scores of a high frequency of occurrence for consideration are indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth. A low frequency of occurrence reflects impersonal and authoritarian behavior of the leader.

The behavior of leaders scoring a high frequency of occurrence for structure indicates the leader defines the role members of the group are expected to assume. Well defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting the job done are also indicated (Halpin & Winer, 1957).

Two separate forms of the <u>LBDQ</u> were devised. The LBDQ-Real measures the leader's behavior as it actually

occurs. The <u>LBDQ-Ideal</u> is designed to measure how the leader should behave. The reliability and validity of the instruments are well established. Halpin (1957), using a sample of 670 crew members describing their 93 respective aircraft commanders, reported that reliability computed by the split-half method for the <u>LBDQ-Real</u> produced a .92 for consideration and a .83 for initiating structure. For the <u>LBDQ-Ideal</u>, the corresponding coefficients were .66 and .69 respectively.

Prior to the Ohio State Leadership Studies, leadership was viewed in only one direction or dimension. A person was considered to be either task oriented (authoritarian) or people oriented (democratic). The Ohio State research demonstrated the two elements of leadership--consideration and initiating structure--could be combined.

### LBDQ-Form XII

Factor analysis of the <u>LBDQ</u> items consistently yielded two strongly defined dimensions, identified as consideration and initiation of structure (Halpin & Winer, 1957) and (Fleishman, 1957). Theoretical work by Stogdill (1959) on the differentiation of positions and roles in organized groups, suggested it did not seem reasonable to believe that two factors were sufficient to account for the numerous variables in leader behavior. Based on theoretical considerations and a survey of the literature, Stogdill (1959) developed a new version of the <u>LBDQ</u> consisting of 12 dimensions or subscales.

To determine whether the 12 hypothesized dimensions of leader behavior actually described discrete aspects, the new subscales were used by Stogdill, Goode and Day in the study of ministers (1962), leaders in community development (1962), and United States senators (1963a). They concluded the new subscales could be described in terms of several clearly differentiated factors. Each factor was defined to a high degree by a separate subscale. The subscale intercorrelations exhibited high scores or separate factors suggesting that each factor was defined to a high degree by a separate subscale (Stogdill, 1963c). These findings suggested "that if the Leader Behavior Descriptions are to be used for comparative studies across populations, there is merit in retaining the identity of the separate subscales" (Stoqdill, Goode & Day, 1962, p. 268).

The <u>LBDQ-XII</u> measures 12 dimensions of perceived leader behavior. Stogdill (1963c) defined the dimensions as:

1. Representation. The leader is perceived to act as the representative of the group.

2. Demand Reconciliation. The leader is perceived to reconcile conflicting demands and reduce disorder to the system.

3. Tolerance of Uncertainty. The leader is perceived as able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety or upset.

4. Persuasiveness. The leader is perceived to use persuasion and argument effectively; exhibit strong convictions.

5. Initiation of Structure. The leader is perceived to clearly define own role, and lets followers know what is expected.

6. Tolerance of Freedom. The leader is perceived to allow followers scope for initiation, decision, and action.

7. Role Assumption. The leader is perceived to actively exercise the leadership role, rather than surrendering leadership to others.

8. Consideration. The leader is perceived to regard the comfort, well being, status and contribution of followers.

9. Production Emphasis. The leader is perceived to apply pressure for production output.

10. Predictive Accuracy. The leader is perceived to exhibit foresight and ability to predict outcomes accurately.

11. Integration. The leader is perceived to maintain a closely knit organization; resolve intermember conflicts.

12. Superior Orientation. The leader is perceived to maintain cordial relations with superiors; has influence with them; is striving for higher status.

The validity (Stogdill, 1969 & 1970) and reliability estimates (Stogdill, 1963c) of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> have been established. A discussion of both topics is contained in Chapter III, <u>Design Procedures For Study</u> since this is the instrument used in this study.

### Studies Using LBDQ

In one of the first uses of the <u>LBDQ</u>, Halpin (1954) studied the leadership behavior of airplane commanders. The research found that crew members rated their commanders higher on items measuring consideration, than they did on initiating structure. It was also concluded that high scores in both dimensions were desirable in a leader.

In a classic study, Halpin in 1955 examined the relationship between ideal behavior and real behavior using 64 educational administrators and 132 aircraft commanders. The educators scored higher, than did the commanders, on the consideration dimension for both the actual and ideal dimensions. The opposite was true for initiating structure. On the basis of the findings Halpin concluded, "<u>It may be</u> <u>said, in general, that a leader's beliefs about how he</u> <u>should behave as a leader are not highly associated with his</u> <u>behavior as described by his followers</u>" (Halpin, 1957, p. 68).

In 1957, Hemphill examined the leadership behavior of 22 department chairpersons in a liberal arts college.

Utilizing four instruments, including the <u>LBDQ</u>, he studied the relationship between the department heads' leader behavior and the reputation of their department for being well administrated. Hemphill concluded, "Those departments with the best 'reputations' for good administration have chairman who are described as above the average on <u>both</u> consideration and initiating structure and as more nearly meeting the leadership expected of an ideal chairman" (Hemphill, 1957, p. 85).

Using the <u>LBDQ-Real</u> and <u>LBDQ-Ideal</u> forms, Halpin (1958) investigated school superintendents, their respective boards of education, and a random sampling of their professional staffs. On the <u>LBDQ-Real</u>, no significant differences were found; however, all groups scored the ideal superintendent high in both consideration and initiating structure.

Kahn and Katz (1960) examined the relationship between leadership practices and productivity. They found that groups scoring their superiors higher in consideration, tended to out-produce groups who scored their superiors with lower scores.

Carson's (1962) research was concerned with the ability of reference groups to agree among themselves regarding perceived leader behavior. His sample included 20 presidents and deans, 115 department heads, and 141 students at 24 junior colleges. The leader behavior of the deans was described using the LBDQ. A number of conclusions resulted:

(1) within an institution, students agreed among themselves regarding the real and ideal leader behavior of the deans; (2) less consideration in the deans' behavior was perceived by the student leaders, than any other group; (3) the amount of consideration expected by all groups showed no significant differences; and (4) the president group expected and perceived more initiating structure than did the other groups. Carson's results showed that students placed equal importance on the two dimensions of leader behavior. However, the students perceived less and expected significantly more of both dimensions in the dean's leader behavior.

The perceived leader behavior of 32 directors of instruction was rated by the directors themselves and by their superintendent (Luckie, 1963). Results showed the superintendents perceived the director's of instruction behavior at a level lower than it should ideally be. Both groups agreed that consideration was the more important dimension of leader behavior. This study, and others like it, seemed to indicate that no person performs at the level considered to be ideal.

The perceptions and expectations of the dean's leader behavior was also studied by Verbeke (1966). Scores showed the faculty expected the deans to be higher on both dimensions of leader behavior. The results led Verbeke to

conclude there appeared to be a major role conflict between deans and their faculty.

Cox (1973) supported the conclusion of group conflict in perceptions of real and ideal leader behavior of university deans. His results showed subordinate groups expected more of the dean than they observed in actual behavior.

The real and ideal leadership behavior of 50 New York State elementary school principals was described by the principals themselves and their staffs (Hunt, 1967). In the principal's group, only a slight difference concerning both dimensions was discovered. Both groups had similar perceptions of the principals' actual behavior.

In investigating county extension directors, Black (1969) found subordinates preferred directors who scored high on consideration. In the initiating structure dimension, no significant differences were found.

Fifty-one superintendents were studied by Hoover (1979) using the real and ideal forms of the <u>LBDQ</u>. His sample included the superintendents, 90 central office administrators, 39 secondary school principals, and 39 elementary school principals. On the ideal dimension of leader behavior all groups tended to agree; however, significant differences occurred on the real consideration and initiating structure dimensions of leader behavior among the three groups. Recent applications of the <u>LBDQ</u> include a study by Butters and Gade (1982), who examined the job satisfaction and leadership behavior of residence hall assistants. They reported no significant differences in the level of job satisfaction, nor on the task dimension of perceived leadership behavior between the male and female residence hall assistants. Men, however, perceived the consideration aspect of leader behavior significantly higher.

A study concerning whether the job satisfaction of Georgia high school assistant principals was related to the perception of the principals' behavior as leader was reported by Dorminy and Brown in 1982. Results from the 239 assistant principals showed job satisfaction is associated with leaders' behavior and that race, experience in education, size of school, level of education, and years of experience as assistant principal have little effect on job satisfaction. Considerate principals were most likely to have assistant principals highly satisfied in extrinsic factors, such as salary, status, security, working conditions, supervision and policies.

Bunting (1982) tried to determine the relationship between the style of leadership exhibited by a principal and the classroom orientation of the principal's teachers. Principals were randomly selected from 20 elementary schools in a Mid-Atlantic state. The principals were rated by their faculties, using the <u>LBDQ-XII</u>, as to their general

leadership styles identified as person-oriented and system-oriented. Person-oriented leadership emphasizes warmth, rapport, and trust between leader and follower. System-oriented leadership focuses on completion of task and structure. Bunting concluded that teachers who perceived their principals to be strong in person-oriented leadership or system-oriented leadership or even the two combined, tended to give greater priority to the affective needs--individualism, self-awareness, self-acceptance--of their students.

### Studies in Physical Education and Athletics Using the LBDQ

Nalder (1967) used the <u>LBDQ</u> to obtain descriptions of head football coaches and selected alter groups. In regard to the head coaches perceived behavior relating to team members, significant differences were found among the groups. This conflict of perception was reduced in those groups that had a close social contact with the coach.

Carlson (1973) utilized the <u>LBDQ</u> to asses physical education chairperson's leadership behavior as self-perceived and by their faculties. The study included 20 chairpersons and their faculties in selected colleges and universities. No significant differences were found between the chairperson's leadership behavior as self-described and as described by their faculties.

Christensen, Milner and Christensen (1978) examined the relationship between sex of physical education department members and sex of department heads with perceived leadership qualities of department heads. Twenty-eight physical education departments were the sample; 14 departments had female heads and 14 departments had male heads. The results indicated the sex of both the faculty members and the department head were important interacting factors in the perception of the department head on the leadership qualities examined.

Additional studies in athletics utilizing the <u>LBDQ</u> were discussed in this chapter under the previous section, <u>III.</u> <u>Athletic Administration and Leadership</u>. Refer to Morris, 1972; Austin, 1973; Teets, 1981; and Warren, 1983.

The <u>LBDQ</u> has been used as a research tool almost exclusively in educational, military and industrial settings. Few comparable studies in either athletics or physical education were reported in the literature. The lack of comparable studies pointed out the need for more research investigating the leadership behavior of the athletic director, particularly at the secondary level. This was the focus of the present study.

### Studies Using the LBDQ-Form XII

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire -- Form XII was used by Jacobs (1965) to examine the relationship

between the leader behavior of junior high school principals and the number of curriculum innovations which had occurred during their administration over a two-year period. Six faculty members in each participating school described the leader behavior of eight high innovating principals and eight low innovating principals. Results showed that high innovating principals were scored higher on six dimensions of leader behavior: consideration, initiating structure, predictive accuracy, integration, representation, and persuasion. The data showed support for the hypothesis that the leader behavior of high innovating principals is significantly different from the leader behavior of low innovating principals.

Brown (1966) focused research attention on the leader behavior of 170 principals in Alberta, Canada. The sample included 1551 teachers who were administered the <u>LBDQ-XII</u>, along with the principals. Findings from this province-wide study indicated that teacher satisfaction and teacher confidence in the principal were sensitive to the perception of leadership in the school; however, the teachers' estimates of the schools' performance was not.

Van Meir's (1973) study was also concerned with the leader behavior of public school principals. A comparison by sex of male and female elementary school principals was achieved utilizing the <u>LBDQ-XII</u>. Conclusions found that female principals were rated higher by their faculties than

male elementary principals on all 12 dimensions of leader behavior under consideration.

A study by Morsink (1969) compared the differences between the leadership behavior of selected male and female secondary school principals, as self-perceived on the Responsibility, Authority, and Delegation Scales (RAD Scales) and as described by their staffs using the LBDO-XII. No significant differences between male and female principals were found on two dimensions of leader behavior. tolerance of uncertainty and consideration. Male teachers perceived female principals as differing significantly from male principals regarding initiation of structure. They felt male principals exhibited this trait more strongly than females did. Male principals were perceived by their faculties as allowing followers greater scope for initiative, decision-making and action. On all other dimensions of leader behavior women principals significantly outscored their male counterparts.

In a recent application of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u>, Christiano and Robinson (1982) found that being aware of leadership style and cognitive style may be useful in planning work assignments, choosing work role, delegating authority, and developing patterns of communication within any organization. A study by Powell and Butterfield (1984), examined stereotyping the successful male leader as being rated high in both consideration and initiation of

structure, and applied this stereotype to female leaders. Also examined was the hypothesis that high group performance was associated with perceptions of a high-high leadership style and high evaluations of the leader, regardless whether the leader actually exhibited a high-high or low-low leadership style. The results supported the hypothesis of the study. Group performance affected the evaluations and descriptions of leader behavior. This held true for male and female leaders. When group performance was high, leaders were evaluated more favorably and perceived as higher in consideration and in initiating structure. This conclusion seems to refute most research studies on the relationship between leader behavior and group performance, which had assumed that leader behavior determined the performance of the group.

# Studies in Physical Education and Athletics Using the LBDQ-Form XII

The <u>LBDQ-Form XII</u> was used by Olafson in 1969 to study the actual leadership behavior of physical education department chairpersons in junior colleges and universities. Olafson reached the following conclusions: (1) different departmental orientations exist in the junior college and university departments of physical education; (2) significant differences existed in the perceived leadership behavior of the physical education department chairperson as rated by the faculty and the chairpersons themselves; (3) overall leadership of the department chairperson, at both levels of higher education, was perceived to follow a consistent pattern.

Allen, in 1972, examined leadership and group interaction in departments of physical education for women in selected colleges and universities. Allen used four dimensions of the LBDQ-XII--initiation of structure, role assumption, tolerance of freedom, and consideration--and three other scales to represent seven experimental Subjects for this study were randomly selected variables. and included 27 female administrators of college and university departments of physical education and 176 faculty members of these same departments. Allen agreed with Olafson's (1969) finding that administrators and faculty members differ significantly in their perceptions of the leaders behavior. She further concluded administrators do not favor one leadership style.

Hedrick (1976) researched leadership behavior and organizational climate as it related to physical education department chairpersons in selected colleges and universities. Questionnaires were returned by 525 deans, department chairpersons, faculty, staff and students representing 16 institutions of higher education within the boundaries of the states that comprise the Atlantic Coast Conference. Hedrick determined that administrators agreed

among themselves regarding role-expectations and need-dispositions. Also, a person demonstrating those characteristics applicable to person-orientation (consideration) will be able to provide a more effective and efficient climate than the system-oriented (initiating structure) person.

Studies in athletics utilizing the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> can be found in this chapter under the previous section, <u>Athletic</u> <u>Administration and Leadership</u>. Refer to F. Buckiewicz, 1974; and Toms, 1978.

From the pertinent literature reviewed several conclusions regarding leadership behavior and the use of the LBDQ as an instrument of leader behavior measurement have (1) A vast amount of research in the area of been made: leadership behavior has been conducted. Very few studies, though, had investigated the leader behavior of interscholastic athletic directors; (2) Due to the lack of athletic leadership research, studies of a closely related nature were utilized to present an overview of the nature and function of leadership. This is desirable and useful since there are similarities in theories, concepts, and research methods between and among them; (3) The findings of the studies reviewed appear to support a situational and behavioral approach to administrative behavior research; and (4) The factors of leadership related to consideration are more highly valued by subordinates, while superordinates are

more concerned with the factors related to initiating structure. Superordinates scoring high in both dimensions are considered to be the more effective leaders.

# CHAPTER III

# DESIGN AND PROCEDURES FOR STUDY

The intent of this study was to examine perceived leader behavior of selected North Carolina secondary school athletic directors. The focus was on leader behavior as perceived by the athletic directors themselves, compared with this same behavior as perceived by head coaches of boys' basketball teams. In addition, background data were obtained from each athletic director participating in the study. Most of the background information was used to describe the population, but three items, age, classification of school size, and time spent performing duties (percentage of faculty assignment) were used in the examination of hypotheses.

Topics to be discussed in Chapter III include 1) Determination of the Sample, 2) Description of the Survey Questionnaire, 3) Administration of the Survey Questionnaire, 4) Hypotheses and 5) Plan for Analysis of Data.

# Determination of the Sample

In selecting individuals for this study, all federal guidelines for the use of human subjects were strictly adhered to. A dissertation proposal, along with a completed Principal Investigator's Project Outline Form (Appendix H), were submitted to the School of H.P.E.R.D., School Human Subjects Review Committee, for approval. A request was made to, and approved by, the School Human Subjects Review Committee to waive requiring each participant to sign an <u>Informed Consent Form</u>. Instead, the required information was included in the cover letter sent to each participant explaining that their participation was voluntary, that all responses were to be completely anonymous, and that a summary of the results of the study was available to them if they so requested. (See Appendix F, Letter of Introduction.) Consent was to be assumed if the questionnaire was returned.

All the secondary schools selected for this study were located within the boundaries of the State of North Carolina. The North Carolina High School Athletic Association Membership Schools 1986-1987 roster compiled by the North Carolina High School Athletic Association, Inc. (NCHSAA), was used to identify the schools and the athletic The subordinate group of head boys' basketball directors. coaches was identified by a list compiled and supplied by the North Carolina Coaches Association (NCCA). To those schools that did not list an athletic director (there were three) the survey instrument was addressed to, "The Athletic Director." To those schools whose head boys' basketball coach was not a member of the NCCA (there were 179) the

mailings were directed to, "Head Coach Boys' Basketball." In all instances where a blind mailing was made, a notation was included in the cover letter and in the questionnaire booklet explaining that, should the person be serving in the dual capacity of athletic director/head boys' basketball coach, they were not to complete the questionnaire. Only those schools which employed an athletic director and a head boys' basketball coach in two distinct and separate positions were included in this study.

Rationale for the above criteria was based on several factors. Membership in the North Carolina High School Athletic Association insured standard basic program procedures within the sample population such as date of the first practice, number of regular season contests, date of the first game, eligibility rules for tournament play, season length limitations, etc.

Morris (1972) compared the "Real" and "Ideal" self-perceived leadership behavior of athletic directors with their coaching staff's perceptions of that same behavior. It was determined there was a significant difference between the athletic director's perceived leadership behavior and the coaching staff's perception of that same behavior on both the real and ideal scales. In comparing the perceived leadership scores between head coaches and assistant coaches, Morris determined that no significant differences existed between the perceived leadership responses of head coaches and assistant coaches. Therefore, a head basketball coach, as a subordinate of the athletic director, is considered a valid and reliable representative of the coaching staff.

By using only head boys' basketball coaches, as opposed to head coaches of all sports, an attempt was made to eliminate additional variables which may have influenced subordinate responses. For example, size of the sport team, in-season/out-of-season, nature of the sport, and community interest may all influence how a head coach perceives the athletic director's behavior. Finally, it was deemed necessary to eliminate athletic directors who also served as the head boys' basketball coach.

North Carolina high schools are divided into four classifications, identified as--AAAA, AAA, AAA, and A.

Classification is to be guided but not bound by the ADM (average daily membership) figures averaging the daily membership in grades 10, 11 and 12 for the best three of the first four months as submitted to the State Department of Education. The initial classification and alignment plan will be effective with the 1986-87 school year for a minimum four-year period. In the third year ... and every other year thereafter, schools having special hardship conditions with regard to classification may appeal to the Board of Directors for relief. (Strunk, 1986, pp. 22-23).

Generally, schools are listed in rank order according to enrollment size, using ADM (average daily membership) figures. The largest twenty-five percent are classified as "AAAA"; the next twenty-five percent are classified as "AAA"; the next twenty-five percent classified as "AA"; and the smallest ranked twenty-five percent are classified as "A."

There were 333 secondary schools registered as members of NCHSAA. The NCCA had 154 members listed as head boys<sup>-</sup> basketball coaches. Using both membership lists, one school was eliminated because the head boys<sup>-</sup> basketball coach was also assigned the duties of athletic director. Of the remaining 332 secondary schools, the athletic director was identified by name in 329. Three blind mailings of the survey instrument addressed to the "Athletic Director" were required.

Because only 153 head boys' basketball coaches were members of the NCCA (one being eliminated), it was necessary to make 179 blind mailings of the survey instrument addressed to "Head Coach Boys' Basketball." This survey was limited to:

94 schools classified as AAAA
79 schools classified as AAA
81 schools classified as AA
78 schools classified as A

Three Hundred and thirty-two schools were sampled, involving 664 athletic directors and head boys' basketball coaches. Each participant was sent a Leadership Behavior Questionnaire Booklet, which included a cover letter, purpose page, the LBDQ-XII, and instructions. They were

requested to complete the questionnaire and return via a self-addressed stamped envelope provided. In addition, the athletic directors were asked to complete a background survey included in the booklet. This form requested information pertaining to age, school classification, percentage of time performing administrative duties, and educational background. A copy of both the athletic director's questionnaire (Appendix C), including the background survey sheet, and the head basketball coach's questionnaire (Appendix D), are included in the Appendices.

# Description of the Survey Questionnaire

The instrument used in this study was the <u>Leader</u> <u>Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII</u> developed by Ralph Stogdill (1963c). This scale was developed from the early work of Hemphill and Coons (1957), as part of the Ohio State Leadership Studies. The questionnaire was designed to obtain descriptions of leaders, by describing 12 dimensions of perceived leader behavior in terms of their frequency of occurrence. In addition to the questionnaire, a background survey was developed to obtain information on the athletic director.

#### Construction of the LBDQ

In 1945 the Bureau of Business Research at The Ohio State University initiated a series of studies on leadership. The group of researchers from such disciplines

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as economics, sociology and psychology created and developed an instrument to be used to analyze leadership behavior in a variety of situations and settings. The instrument was called the <u>Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire</u> or LBDQ.

The <u>LBDQ</u> has a multiple choice format with a Likert-type scale that ranges from <u>always</u> to <u>never</u>. Respondents are asked to describe the frequency with which the leader engages in the described leader behavior specified in each of the forty questionnaire items. The instrument was designed to measure two defined factors. These were identified by Halpin and Winer (1957) and Fleishman (1957) as "consideration" and "initiation of structure." Early research with the <u>LBDQ</u> studied armed forces personnel (Halpin, 1954, 1955), educators (Halpin, 1955; Halpin, 1958; Hemphill, 1950), and individuals involved in manufacturing (Fleishman, 1953, 1956, and 1957).

Two forms of the <u>LBDQ</u> were developed. The <u>LBDQ-Ideal</u> was designed to measure how the leader ought to behave, and the <u>LBDQ-Real</u> to measure the leader's actual behavior. Validity and reliability of the instruments have been established (Stogdill, 1969; and Halpin, 1957). Halpin (1957) reported that reliability computed by the split-half method for the <u>LBDQ-Real</u> produced a .92 for consideration and a .83 for initiating structure. For the <u>LBDQ-Ideal</u>, the corresponding coefficients were .66 and .69, respectively.

# LBDQ-Form XII

Though the <u>LBDQ</u> proved valid and reliable, it did not seem reasonable to believe that two factors, consideration and initiation of structure, were sufficient to account for the numerous variables in leader behavior. A new version of the <u>LBDQ</u> was developed by Stogdill (1959) and consisted of 12 dimensions or subscales.

To determine whether the 12 hypothesized dimensions of leader behavior actually described discrete aspects, the new subscales were used by Stogdill, Goode and Day in the study of ministers (1962), leaders in community development (1962), and United States senators (1963a). Their findings concluded that the new subscales can be described in terms of several clearly differentiated factors. Each factor was defined to a high degree by a separate subscale. The subscale intercorrelations exhibited high scores on separate factors suggesting that each factor was defined to a high degree by a separate subscale (Stogdill, 1963c). These findings suggest there is merit in retaining the identity of the separate subscales of the LBDQ-XII.

# The LBDQ-XII Questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of 100 items describing leader behavior. Wording of the individual items was modified to apply to this particular study. For example, item number 4 of the LBDQ-XII reads, "Lets group members know what is expected of them." This was adapted to read, "Lets coaches know what is expected of them."

The <u>LBDQ-XII</u> measures 12 dimensions of perceived leader behavior. Each dimension is composed of either five or ten questionnaire items. Stogdill (1963c) defined the dimensions as follows:

 Representation. The leader is perceived to act as the representative of the group. (5 items);

 Demand Reconciliation. The leader is perceived to reconcile conflicting demands and reduce disorder to the system. (5 items);

3. Tolerance of Uncertainty. The leader is perceived as able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety or upset. (10 items);

 Persuasiveness. The leader is perceived to use persuasion and argument effectively; exhibits strong convictions. (10 items);

5. Initiation of Structure. The leader is perceived to clearly define own role, and lets followers know what is expected. (10 items);

 Tolerance of Freedom. The leader is perceived to allow followers scope for initiation, decision, and action.
 (10 items).

7. Role Assumption. The leader is perceived to actively exercise the leadership role, rather than surrendering leadership to others. (10 items);

 8. Consideration. The leader is perceived to regard the comfort, well being, status and contribution of followers. (10 items);

9. Production Emphasis. The leader is perceived to apply pressure for productive output. (10 items);

10. Predictive Accuracy. The leader is perceived to exhibit foresight and ability to predict outcomes accurately. (5 items).;

11. Integration. The leader is perceived to maintain a closely knit organization; resolve intermember conflicts. (5 items).

12. Superior Orientation. The leader is perceived to maintain cordial relations with superiors; has influence with them; is striving for higher status. (10 items).

Consideration was given to the aesthetic and professional qualities in the printing of the questionnaire booklet. Authorization to use and adapt the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> for this study is included in Appendix I.

# Validity of LBDQ-XII

Validity implies that the given dimension measures the leader's pattern of behavior that it is intended to measure. The items in a dimension of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> define the pattern of leader behavior the dimension is intended to measure (Stogdill, 1969). With these two assumptions, Stogdill attempted to demonstrate the validity of the dimensions of

the LBDQ-XII. He described the procedure as follows:

- 1. Prepare a scenario that depicts a leader acting out the pattern of behavior described by the items in the subscale.
- 2. Make a motion picture of a leader (and followers) playing the role.
- 3. Show the movie to groups of observers who use the <u>LBDQ</u> (Form XII) to describe the behavior of the leader.
- 4. Test to determine whether the leader is described as significantly higher on the subscale (role) depicted by the movie than on other subscales of the LBDQ (Form XII) (Stogdill, 1969, pp. 153-154).

Stogdill tested six dimensions (representation, structure, tolerance of freedom, consideration, production emphasis, and superior orientation). Observers watched the movies and used the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> to describe the behavior of the supervisor. No significant differences were found between two actors playing the same role. For example, no differences were found between actors playing the "considerate supervisor." However, the actors playing a given role (e.g. consideration) were given significantly higher scores in that role than in other roles (e.g. structure, tolerance of freedom, etc.) (Stogdill, 1970).

Stogdill concluded:

Since each role was designed to portray the behaviors represented by the items in its respective subscale and since the same items were used by observers to describe the playing of the role, it can be concluded that the scales measure what they are purported to measure (1970, p. 5).

# Reliability of LBDQ-XII

Stogdill determined the reliability of the 12 dimensions of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> using a modified Kuder-Richardson formula. The formula was modified in that each item was correlated with the remainder of the items in its dimension, rather than with the dimension score including the item. The reliability coefficients for nine groups of leaders, including military, industrial, community, educational, and United States senators, were obtained by Stogdill (1963a). The senators scored a .38 reliability coefficient on the production emphasis dimension. Excluding that score, the reliability coefficients ranged from .54 to .87 for the nine different groups of leaders, indicating sufficient reliability for use in this study (Stogdill, 1963c).

# Norms for the LBDQ-XII

There are no norms for the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII. An examination of mean scores for several highly selected samples provided by Stogdill (1963c) shows relatively little variation among groups, but this cannot be concluded to be "normal behavior." "The questionnaire was designed to be a research device. It is not recommended for use in selection, assignment or assessment purposes" (Stogdill, 1963c, p. 8).

# Administration of the Survey Questionnaire

The survey instrument chosen for this study was the <u>Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII</u>. This instrument provides descriptions of leader behavior on 12 dimensions. The older form of the <u>LBDQ</u> measures only consideration and initiation of structure. Thus, using Form XII allowed for measurement of greater variance in leader behavior.

There were two separate questionnaire booklets prepared for this study; one for athletic directors, and one for head boys' basketball coaches. The only difference in the two questionnaires was a slight adaptation of the wording of each statement. The athletic director's questionnaire. printed on green paper, referred to his own perceived leadership behavior, while the head basketball coach's questionnaire, printed on yellow paper, referred to perceived leadership behavior of the athletic director. Both sets of booklets (Appendices C and D) contained a cover letter, with specific instructions for completing the forms. The subjects were requested to describe the approximate frequency with which the leader (athletic director) engaged in the specific behavior referred to in each of the 100 questionnaire items. The athletic director's booklet also contained a background survey sheet and all booklets contained a self-addressed stamped envelope for replies.

To insure confidentiality, each respondent was requested not to sign the form. Each questionnaire was coded prior to mailing. A master control chart was kept to make available a list of non-respondents for follow-up purposes. The coding system also protected the anonymity of each respondent.

One week after the initial mailing date, heavy snows caused cancellation of classes at many North Carolina schools for up to ten days. After that period, a postcard (Appendix G) was mailed to those subjects who had not responded. Ten days later, a second mailing of questionnaire booklets was made. A post-script was added to the letters (Appendix G) of those individuals where either the athletic director or head boys' basketball coach had already returned his completed booklet. This alerted the individual that the athletic director or head basketball coach at that school had responded and that the return of the booklet was now vitally important. One week later, a final postcard (Appendix G) was sent, concentrating on those schools where either the athletic director or basketball coach had already responded.

#### Hypotheses

# Major Hypotheses

Five major hypotheses were developed and twelve sub-hypotheses were formulated for each. The major hypotheses were:

- There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on each of the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII, based upon the age of the athletic director.
- 2. There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on each of the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII, based upon school size classification.
- 3. There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on each of the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII, based upon the time spent performing the athletic director's duties.
- 4. There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors perform to each of the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII, as reported by athletic directors and head boys' basketball coaches among the four school size classifications.
- 5. There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors perform to each of the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII, as reported by athletic directors and head boys' basketball coaches within each of the four school size classifications.

A listing of the five major hypotheses, including all sub-hypotheses (one for each of the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII), is contained in Appendix J.

# Plan for Analysis of Data

# Scoring the Data

According to instructions for using the <u>Leader Behavior</u> <u>Description Questionnaire-Form XII</u>, each subject is requested to describe the approximate frequency with which the leader (athletic director) engages in the specific behavior referred to in each of the 100 questionnaire items. The questionnaire uses Likert-type response categories, which are:

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-Always
-Often
-Occasionally
-Seldom
-Never
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The subject indicates a response by placing a check mark in a box corresponding to one of the adverbs. The following values are assigned to the response categories:

> 5-Always 4-Often 3-Occasionally 2-Seldom 1-Never

There are twenty circled items on the scoring key (Appendix E) which are scored in reverse direction, as follows: 1-Always 2-Often 3-Occasionally 4-Seldom 5-Never

After each item is scored, the values are transferred to the LBDQ-XII-Record Sheet (Appendix E). The assignment of items to different dimensions is indicated on the Record Sheet. For example, the integration subscale consists of items 19, 39, 69, 79, and 99. The sum of these five scores constitutes the score for the dimension integration. The score for representation consists of the sum of scores assigned to items 1, 11, 21, 31, and 41. By transferring the item scores from the questionnaire booklet to the scoring key, an accurate score for each dimension is obtained quickly (Stoqdill, 1963c). Background survey data for the athletic director were also recorded on the record sheet. Score sheets for athletic directors were printed on green paper. Yellow score sheets were utilized for the head boys' basketball coaches.

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro Academic Computer Center services were utilized in the analysis of data. The information for all respondents was transferred from the record sheets into the VAX-11/780 computer. An obtained data printout was examined visually back to the original questionnaires for verification.

# Analysis of Data

The data generated from the LBDQ-XII and the background survey were analyzed to determine the level of statistical significance of each hypothesis and sub-hypothesis. Each school which participated in the study had a paired score, the athletic director's and the head basketball coach's. Ιf only one of the two subjects from a school returned the questionnaire, the score was not considered. The five major hypotheses, each including a sub-hypothesis for each of the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII, were tested at the .01 level of significance. The alpha level was set at p < .01 because of the large number of significance tests that were run. Each sub-hypothesis, 60 altogether, was tested separately. Acceptance or rejection of these sub-hypotheses provided the basis for the acceptance of the major hypotheses from which they were derived.

To test hypotheses 1-3, the directors' scores were analyzed using a three-way analysis of variance, with age, school size classification, and time spent performing the athletic director's duties, as the independent variables. The dependent variables were the athletic director's scores on the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII.

To test hypothesis number 4, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was utilized to analyze the paired differences of athletic directors<sup>-</sup> and head basketball coaches<sup>-</sup> scores on the LBDQ-XII, in order to make comparisons of the perceived differences among the groups at each school classification. To test hypothesis number 5, paired t-Tests were used to determine if the athletic director's ratings of self-perceived leadership behavior and the head basketball coach's perceptions of that same behavior were significantly different. These tests were performed for each of the 12 dimensions of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> and for each of the four school size classifications.

The background survey responses were analyzed in quantitative terms. This information was used to describe the population of athletic directors, and to indicate how they varied in their professional backgrounds.

# Summary

The population of this study included selected secondary school athletic directors and head coaches of boys' basketball teams in the State of North Carolina. Two criteria must have been met for a school to be selected for this study: 1) The school had to be a member of the North Carolina High School Athletic Association (NCHSAA); and 2) The school had to employ an athletic director and a head coach for boys' basketball. These positions had to be separate and distinct and the same person could not hold both positions.

Two instruments were used in this study, the <u>Leader</u> Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII and a Background Information Survey. The <u>LBDQ-XII</u>, developed by Ralph Stogdill of The Ohio State University Leadership Studies, was used to describe the perceived leader behavior of athletic directors. The validity and reliability of the instrument have been established. In this study, leader behavior was perceived by the head boys' basketball coach and self-perceived by the athletic director.

The information survey was used to collect background data on all athletic directors. Data collected were used in the testing of hypotheses, and in a description of the sample population.

There were five major hypotheses, each containing 12 sub-hypotheses, that were tested. Analysis of data determined if any significant differences in the perception of leadership occurred between athletic directors and head boys' basketball coaches, at and among the four levels of secondary school classification. The directors' scores were analyzed using a three-way analysis of variance, with school size, age, and percentage of faculty assignment, as the independent variables. A one-way analysis of variance was employed to analyze the paired difference between the athletic directors' and the head basketball coaches' scores on the LBDQ-XII, in order to make comparisons of the perceived differences among the groups at each school classification. Paired t-Tests were utilized to determine if the athletic director's ratings of self-perceived

leadership behavior and the head basketball coach's ratings of that same behavior were significantly different. These tests were done for each dependent variable and for each of the four school size classifications. The various hypotheses were tested at the .Ol level of significance.

# CHAPTER IV

#### ANALYSIS OF DATA

The purpose of this chapter is to report the descriptive and statistical analyses of data in accordance with the procedures set forth in Chapter III. The <u>Leader Behavior</u> <u>Description Questionnaire--Form XII</u> was used to obtain data about perceptions of leadership behavior. The instrument was administered to all participants in the study: athletic directors and head coaches of boys' basketball teams. In addition, professional and background information was obtained from the athletic directors through utilization of the Background Information Survey.

Five major hypotheses, each having 12 sub-hypotheses, were tested at the .Ol level of significance. A three-way analysis of variance was used to test three of the major hypotheses. The fourth hypothesis was tested using a one-way analysis of variance and the fifth hypothesis utilized paired t-tests. Each of the 12 sub-hypotheses was tested separately. The acceptance or rejection of these supporting sub-hypotheses was the basis for the acceptance or rejection of the major hypotheses from which they were derived. The Background Information Survey responses were analyzed with the results reported in quantitative terms. Only findings deemed relevant to this study are included in this chapter.

The findings are presented according to the following sequence: 1) Summary of the Sample, 2) Age of the Athletic Director, 3) Highest Academic Degree Earned, 4) Undergraduate Degree Major, 5) Graduate Degree Major, 6) Athletic Directors Presently Teaching, 7) Time Per Contract to Perform the Athletic Director's Duties, 8) Sports Served as Head Coach, 9) Length of Time Served as Athletic Director in All Schools, 10) Length of Time Served as Athletic Director in Current School, 11) Length of Time Served as Teacher in All Schools, 12) Length of Time Served as Teacher in Current School, 13) Analysis of <u>LBDQ-XII</u> Data, 14) Major Hypothesis One, 15) Major Hypothesis Two, 16) Major Hypothesis Three, 17) Major Hypothesis Four, 18) Major

# Summary of the Sample

The secondary schools selected for this study were all located in the State of North Carolina. All schools in the initial population were members of the North Carolina High School Athletic Association, Inc. (NCHSAA). Schools where the athletic director was also the head boys' basketball coach were eliminated from the study. The original sample consisted of 332 schools, involving 664 athletic directors and head coaches. Each participant was mailed a Leadership Behavior Questionnaire Booklet, which included a cover letter, purpose page, the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> and instructions. In addition, the athletic director's booklet included the Background Information Survey through which professional and background information was obtained. Also enclosed was a self-addressed stamped envelope, permitting the respondents to return the booklet free from charge.

A total of two booklet mailings was done, each followed by a postcard reminder to those who had not replied. A total of 268 athletic directors, from the originally surveyed 332, returned their completed booklets, for a return rate of 81 percent. The coaches' return was slightly lower, 247 out of 332, for a 74 percent rate of return. Each school solicited to participate in the study was given a code number. This number was recorded on the mailed questionnaire booklets and on a master control chart. Returned booklets were paired, athletic director's and head basketball coach's, using the code numbers. If only one of the two subjects from a school returned the questionnaire, the booklet was not used. A 65 percent overall paired return rate (217 paired questionnaires returned out of a possible 332) was obtained from the schools initially included in the study (see Table 1). It was not possible to use the booklets from 34 schools because the athletic

Table 1

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	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
School Size Class	Original Number of Schools Sampled	Gross Paired Quest. Returned	Gross Percent Returned	Schools Disqualified AD = BBC	Bligible Schools Remaining	Net Paired Quest. Returned	Net Percent Returned
Class A	78	49	631	12	66	37	561
Class AA	81	55	681	8	73	47	648
Class NAA	79	53	671	4	75	49	651
Class AAAA	94	60	64\$	10	84	50	601
Total	332	217	65%	34	298	183	61.48

Sunmary of Sample: School Size Classifications, Questionnaires sent and Percentage Returned

Note. Column 1 represents the original number of secondary schools identified as members of NCHSAA.

- Column 2 represents schools that had both the athletic director (AD) and head basketball coach (BBC) return questionnaires.
- Column 3 represents the overall percentage of sampled schools that had paired questionnaires returned.
- Column 4 represents schools disqualified because the AD was also the BBC.
- Column 5 represents the number of originally sampled schools minus disqualified schools.
- Column 6 represents schools that had both the AD and BBC return questionnaires and where the AD's and BBC's positions were separate and distinct. N=183 ADs and 183 BBCs (paired).
- Column 7 represents the percentage of eligible schools that had paired questionnaires returned.

directors were also the head boys' basketball coaches. The data from 183 schools were used; this included the data from 183 athletic directors and 183 head boys' basketball coaches, for a usable return rate of 61.4 percent (see Table 1). Kerlinger (1986), discussing the return rate of mail questionnaires, posited that in education, "at best the researcher must content himself with returns as low as 50 or 60 percent" (p. 380). In that regard, the return rate for this study was considered to be quite good and indicated that the group was representative of secondary school athletic directors and head boys' basketball coaches in the State of North Carolina.

#### Age of the Athletic Director

Athletic directors in the four school size classifications were grouped, according to age, into four categories. The results are presented in Table 2. The largest number of athletic directors, 82 or 45 percent, fell within the 31-40 age bracket. Approximately 75 percent of the administrators were between the ages of 31-50. This finding supports the research of Teets (1981), who found that most of the high school athletic directors in the State of West Virginia were in the 35-50 years of age category. Only six athletic directors, in this study, were under the age of 31. In the 51+ age category, the majority of those athletic directors were in the larger school size

# Table 2

# Description of the Athletic Directors by Age and by School Size Classification

	Scho	ol Size	Classification			
Age Group	A	AA	AAA	AAAA	Total	Percent
30 and under	0	3	2	1	6	3.28
31 - 40	21	23	19	19	82	44.81
41 - 50	14	13	13	17	57	31.15
51+	2	8	15	13	38	20.76
Total (n)	37	47	49	50	183	100.00
Mean	40.57	40.96	44.10	45.26	42.90	
SD	5.22	7.98	8.84	8.83	8.19	
Min/Max Age	31-53	27-58	27-62	30-67	27-67	
Range	22	31	35	37	40	

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classifications. The youngest respondent was 27, the oldest 67. An examination of Table 2 supports the findings of Teets (1981) and Johansen (1975) who found that as the school size classification increased, so too did the mean age of the athletic directors.

# Highest Academic Degree Earned

As seen in Table 3, all 183 reporting athletic directors indicated they had earned a college degree. Ninety-four (51 percent) athletic directors had earned a master's degree. Twelve administrators had been awarded degrees past the master's, including three doctorates. Eleven of the post-master's degree holders were employed at the larger school size classifications (AAA or AAAA).

Table 3

Description of the Athletic Directors by Highest Degree Earned and by School Size Classification

	Scho	ol Size (		Percent		
Degree	A	A AA AAA AAAA	Total			
Bachelor's	20	25	16	16	77	42.07
Master's	16	22	26	30	94	51.37
Ed.S.	1	0	5	3	9	4.92
Doctor's	0	0	2	1	3	1.64

# Undergraduate Degree Major

A total of sixteen different undergraduate majors had been studied by the athletic directors (see Table 4). An overwhelming 65 percent of the sample had a degree in physical education. This finding supports Harper's (1986) investigation, where he found that 60 percent of the state winners of the secondary school athletic director-of-the-year award had undergraduate degrees in physical education. Biology and social studies were each indicated by ten administrators (5 percent), followed by history and math mentioned eight times apiece. Other majors mentioned more than once included business education (6), industrial arts (5), political science (4), science (4), spanish (2), and vocational education (2).

# Graduate Degree Major

Table 5 shows that 106 (58 percent) athletic directors had graduate degrees. Fourteen majors were mentioned, with educational administration (39 or 37 percent of the graduate degree holders) and physical education (34 or 32 percent) being the predominant choices. This finding closely parallels that of Harper's (1986) who, in a national study, found that physical education (39 percent) and educational administration (33 percent) were the most often mentioned choices for graduate degrees by secondary school athletic director-of-the-year award winners. Other majors mentioned

# Table 4

# Description of the Athletic Directors by Undergraduate Major Degree and by School Size Classification

Under Cred	Schoo	ol Size	Classification			
Under Grad. Major	A	AA	AAA	AAAA	Total	Percent
Physical						
Education	25	32	32	30	119	65.02
Biology	1	5	2	2	10	5.46
Social Studies	2	1	3	4	10	5.46
History	0	1	3	4	· 8	4.37
Mathematics	2	0	1	5	8	4.37
Business Education	2	1	2	1	6	3.28
Industrial Arts	1	1	2	1	5	2.73
Political Science	2	1	1	0	4	2.19
Science	1	2	0	1	4	2.19
Spanish	0	1	1	0	2	1.09
Vocational Education	1	0	0	1	2	1.09
Chemistry	0	0	0	1	1	.55
Economics	0	0	1	0	1	.55
French	0	0	1	0	1	.55
German	0	1	0	0	1	.55
Recreation	0	1	0	0	1	.55
	37	47	49	50	183	100.00

# Description of the Athletic Directors by Graduate Degree Major

#### School Size Classification Graduate Major A AA AAA AAAA Total Percent<sup>a</sup> Education Administration 36.79 Physical Education 32.08 Education 8.50 Driver Ed./ Safety 7.55 4.72 Mathematics Industrial Arts 1.89 Spanish 1.89 Guidance .94 History .94 Psychology .94 Social Studies .94 Sports Medicine .94 Vocational Education .94 .94 Biology No Graduate Degree \_\_\_\_ Total

### and by School Size Classification

N=183

"The percent listed indicates the percentage of the 106 graduate degree holders who earned a degree in that major area.

by two or more athletic directors included education (9), driver education/safety (8), mathematics (5), industrial arts (2), and Spanish (2). Bucher (1979) maintained, "It is important to stress that there is a need for having an athletic program that meets the needs of all, . . . and that it has leaders trained in physical education" (p. 183). This training is overwhelmingly noticeable at the undergraduate degree level, but this does not appear to be true at the postgraduate level. It seems that the athletic directors are educating themselves to enter other fields, perhaps as principals or main office administrators. If this is true, losing the better educated and more experienced athletic directors should be of concern to the field of sports administration.

### Athletic Directors Presently Teaching

As presented in Table 6, seventy-five percent of the respondents indicated that they also had teaching responsibilities. The responses showed that the larger schools (AAAA and AAA) had more non-teaching athletic directors, than did the smaller schools (AA and A).

# Number of Athletic Directors Who Are Also Teaching by School Size Classification

	Scho	ol Size (				
Teaching	A	AA	AAA	AAAA	Total	Percent
Yes	29	38	36	34	137	74.86
No	8	9	13	16	46	25.14
Total	37	47	49	50	183	100.00

### Time Per Contract to Perform the

### Athletic Director's Duties

The amount of designated contract time that the athletic director was accorded to perform administrative duties is presented in Table 7. A majority of the athletic directors, 103 or 56 percent, spent one-quarter or less of their work day on athletic administration. The investigations of both Teets (1981) and Johansen (1975) are supported by this finding. Teets found that 56 percent of the directors spent less than one-half time performing their duties. Johansen found that most athletic directors, in the State of Kansas, spent approximately one-fourth of their work day performing the athletic director's duties. Of the eight directors whose positions were full-time, seven were employed by the largest schools (AAAA). Athletic directors at 15 schools (8 percent) were not contracted for specific work time, but received additional pay to perform administrative duties. A number of the athletic directors indicated that while they were contracted specific time for administrative duties, in reality, they spent additional time in performing the tasks associated with sports administration.

#### Table 7

Description of the Athletic Directors by Designated Time in Contract to Perform Athletic Director's Duties and by School Size Classification

Time Per	Scho	ol Size (				
Contract	A	AA	AAA	AAAA	Total	Percent
Less Than One-Fourth	13	15	9	9	46	25.13
One-Fourth	16	17	16	8	57	31.15
One-Half	5	11	16	18	50	27.32
Three-Fourths	1	2	1	3	7	3.83
Full-Time	0	0	1	7	8	4.37
Over Load	2	2	6	5	15	8.20
Total	37	47	49	50	183	100.00

### Sports Served as Head Coach

The athletic directors were requested to list the sports for which they had served as a head coach. The results are presented in Table 8. The respondents mentioned a total of 12 sports. A majority of the athletic directors reported that they had been a head coach in more than one sport. Therefore, the number of sports mentioned (404), was larger than the number of athletic directors who had been a head coach (172). Football was the most frequently named sport (106), followed by basketball (73) and baseball (70). This finding is in agreement with the research of Harper (1986) and of Teets (1981). Harper found that winners of athletic director-of-the-year awards named football and basketball as the sports they most often coached. Teets mentioned that 47 percent of the athletic directors in his survey listed football as the sport most often coached. Since football and basketball are major high school sports, at least 58 percent of the reporting athletic directors had head coaching experience in a major sport. Athletic directors served more often as a head coach in team oriented sports, as opposed to individual oriented extra-curricular activities. Eleven athletic directors (6 percent) mentioned having had no head coaching experience.

Description of the Athletic Directors by Sports For Which They Served as Head Coach and by School Size Classification

	Schoo	ol Size	Classifi	cation		
Sport	A	AA	AAA	AAAA	Total <sup>a</sup>	Percent
Football	21	25	29	31	106	57.92
Basketball	16	22	18	17	73	39.89
Baseball	14	20	15	21	70	38.25
Track	8	15	19	13	55	30.05
Wrestling	7	2	5	10	24	13.11
Golf	5	8	5	6	24	13.11
Tennis	2	4	2	6	14	7.65
Softball	3	2	2	2	9	4.92
Cross-Country	2	0	4	2	8	4.37
Volleyball	1	2	0	3	6	3.28
Swimming	0	1	0	1	2	1.09
Soccer	1	0	0	1	2	1.09
None	3	1	4	3	11	6.01
Total					404	·····

#### N=183

<sup>a</sup>A number of the athletic directors served as head coach in two or more sports. Therefore, the number of sports mentioned (404) was larger than the number of athletic directors reporting (183).

"The figure listed indicates the percentage of the 183 athletic directors who served as a head coach in that sport.

### Length of Time Served as Athletic

### Director in All Schools

Athletic administrative experience provided further background information pertinent to the athletic director. Five categories, ranging from one to five years of experience to over 20 years, were developed. The majority of the sample, 84 or 46 percent, had 1-5 years of experience altogether in all the schools where they had served as athletic director. Seventy-two percent of the respondents had 10 or fewer years of experience. This finding supports the research of Teets (1981) and Toms (1978) who found that a majority of the sports administrators they surveyed had 10 or fewer years of experience. The least number of years of experience listed in this study was one, the most was 44. The larger the school size classification, the longer the average length of administrative experience. The complete results are presented in Table 9.

# Length of Time Served as Athletic

### Director in Current School

Table 10 presents an overview of the athletic directors' experience in their current schools. Over half (54 percent) of the athletic directors had between 1-5 years of experience at their current schools. The average number of years served at the school of present employment was approximately seven. This held true across the four school

Description of the Athletic Directors by Number of Years as Athletic Director in All Schools and by School Size

# Classification

	Schoo	ol Size	Classifi	cation		
Years	A	AA	AAA	AAAA	Total	Percent
1 - 5	15	21	28	20	84	45.90
6 - 10	13	13	7	14	47	25.68
11 - 15	5	4	5	5	. 19	10.38
16 - 20	3	5	4	5	17	9.30
Over 20	1	4	5	6	16	8.74
Total (n)	37	47	49	50	183	100.00
Mean	7.35	8.47	8.57	9.82	8.64	
<u>SD</u>	5.80	7.47	8.74	8.50	7.82	
Min/Max Length	1-21	1-31	1-37	1-44	1-44	
Range	20	30	36	43	43	

Description of the Athletic Directors by Number of Years as Athletic Director in Current School and by School Size

- <u></u>	Schoo	School Size Classification				
Years	A	AA	AAA	AAAA	Total	Percent
1 - 5	18	23	33	24	98	53.55
6 - 10	11	11	6	17	45	24.59
11 - 15	5	5	4	7	21	11.48
16 - 20	3	6	3	2	14	7.65
Over 20	0	2	3	0	5	2.73
Total (n)	37	47	49	50	183	100.00
Mean	6.65	7.53	6.47	6.50	6.79	
SD	5.44	6.38	7.10	4.95	6.02	
Min/Max Length	1-20	1-22	1-29	1-20	1-29	
Range	19	21	28	19	28	

Classification

size classifications. Only 19 (10 percent) athletic directors had 16 or more years of service at their current schools. A comparison of Tables 9 and 10 indicates a stability of the sample as athletic directors. The number of respondents in each of the years subcategories remains fairly consistent from table to table. This would seem to indicate that individuals, as athletic directors, tended to remain at their current school of employment.

### Length of Time Served as Teacher

### in All Schools

The number of years teaching experience that the athletic directors had in all schools is presented in Table 11. An examination of the Table reveals that the majority (108 or 59 percent) of the athletic directors had 16 or more years of teaching experience altogether, in all schools. While most of the directors fell within the 1-5 years of experience category as athletic administrators, only three percent were that inexperienced as teachers. The average North Carolina high school athletic director had 18.37 years of teaching experience. It can be concluded that the larger the school size, the more years of teaching experience the athletic director had.

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Description of the Athletic Directors by Number of Years as Teacher in All Schools and by School Size Classification

	Scho	ol Size	Classifi	cation		
Years	A	AA	AAA	AAAA	Total	Percent
1 - 5	2	1	, 1	1	5	2.73
6 - 10	7	12	3	4	26	14.21
11 - 15	7	10	17	10	44	24.04
16 - 20	12	10	11	9	42	22.95
Over 20	9	14	17	26	66	36.07
Total (n)	37	47	49	50	183	100.00
Mean	15.54	16.87	19.14	21.10	18.37	
SD	6.15	7.44	7.80	7.84	7.65	
Min/Max Length	4-28	5-33	3-37	4-34	3-37	
Range	24	28	34	30	34	

### Length of Time Served as Teacher

#### in Current School

Table 12 categorizes the number of teaching years of experience that the athletic directors had at the school of their current employment. Previously noted was the stability of the sample when comparing the length of time served as athletic director in all schools and in the current school (Tables 9 and 10). The number of athletic directors in each subcategory of years was fairly consistent. Thus, once individuals became athletic directors they tended to remain at their current schools of employment. This same stability is not evident in an examination of Tables 11 and 12. Athletic directors, as teachers, had an average of 18.37 years of experience in all schools (Table 11). Only 11.70 of those years (Table 12) were spent at their current schools of employment. Athletic directors, as teachers, seemed to move from one school to another. Considering the stability of the sample as athletic directors, it is hypothesized that, as teachers. many of those individuals who transferred from one position to another did so to seek or accept a promotion to some level of athletic or educational administration, or a combination of the two. Forty-six athletic directors mentioned having no years teaching service in their current schools. This would seem to indicate their responsibilities are of an administrative, rather than teaching nature.

# Description of the Athletic Directors by Number of Years as Teacher in Current School and by School Size Classification

	Scho	ol Size	Classifi	cation		
Years	A	. <b>AA</b>	AAA	AAAA	Total	Percent
None	8	9	13	16	46	25.14
1 - 5	7	11	13	9	40	21.86
6 - 10	3	0	1	3	7	3.82
11 - 15	· 5	11	7	3	26	14.21
16 - 20	8	6	10	11	35	19.12
Over 20	6	10	5	8	29	15.85
Total (n)	37	47	49	50	183	100.00
Mean	11.59	12.68	10.71	11.84	11.70	
SD	7.78	7.77	9.14	8.35	8.28	
Min/Max Length	0-28	2-29	0-35	0-31	0-35	
Range	28	27	35	31	35	

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### Analysis of LBDQ-XII Data

### Athletic Directors' Results

Major Hypotheses One

There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on each of the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII, based upon the age of the athletic director.

#### Major Hypothesis Two

There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on each of the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII, based upon school size classification.

#### Major Hypothesis Three

There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on each of the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII, based upon the time spent performing the athletic director's duties.

A three-way analysis of variance was utilized to test major hypotheses one, two and three, with the athletic director's age, school size classification, and time spent performing the athletic director's duties as the independent variables. Each of the 12 sub-hypotheses, 36 altogether, was tested separately using the .01 level of probability as a basis for rejecting or failing to reject. A rejection of one or more of these sub-hypotheses justified the rejection of the major null hypothesis from which they were derived. A listing of the major and sub-hypotheses is contained in Appendix J.

### Major Hypothesis One

A three-way analysis of variance was conducted using the athletic directors' scores on the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII. This analysis was done to test each stated sub-hypothesis for the athletic directors. Table 13 presents the athletic directors' self-perceived leadership behavior, based upon the age of the athletic director. The F ratio was not significant on 10 of the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII. Generally, the age of the athletic directors seemed to have little influence on their responses to the 12 leadership dimensions of the LBDQ-XII. The dimension. tolerance of uncertainty, though, produced an F ratio of 3.90 which was significant at the .010 level. Also significant was the dimension tolerance of freedom, which produced an F ratio of 4.43 and a probability less than .005. By examining the athletic directors mean scores in Table 14, it was concluded that athletic directors in the 51+ age group perceived themselves to be more tolerant of uncertainty than did their younger peers. Sports administrators in the 31-40 age group perceived themselves as least able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without becoming anxious or upset.

Athletic directors between the ages of 41-50, scored themselves as being tolerant of freedom to a greater degree than did the athletic directors in the other age categories. Administrators in the 31-40 age range, perceived themselves

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Analysis of Variance of the Athletic Directors' Leadership Behavior Based Upon the Age of the Athletic Director as Perceived by Themselves

	Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F	Probability Less Than
1.1	Representation	3	4.090	. 90	. 443
1.2	Demand Reconciliation	3	8.953	2.20	.089
1.3	Tolerance of Uncertainty	3	56.198	3.90	.010*
1.4	Persuasiveness	3	10.864	.62	.605
1.5	Initiation Of Structure	3	41.561	2.34	.075
1.6	Tolerance of Freedom	3	55.309	4.43	.005*
1.7	Role Assumption	3	45.457	2.67	.049
1.8	Consideration	3	29.351	2.39	.071
1.9	Production Emphasis	3	20.900	.77	.512
1.10	Predictive Accuracy	3	.336	.09	.965
1.11	Integration	3	12.261	2.02	.113
1.12	Superior Orientation	3	1.345	.07	. 978

N=183

\*p < .01. \*\*p < .001.

# Mean Scores of the Athletic Directors on the LBDQ-XII by Age

# of the Athletic Director (Major Hypothesis One)

		Dimen	sions of the <u>LBDQ</u> -	-XII
Age Group	N	Representation	Reconciliation	Tolerance of Uncertainty *
,			<u></u>	
30 & Under		21.0000	18.0000	33.3333
31 - 40	82	20.2439	17.6829	32.6463
41 - 50	57	20.7719	18.4561	34.2631
51+	38	20.6842	18.4737	34.9474
Χ.	183	20.5246	18.0984	33.6503
			Initiation of	Tolerance of
		Persuasiveness	Structure	Freedom *
30 & Under	6	36.5000	42.1667	42.1667
31 - 40	82	36.0488	39.2683	40.4024
41 - 50	57	36.9825	40.8070	42.5789
51+	38	36.7632	40.7105	41.6053
Χ.	183	36.5027	40.1421	41.3880
		Role		Production
		Assumption	Consideration	Emphasis
30 & Under	6	40.8333	39.6667	33.5000
31 - 40	82	38.4024	39.3537	33.7317
41 - 50	57	40.2281	40.7895	34.7368
51+	38	39.7368	40.7105	35.0526
Χ.	183	39.3279	40.0929	34.3115
		Predictive		Superior
		Accuracy	Integration	Orientation
30 & Under	6	17.6667	19.5000	38.0000
31 - 40	82	18.0366	19.2805	38.1585
41 - 50	57	18.0877	20.1930	38.3333
51+	38	18.0789	20.1842	37.9211
X.	183	18.0492	19.7596	38.1585

\*p < .01. \*\*p < .001.

to be the least tolerant of allowing their followers scope for initiative, decision-making, and action.

The findings of this hypothesis indicated that age generally had little influence on the overall responses of the athletic directors concerning self-perceptions of leadership behavior. This finding is supported by the research of Teets (1981). In his study, Teets found that athletic directors, regardless of their ages, perceived their leadership roles in interscholastic athletic programs similarly. The rejection of two sub-hypotheses, however, 1.3 and 1.6, provided the basis for the rejection of major hypothesis one.

### Major Hypothesis Two

A summary of the three-way analysis of variance on the scores of the athletic directors, based upon school size classification, is presented in Table 15. Only sub-hypothesis 2.3, tolerance of uncertainty, produced an F ratio of statistical significance. The produced F ratio of 4.21 was significant at the .007 level. An examination of the athletic directors mean scores in Table 16, indicated that athletic directors at school size classification AAAA perceived themselves to be the most tolerant of uncertainty. Athletic directors of AA schools perceived themselves to be the least tolerant of uncertainty and postponement.

Analysis of Variance of the Athletic Directors' Leadership

Behavior Based Upon School Size Classification as Perceived by

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# Themselves

ation	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F	Probability Less Than
resentation	3	9.708	2.13	.098
nd onciliation	3	11.099	2.73	.046
erance of ertainty	3	60.744	4.21	.007*
suasiveness	3	22.448	1.27	.285
iation Of Icture	3	42.555	2.40	.069
erance of edom	3	6.870	.55	.649
Assumption	3	54.185	3.18	.026
ideration	3	12.016	. 98	. 404
uction asis	3	17.644	.65	.584
ictive racy	3	1.534	.41	.745
gration	3	1.814	.30	.826
rior ntation	3	6.066	.30	.825
r g	acy ration ior	acy 3 ration 3 ior	acy 3 1.534 ration 3 1.814 ior	acy31.534.41ration31.814.30ior

N=183

\*p < .01. \*\*p < .001.

# Mean Scores of the Athletic Directors on the LBDQ-XII by

# School Size Classification (Major Hypothesis Two)

		Dimen	sions of the <u>LBDQ</u> -	-X11
chool Si	ze			Tolerance of
Class	N	Representation	Reconciliation	Uncertainty *
-	0.7			00.0400
A	37	20.1351	18.1351	33.6486
AA	47	20.0851	17.4255	32.0638
AAA	49	20.7347	18.5714	34.1224
AAAA	50	21.0200	18.2400	34.6800
Χ.	183	20.5246	18.0984	33.6503
			Initiation of	Tolerance of
		Persuasiveness	Structure	Freedom
A	37	36.5676	39.5405	41.0270
AA	47	35.5319	39.0426	41.8936
AAA	49	37.1429	41.0408	41.4490
AAAA	50	36.7400	40.7400	41.1200
Χ.	183	36.5027	40.1421	41.3880
		Role		Production
		Assumption	Consideration	Emphasis
A	37	39.5946	39.4865	33.3784
AA	47	37.7447	39.7234	34.1489
AAA	49	39.9592	40.5102	34.6123
AAAA	50	40.0000	40.4800	34.8600
Χ.	183	39.3279	40.0929	34.3115
		Predictive		Superior
		Accuracy	Integration	Orientation
A	37	18.0270	19.9459	37.8378
ĀA	47	17.9362	19.5745	37.9149
AAA	49	17.9184	19.9388	38.1429
AAAA	50	18.3000	19.6200	38.6400
Χ.	183	18.0492	19.7596	38.1585

\*p < .01. \*\*p < .001.

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Generally, the school size classification where the athletic directors were employed seemed to have little influence on their overall responses to the 12 leadership dimensions of the LBDQ-XII. Support for this conclusion was evident in the acceptance of 11 of the 12 null sub-hypotheses. Influencing this perception may be the similar experiences that the athletic directors have, regardless of school size. It appears that most athletic directors have in common an experience in coaching a major team sport and in undergraduate professional training. These shared experiences, regardless of school size classification, may cause athletic directors to perceive themselves as performing the tasks of sports administration in a similar manner. On the basis of there being statistical differences, however, between athletic directors' reported perceptions of leadership behavior on the tolerance of uncertainty dimension of the LBDQ-XII, based on school size classification, major hypothesis two was rejected.

#### Major Hypothesis Three

The analysis presented in Table 17 illustrates that the F ratio was not significant on any of the 12 dimensions, indicating there was no significant differences between the way athletic directors perceived their leadership behavior based on the amount of time they spent performing the

Analysis of Variance of the Athletic Directors' Leadership Behavior Based Upon the Designated Time in Contract to Perform the Athletic Director's Duties as Perceived by Themselves

	Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F	Probability Less Than
3.1	Representation	5	4.857	1.07	. 380
3.2	Demand Reconciliation	5	8.970	2.21	.056
3.3	Tolerance of Uncertainty	5	7.080	.49	.783
3.4	Persuasiveness	5	14.650	.83	.529
3.5	Initiation Of Structure	5	11.438	.64	.666
3.6	Tolerance of Freedom	5	18.167	1.46	. 207
3.7	Role Assumption	5	23.726	1.39	.230
3.8	Consideration	5	9.125	.74	.592
3.9	Production Emphasis	5	34.680	1.28	. 275
3.10	Predictive Accuracy	5	2.956	.79	.557
3.11	Integration	5	3.749	.62	.686
3.12	Superior Orientation	5	28.034	1.39	.230

### N=183

\*p < .01. \*\*p < .001.

athletic director's duties. Therefore, on the basis of these data, major hypothesis three was accepted. These findings are in agreement with those of Teets (1981), who found that athletic directors' self-perceptions of leadership behavior were not significantly different, whether the directors were employed more than half-time or less than half-time. The mean scores of the athletic directors, based upon time designated in contract to perform the athletic director's duties, are contained in Table 18.

### Comparative Results Between Athletic Director and Head Boys<sup>\*</sup> Basketball Coach

### Major Hypothesis Four

There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors perform to each of the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII, as reported by athletic directors and head boys basketball coaches among the four school size classifications.

### Major Hypothesis Five

There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors perform to each of the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII, as reported by athletic directors and head boys' basketball coaches within each of the four school size classifications.

To test the stated two major null hypotheses, each having 12 sub-hypotheses, two statistical applications were employed. To test major hypothesis four for differences among the four school size classifications, a one-way analysis of variance was utilized. Major hypothesis five was tested utilizing two-tailed t-ratio tests (t-test).

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# Mean Scores of the Athletic Directors on the LBDQ-XII by

# Designated Time in Contract to Perform the Athletic Director's

# Duties (Major Hypothesis Three)

		Dimen	sions of the <u>LBDQ</u> -	-XII
Time Per Contract	N	Representation	Reconciliation	Tolerance of Uncertainty
Less Than 1/4 One-Fourth One-Half Three-Fourths Full-Time Over-Load X.	46 57 50 7 8 15 183	20.3478 $20.4561$ $20.3600$ $21.1429$ $22.0000$ $20.8000$ $20.5246$	18.0652 18.0526 17.8000 17.0000 19.5000 19.1333 18.0984	33.4783 33.2807 33.7600 33.5714 34.5000 34.8000 33.6503
		Persuasiveness	Initiation of Structure	Tolerance of Freedom
Less Than 1/4 One-Fourth One-Half Three-Fourths Full-Time Over-Load X.	46 57 50 7 8 15 183	36.2391 36.1754 36.4200 38.7143 38.3750 36.8000 36.5027	$\begin{array}{r} 39.6304\\ 39.9825\\ 40.1800\\ 41.7143\\ 41.8750\\ \underline{40.1421}\\ 40.1421\end{array}$	41.6957 41.4211 40.8800 39.7143 40.6250 43.2000 41.3880
		Role Assumption	Consideration	Production Emphasis
Less Than 1/4 One-Fourth One-Half Three-Fourths Full-Time Over-Load X.	46 57 50 7 8 15 183	$\begin{array}{r} 39.1957\\ 39.2632\\ 38.6800\\ 38.7143\\ 41.2500\\ \underline{41.4000}\\ 39.3279\end{array}$	39.9783 39.7544 40.3400 38.7143 41.3750 40.8667 40.0929	$\begin{array}{r} 33.5870\\ 34.0175\\ 34.6400\\ 37.4286\\ 37.1250\\ 33.6000\\ 34.3115\end{array}$

(table continues)

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		Dimensions of the LBDQ-XII		
Time Per Contract	N	Predictive Accuracy	Integration	Superior Orientation
Less Than 1/4	46	18.3913	19.8261	37.5435
One-Fourth	57	17.7193	19.8421	38.1579
One-Half	50	18.2200	19.3200	37.8200
Three-Fourths	7	17.8571	20.0000	39.2857
Full-Time	8	17.6250	20.6250	41.7500
Over-Load	15	18.0000	20.1333	38.7333
Χ.	183	18.0492	19.7596	38.1585

\*p < .01. \*\*p < .001.

These were conducted to test for differences within each school size classification.

### Major Hypothesis Four

Major hypothesis four examined the paired differences of athletic directors' and head basketball coaches' scores on the LBDQ-XII, in order to make comparisons of the perceived differences among the four school size classifications. The difference scores were obtained by subtracting the mean scores of the head basketball coaches (Table 19) from the mean scores of the athletic directors (Table 16) on each of the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII, based on school size classification. The difference scores are presented in The testing of hypothesis four determined if the Table 20. differences which existed in the way that athletic directors and head coaches perceived the athletic director's leadership behavior, were significantly different among the four school size classifications. Or, was the leadership behavior of the athletic director perceived to be the same, regardless of the school size classification in which the director was employed.

To test for differences among the four school size classifications, a one-way ANOVA was performed. This program determined the significance of difference between the athletic directors' and head basketball coaches' mean scores on the LBDQ-XII. This procedure was repeated for

# Mean Scores of the Head Boys' Basketball Coaches on the

LBDQ-XII by School Size Classification

		Dimen	sions of the LBDQ-	-XII
School Size Class N		Representation	Reconciliation	Tolerance of Uncertainty
_				
A	37	18.3784	18.3243	34.5405
AA	47	18.3830	18.0213	36.0426
AAA	49	18.2245	17.9592	36.2449
AAAA	50	19.6200	$\frac{17.6200}{15.6200}$	35.1400
Χ.	183	18.6776	17.9563	35.5465
			Initiation of	Tolerance of
		Persuasiveness	Structure	Freedom
A	37	33.0270	35.4595	40.4054
ĀĀ	47	34.2553	36.0638	40.9574
AAA	49	34.4082	34.2245	40.8367
AAAA	50	33.7800	35.8600	40.3600
Χ.	183	33.9180	35.3934	40.6503
		Role		Production
		Assumption	Consideration	Emphasis
Α	37	37.1351	36.0270	30.6216
AA	47	37.4468	35.6596	29.6170
AAA	49	37.2245	35.5306	29.2449
AAAA	50	37.5600	34.7800	29.5600
X.	183	37.3552	35.4590	29.7049
		Predictive		Superior
		Accuracy	Integration	Orientation
Α	37	15.9730	17.5135	35.8108
AA	47	16.4681	16.7660	36.1915
AAA	49	16.8163	16.2245	35.3265
AAA	49 50	16.4600	16.7400	36.1600
X.	183	$\frac{10.4000}{16.4590}$	$\frac{10.7100}{16.7650}$	35.8743

\*p < .01. \*\*p < .001.

### Differences Between Athletic Directors' Mean Scores and Head.

# Coaches' Mean Scores on the LBDQ-XII by School Size

Classification

		Dimen	sions of the <u>LBDQ</u> -	-XII
School Size Class N		Representation	Reconciliation	Tolerance of Uncertainty
A	37	1.7568	-0.1892	-0.8919
AA	47	1.7021	-0.5957	-3.9787
AAA	49	2.5102	0.6122	-2.1224
AAAA	50	1.4000	0.6200	-0.4600
Χ.	183	1.8470	0.1421	-1.8962
			Initiation of	Tolerance of
		Persuasiveness	Structure	Freedom
A	37	3.5405	4.0811	0.6216
AA	47	1.2766	2.9787	0.9362
AAA	49	2.7347	6.8163	0.6122
AAAA	50	2.9600	4.8800	0.7600
Χ.	183	2.5847	4.7486	0.7377
		Role		Production
		Assumption	Consideration	Emphasis
A	37	2.4595	3.4595	2.7568
AA	47	0.2979	4.0638	4.5319
AAA	49	2.7347	4.9796	5.3673
AAAA	50	2.4400	5.7000	5.3000
Χ.	183	1.9727	4.6339	4.6066
		Predictive		Superior
		Accuracy	Integration	Orientation
A	37	2.0541	2.4324	2.0270
AA	47	1.4681	2.8085	1.7234
AAA	49	1.1020	3.7143	2.8163
AAAA	50	1.8400	2.8800	2.4800
Χ.	183	1.5902	2.9945	2.2842

Note. A positive difference score indicates that the athletic directors' mean scores were higher than the head basketball coaches' mean scores.

each of the 12 sub-hypotheses. A summary of the ANOVA results, presented in Table 21, shows that the F ratio produced was not significantly different in any of the 12 dimensions. For example, on the dimension representation the difference scores of 1.7568 for class A, 1.7021 for class AA, 2.5102 for class AAA, and 1.4000 for class AAAA (Table 20) were analyzed to determine if they were significantly different from each other. The produced F-ratio of 0.72 (Table 21) was not found to be significantly different. Thus, the perceived differences in the athletic director's leadership behavior, between the athletic director and the head coach, were not significantly different among the four school size classifications.

The similarity among classes may be attributed to the common experiences and expectations of the athletic directors and head coaches, regardless of school size classification. Common educational backgrounds, coaching experiences, and responsibilities, may all influence athletic directors' self-perceptions of leadership behavior. Influencing the coaches to the greatest degree may be a similarity in their expectations of the athletic directors' administrative abilities. Based on these data, the 12 null sub-hypotheses concerning differences among school size classifications were accepted, resulting in the acceptance of major hypothesis four.

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Analysis of Variance of the Athletic Directors' Leadership Behavior: Comparisons Between Perceptions by Athletic Directors and Perceptions by Head Boys' Basketball Coaches Based Upon School Size Classification

	Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	P	Probability Less Than
4.1	Representation	3	10.943	.72	.544
4.2	Demand Reconciliation	3	17.300	1.06	.368
4.3	Tolerance of Uncertainty	3	115.599	3.10	.028
4.4	Persuasiveness	3	40.791	.79	.501
4.5	Initiation Of Structure	3	124.692	1.90	.132
4.6	Tolerance of Freedom	3	1.049	.02	. 995
4.7	Role Assumption	3	59.991	1.02	.385
4.8	Consideration	3	42.998	.64	.588
4.9	Production Emphasis	З	59.757	1.01	. 390
4.10	Predictive Accuracy	З	7.819	.65	.585
4.11	Integration	3	13.119	.57	.633
4.12	Superior Orientation	3	11.007	.24	.867

N=183

\*p < .01. \*\*p < .001.

### Major Hypothesis Five

Paired t-tests were utilized to determine the significance of difference between the athletic directors mean scores (Table 16) and the mean scores of the coaches (Table 19) within each school size classification. This process was repeated for each of the 12 variables and the findings are presented in Table 22. The differences between the athletic directors' mean scores and the head coaches' mean scores on the LBDQ-XII, by school size classification, are presented in Table 20. Each dimension of the LBDQ-XII will be discussed separately. Included in each discussion will be a graphic representation of the difference between mean scores within each school size classification (Table 20) and the significance of difference results of the paired t-test findings (Table 22). The graphic representations are presented as Figures 1 through 12.

<u>Dimension 1: Representation</u>. The results of the differences between means of the athletic directors and head coaches responses on the first dimension of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> are presented in Figure 1. Each dimension of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> is composed of either five or ten questionnaire items. When scoring, each item may be given a value of one to five points. Representation, with five questionnaire items, can have a maximum score of 25 points.

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# Results of the t-Test of Difference Between the Means:

# Athletic Directors and Head Coaches

	Variable Name	t-Value	PR > T
	School Size Cla	assification A	
1.	Representation	2.51	.0167
2.	Reconciliation	-0.32	. 7534
З.	Tolerance of Uncertainty	-1.08	.2887
4.	Persuasiveness	2.79	.0084*
5.	Initiation of Structure	2.91	.0062*
6.	Tolerance of Freedom	0.55	.5827
7.	Role Assumption	2.21	.0332
8.	Consideration	2.97	.0053*
9.	Production Emphasis	2.24	.0310
0.	Predictive Accuracy	4.08	.0002**
1.	Integration	3.11	.0037*
2.	Superior Orientation	1.59	.1214
	School Size Clas	ssification AA	
1.	Representation	2.79	.0075*
2.	Reconciliation	-0.91	.3683
З.	Tolerance of Uncertainty	-3.95	.0003**
4.	Persuasiveness	1.25	.2177
5.	Initiation of Structure	2.42	.0193
6.	Tolerance of Freedom	0.95	.3477
7.	Role Assumption	0.26	.7994
8.	Consideration	3.21	.0024*
9.	Production Emphasis	4.56	.0001***
0.	Predictive Accuracy	2.77	.0080*
-	Integration	3.85	.0004**
1.	Incegration	3.00	.0004

# Table 22--continued

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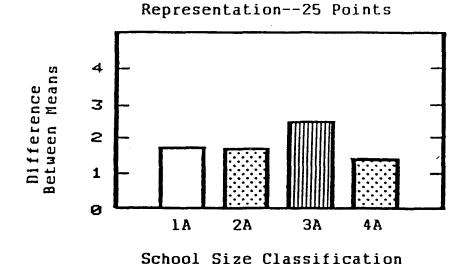
•

	Variable Name	t-Value	PR > T
	School Size Cla	raification AN	
		SSILICALIUN AAA	<u>-</u>
1.	Representation	4.75	.0001***
2.	Reconciliation	1.14	.2611
3.	Tolerance of Uncertainty	-2.50	.0161
1.	Persuasiveness	2.66	.0105*
5.	Initiation of Structure	5.87	.0001***
5.	Tolerance of Freedom	0.66	.5101
7.	Role Assumption	2.31	.0250
8.	Consideration	4.10	.0002**
9.	Production Emphasis	5.02	.0001***
).	Predictive Accuracy	2.14	.0379
L.	Integration	5.51	.0001***
2.	Superior Orientation	3.46	.0011**
	School Size Class	sification AAAA	<u> </u>
1.	Representation	2.77	.0080*
2.	Reconciliation	1.06	.2931
3.	Tolerance of Uncertainty	-0.53	.6004
ŀ.	Persuasiveness	3.02	.0040*
5.	Initiation of Structure	4.64	.0001***
5.	Tolerance of Freedom	0.87	.3910
7.	Role Assumption	2.34	.0236
3.	Consideration	4.97	.0001***
).	Production Emphasis	4.28	.0001***
3.	Predictive Accuracy	3.75	.0005**
	Integration	4.40	.0001***
1. 2.	Superior Orientation		

\*p < .01. \*\*p < .001. \*\*\*p < .0001.

. .

Figure 1. Difference between athletic directors' mean scores and head coaches' mean scores on the dimension of Representation within each school size classification.



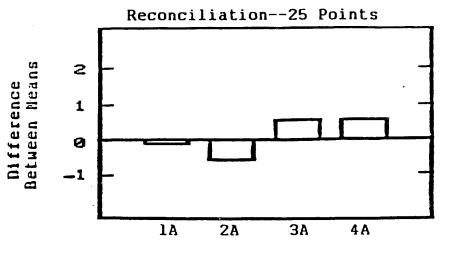
Significance level: \_\_\_\_=p < .01 \_\_\_\_=p < .001 \_\_\_\_=p < .0001

An examination of the data presented in Figure 1 indicates that a significant difference at the .0001 level of confidence was found between responses of the athletic directors and the head coaches in the AAA school size classification. A difference score of 2.5102 (Table 20) produced a t-ratio of 4.75, significant at the .0001 level (Table 22). There were also differences in the representation dimension within the AA and AAAA school size classifications, significant at the .01 level of confidence. Therefore, there was a significant difference in the way the athletic director was perceived to speak and act as the representative of the group. Athletic directors perceived themselves as speaking and acting as the group's representative to a higher degree than did the head basketball coaches in class AA, AAA, and AAAA schools.

Within the class A level, the produced t-ratio of 2.51 was not significant at the .01 level of confidence. On the basis of there being significant differences in the perceptions of the athletic director's leadership behavior on the representation dimension, sub-hypothesis 5.1 was rejected.

<u>Dimension 2: Demand Reconciliation</u>. The second dimension of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> is demand reconciliation. The data in Figure 2 represents the difference of mean scores and their significance level on this dimension.

Figure 2. Difference between athletic directors' mean scores and head coaches' mean scores on the dimension of Demand Reconciliation within each school size classification.

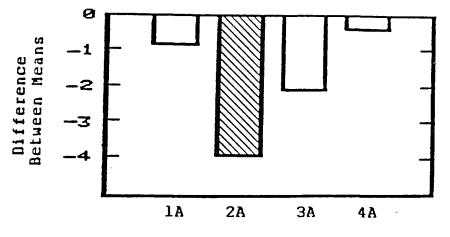


School Size Classification

Significance level:  $\boxed{} = p < .01 \qquad \boxed{} = p < .001 \qquad \boxed{} = p < .001$ 

An analysis of the data presented in Figure 2 shows there were no significant difference scores in the reported perceptions of the athletic directors' behavior on the second dimension of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u>. Therefore, no significant differences existed in the perceived degree to which athletic directors reconcile conflicting demands and reduce disorder to the system, as reported by the athletic directors themselves and the head boys' basketball coaches. On the basis of these data, the null sub-hypothesis 5.2 was accepted.

Dimension 3: Tolerance of Uncertainty. Tolerance of uncertainty is the third dimension of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u>. Figure 3 presents a graphic representation of the difference of mean scores on this subscale. Figure 3. Difference between athletic directors' mean scores and head coaches' mean scores on the dimension of Tolerance of Uncertainty within each school size classification.



Tolerance of Uncertainty--50 Points

School Size Classification

Significance level:  $\square = p < .01 \square = p < .001 \square = p < .001$ 

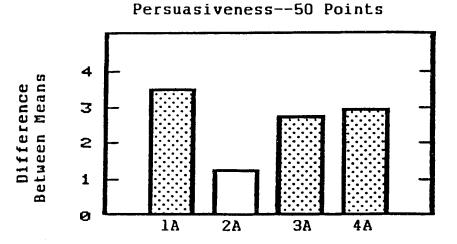
The data presented in Pigure 3 indicate that the difference between mean scores within school size classification AA were significantly different at the .001 level. A difference score of -3.9787 (Table 20) produced a t-ratio of -3.95, which was significant at the .0003 level of confidence (Table 22). Therefore, in class size AA, basketball head coaches perceived their athletic directors as able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety or becoming upset, to a significantly higher degree than did the sports administrators themselves.

The t-ratio was not significant at three of the school size classifications (A, AAA, AAAA). On the basis of there

being significant differences in class size AA, the null sub-hypothesis 5.3 was rejected.

Dimension 4: Persuasiveness. The fourth dimension of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> is persuasiveness. Figure 4 presents the differences between the athletic directors' mean scores and the head coaches' mean scores on this subscale.

Figure 4. Difference between athletic directors' mean scores and head coaches' mean scores on the dimension of Persuasiveness within each school size classification.



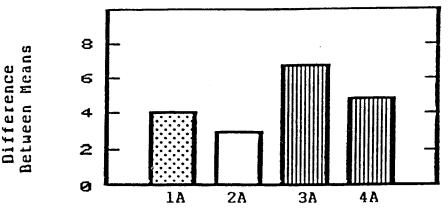
School Size Classification

Significance level:  $\square = p < .01$   $\square = p < .001$   $\square = p < .0001$ 

The data in Figure 4 show that the responses of the athletic directors and head coaches were significantly different at school size classifications A, AAA and AAAA on the persuasiveness behavior dimension. Table 22 indicates that the t-ratios of 2.79 for class A, 2.66 for class AAA, and 3.02 for class AAAA were significant at the .0084, .0105, and the .0040 levels, respectively. Therefore, athletic directors at these school sizes perceived themselves as using persuasion and argument effectively and exhibiting strong convictions to a higher degree than did their head basketball coaches. No statistical difference was found in the AA schools. On the basis of these data the null sub-hypothesis 5.4 was rejected.

<u>Dimension 5: Initiation of Structure</u>. The differences in perceptions of the athletic directors' leadership behavior on the fifth dimension of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> are presented in Figure 5. The graph represents differences of mean scores on initiation of structure.

<u>Pigure 5</u>. Difference between athletic directors' mean scores and head coaches' mean scores on the dimension of Initiation of Structure within each school size classification.



Initiation of Structure---50 Points

School Size Classification

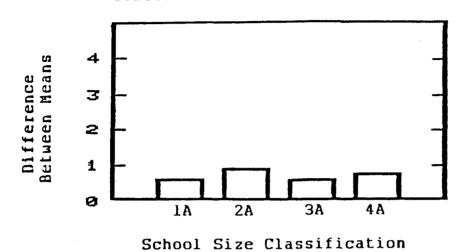
Significance level: \_\_\_\_=p < .01 \_\_\_\_=p < .001 \_\_\_\_=p < .001

Data on the initiation of structure dimension of leader behavior, presented in Figure 5, reveal significant differences between the athletic directors' and head coaches' mean scores at three school size classifications. Significant at the .0001 level of confidence were the AAA and AAAA school classes. The AAA schools had a difference score of 6.8163 which computed to a t-ratio of 5.87, and the AAAA schools had a difference score of 4.8800 and a t-ratio of 4.64 (Tables 20 and 22).

The computed t-ratio of the A schools, 2.91, was significant at the .0062 level. No significant difference was found between the athletic directors' scores and the head basketball coaches' scores in class size AA. Athletic directors in classes A, AAA, and AAAA described themselves as clearly defining their role and letting followers know what is expected of them to a greater degree than did their subordinates. On the basis of these data, sub-hypothesis 5.5 was rejected.

<u>Dimension 6: Tolerance of Freedom</u>. The sixth behavior dimension of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> is tolerance of freedom. Figure 6 is a graphic representation of the differences of mean scores for the four school size classifications.

<u>Figure 6</u>. Difference between athletic directors' mean scores and head coaches' mean scores on the dimension of Tolerance of Freedom within each school size classification.

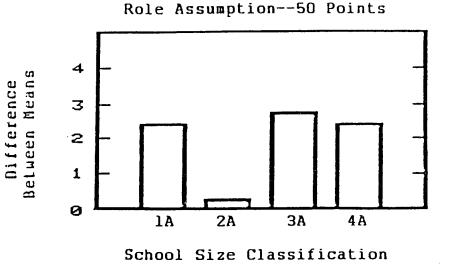


Tolerance of Freedom--50 Points

Significance level: = p < .01 = p < .001 = p < .001

The bar graph representation of mean score differences, presented in Figure 6, indicates that the computed t-ratios (Table 22) were not statistically significant. Therefore, there were no significant differences in the perceived degree to which athletic directors allowed followers scope for initiative, decision and action as perceived by the athletic directors and by the head coaches. On the basis of these data, sub-hypothesis 5.6 was accepted.

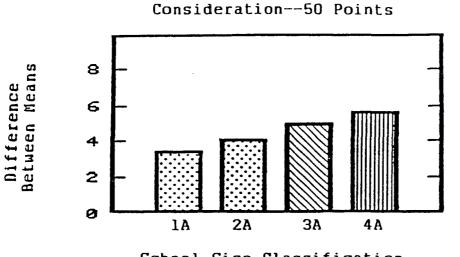
<u>Dimension 7: Role Assumption</u>. The differences in perceptions of the leader behavior of the athletic directors on the seventh dimension of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> are shown in Figure 7. The dimension measures role assumption. <u>Figure 7</u>. Difference between athletic directors' mean scores and head coaches' mean scores on the dimension of Role Assumption within each school size classification.



Significance level:  $\bigcirc = p < .01$   $\bigcirc = p < .001$   $\bigcirc = p < .001$ 

The results shown in Figure 7 indicate there are no significant differences of mean scores on the role assumption dimension. Therefore, there was no significant differences in the way athletic directors were perceived as actively exercising the leadership role instead of surrendering leadership to others, as self-perceived by the directors and as perceived by the subordinate head coaches. Based on these findings, sub-hypothesis 5.7 was accepted.

<u>Dimension 8: Consideration</u>. Consideration is the eighth dimension of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u>. The differences between mean scores on the dimension are presented in Figure 8. <u>Figure 8</u>. Difference between athletic directors' mean scores and head coaches' mean scores on the dimension of Consideration within each school size classification.



School Size Classification Significance level:  $= p < .01 \qquad \text{Significance level} = p < .001 \qquad \text{Significance level} = p < .0001 \qquad \text{Sign$ 

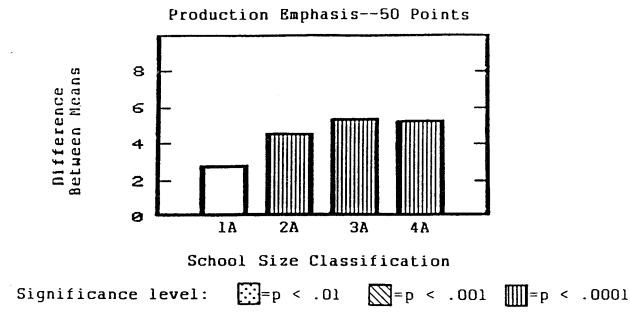
As shown in Figure 8, the mean score differences on consideration were statistically significant within all four school size classifications. This indicates that athletic directors viewed themselves as regarding the comfort, well-being, status and contribution of followers to a higher degree than they were perceived to be doing by the coaches. The larger the school size, the greater the difference in This indicates that the larger the school the mean scores. was, the less considerate the athletic director was This conclusion is supported by the perceived to be. research of Mondschein (1974) and Hemphill (1955) who found that organizational size does affect the leader's behavior. The larger the organization, the less concerned the

superordinate was regarding the components of consideration. Additional support for this finding comes from Stogdill He concluded that as organizational size (1948, 1974). increased the concern for task structuring increased, and the concerns for consideration decreased. This may be due in part to the additional responsibilities placed upon the athletic director in the larger schools. Increased staff size and additional program offerings may not allow the athletic director to spend much time with individual coaches. Thus, subordinates in larger size schools, who may have less of a personal relationship with their athletic director than do their peers employed in smaller schools, may for this reason perceive their director to be less considerate.

Class A and AA schools had computed t-ratios of 2.97 and 3.21, and were significant at the .0053 and .0024 levels of confidence (Table 22). The difference score of 4.9796 (Table 20) for class size AAA, was significant at the .0002 level. School size classification AAAA had a difference score of 5.7000, a t-ratio of 4.97 and was significant at the .0001 level. On the basis of these data, sub-hypothesis 5.8 was rejected.

<u>Dimension 9: Production Emphasis</u>. Production emphasis is the ninth dimension measured by the <u>LBDQ-XII</u>. The results of the differences in mean scores for this behavior are presented in Figure 9.

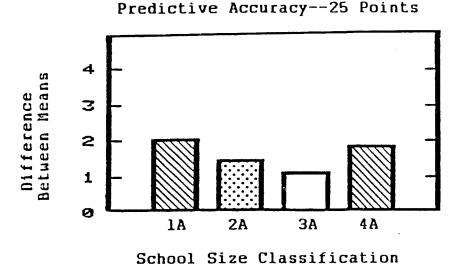
<u>Figure 9</u>. Difference between athletic directors' mean scores and head coaches' mean scores on the dimension of Production Emphasis within each school size classification.



An examination of Figure 9 indicates that the differences of mean scores of three school size classifications were significant at the .0001 level. The mean score difference at school size A did not produce a t-ratio (Table 22) which revealed any statistical difference. The t-ratios for the AA, AAA, and AAAA school classes, as presented in Table 22, were computed to be 4.56, 5.02 and 4.28, and were significant at the .0001 level. These differences in the mean scores showed that athletic directors perceived themselves as applying pressure for productive output to a greater degree than was perceived by the head coaches. On the basis of there being significant differences, the null sub-hypothesis 5.9 was rejected.

<u>Dimension 10:</u> Predictive Accuracy. The differences between athletic directors' scores and head coaches' scores on predictive accuracy are presented in Figure 10. This dimension is the tenth subscale of the LBDQ-XII.

<u>Figure 10</u>. Difference between athletic directors' mean scores and head coaches' mean scores on the dimension of Predictive Accuracy within each school size classification.



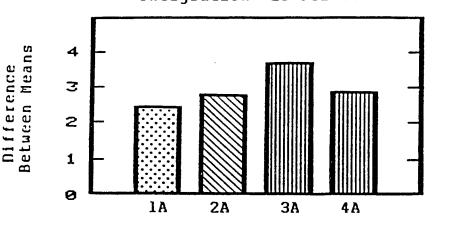
Significance level:  $\boxed{}=p < .01$   $\boxed{}=p < .001$   $\boxed{}=p < .001$ 

An analysis of the data in Figure 10 indicates significant differences between the athletic directors and head coaches perceptions of the athletic directors predictive accuracy behavior at three school size classifications. Class A, with a t-ratio of 4.08, was found to be significant at the .0002 level. Within class size AA, the variable produced a t-ratio of 2.77, significant at the .0080 level of confidence. Mean score differences in class AAAA were found significant at the .0005 level of confidence, based on a computed t-ratio of 3.75 (Table 22).

The athletic directors' higher mean scores indicated that the athletic directors believed themselves to exhibit foresight and the ability to predict outcomes accurately to a greater degree than did the coaches. On the basis of these data, sub-hypothesis 5.10 was rejected.

<u>Dimension 11: Integration</u>. Integration was the eleventh behavior dimension measured by the <u>LBDQ-XII</u>. A graphic representation of the results is presented in Figure 11.

<u>Figure 11</u>. Difference between athletic directors' mean scores and head coaches' mean scores on the dimension of Integration within each school size classification.

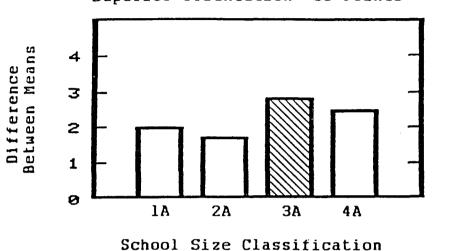


Integration--25 Points

School Size Classification

The computed t-ratios for the variable integration were found to be significant within all four school size classifications. Figure 11 reveals that classes AAAA and AAA were significant at the .0001 level; AA significant at the .001 level; and A size schools to be significant at the .01 level. Therefore, athletic directors' perceptions of their ability to maintain a closely-knit organization and resolve intermember conflicts are significantly different from the perceptions of the head coaches. Athletic directors believed their leadership behavior maintained a higher level of integration than did the coaches. School classification A had a computed t-ratio of 3.11, AA of 3.85, AAA of 5.51 and AAAA of 4.40 (Table 22). On the basis of these data, sub-hypothesis 5.11 was rejected.

<u>Dimension 12:</u> Superior Orientation. The final dimension of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> measures superior orientation. The results of the difference scores on that dimension are presented in Figure 12. <u>Figure 12</u>. Difference between athletic directors' mean scores and head coaches' mean scores on the dimension of Superior Orientation within each school size classification.



Superior Orientation--50 Points

Significance level:  $\boxed{}=p < .01 \qquad \boxed{}=p < .001 \qquad \boxed{}=p < .001$ 

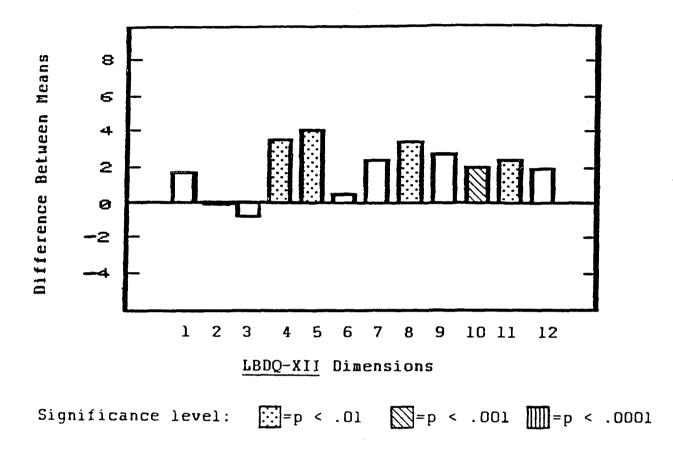
The data in Figure 12 indicate that athletic directors in school size classification AAA, viewed themselves as maintaining cordial relations with superiors, having influence over them, and as striving for higher status to a greater degree than did their coaches. The mean difference score of 2.8163 (Table 20) produced a t-ratio of 3.46, significant at the .0011 level (Table 22). The results from the other three school size classifications indicate no significance in the produced t-ratios. On the basis of there being significant differences in class size AAA, sub-hypothesis 5.12 was rejected.

The graphic representations shown in Figures 1 through 12 were presented in accordance with each dimension of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u>. A summary of this same information, namely the differences between mean scores for each of the 12 dimensions of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> and the significance of difference level for each dimension, is also presented by school size classifications in Figures 13, 14, 15, and 16. Figure 13 presents a composite of class A, Figure 14 of class AA, Figure 15 a summary of AAA, and Figure 16 presents the results of class size AAAA.

The summarization of the difference scores, presented in Figures 13, 14, 15 and 16, suggests the following points:

1. The difference of mean scores, between the athletic directors and head coaches, in the dimensions of demand reconciliation, tolerance of freedom and role assumption did not produce t-ratios deemed to be statistically significant in any of the four school size classifications. This allowed for acceptance of the null sub-hypotheses 5.2, 5.6 and 5.7.

2. The difference of mean scores in the dimensions of representation, tolerance of uncertainty, persuasiveness, initiation of structure, consideration, production emphasis, predictive accuracy, integration, and superior orientation produced t-ratios deemed to be statistically significant within at least one of the four school size classifications. This allowed for rejection of the null sub-hypotheses 5.1, 5.4, 5.5, 5.8, 5.9, 5.10, 5.11, and 5.12. Within each of these dimensions, the athletic directors' higher mean scores <u>Pigure 13.</u> Differences between athletic directors' mean scores and head coaches' mean scores on the twelve dimensions of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> in school size classification size A.

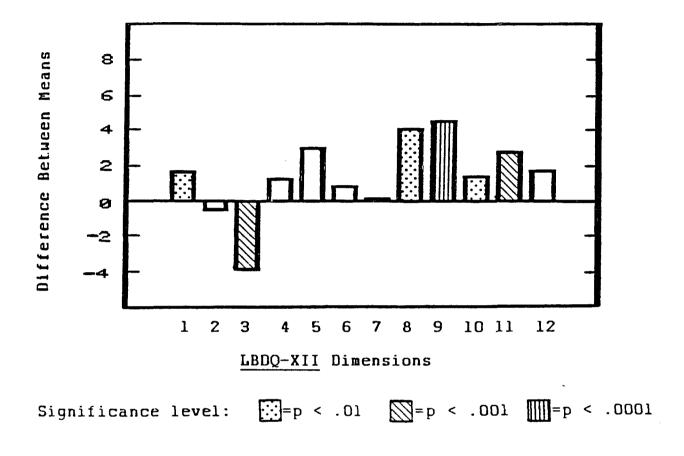


# Key to Dimensions

- 1. Representation
- 2. Reconciliation
- 3. Tolerance of Uncertainty
- 4. Persuasiveness
- 5. Initiation of Structure
- 6. Tolerance of Freedom

- 7. Role Assumption
- 8. Consideration
- 9. Production Emphasis
- 10. Predictive Accuracy
- 11. Integration
- 12. Superior Orientation

<u>Pigure 14</u>. Differences between athletic directors' mean scores and head coaches' mean scores on the twelve dimensions of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> in school size classification size AA.

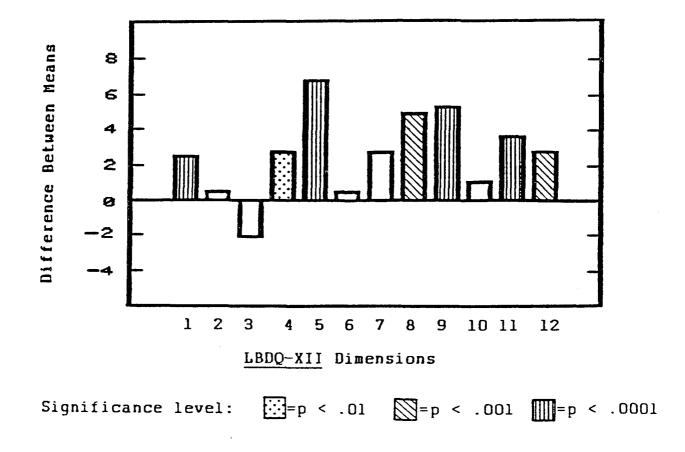


Key to Dimensions

- 1. Representation
- 2. Reconciliation
- 3. Tolerance of Uncertainty
- 4. Persuasiveness
- 5. Initiation of Structure
- 6. Tolerance of Freedom

- 7. Role Assumption
- 8. Consideration
  - 9. Production Emphasis
- 10. Predictive Accuracy
- 11. Integration
- 12. Superior Orientation

<u>Pigure 15</u>. Differences between athletic directors' mean scores and head coaches' mean scores on the twelve dimensions of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> in school size classification size AAA.

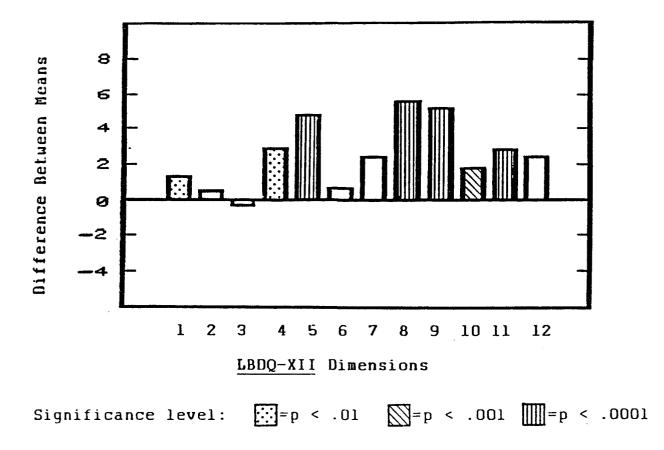


#### Key to Dimensions

- 1. Representation
- 2. Reconciliation
- 3. Tolerance of Uncertainty
- 4. Persuasiveness
- 5. Initiation of Structure
- 6. Tolerance of Freedom

- 7. Role Assumption
- 8. Consideration
- 9. Production Emphasis
- 10. Predictive Accuracy
- 11. Integration
- 12. Superior Orientation

<u>Figure 16</u>. Differences between athletic directors' mean scores and head coaches' mean scores on the twelve dimensions of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> in school size classification size AAAA.



# Key to Dimensions

1. Representation

2. Reconciliation

3. Tolerance of Uncertainty

4. Persuasiveness

5. Initiation of Structure

6. Tolerance of Freedom

- 7. Role Assumption
- 8. Consideration
- 9. Production Emphasis
- 10. Predictive Accuracy
- 11. Integration
- 12. Superior Orientation

indicated that they believed themselves as exhibiting the leadership behavior to a greater degree than did their head basketball coaches.

3. Higher mean scores by the head coaches, in school size classification AA, indicated that they perceived their athletic directors as being more tolerant of uncertainty, than did the athletic directors themselves. This allowed for rejection of the null sub-hypothesis 5.3.

4. The dimensions consideration and integration were found to be significantly different within each of the four school size classifications. In each dimension, the athletic directors mean scores were significantly higher than those of the head coaches. Therefore, athletic directors believed their leadership behavior maintained a higher level of consideration and integration than did the coaches.

5. Generally, the larger the school size classification, the greater the overall differences in the perceptions of the athletic directors' leadership behavior.

The findings that secondary school athletic directors perceived their leadership behavior at significantly higher levels than did their head boys' basketball coaches is in agreement with results reported by Morris (1972). The findings of Teets (1981), however, disagree with these results. Teets reported no significant differences between the perceived leadership behavior of high school athletic directors as described by themselves and such behavior as described by their head basketball coaches in three school size classifications.

Studies which examined the athletic director's leadership behavior at the college level also produced mixed results. Supporting the findings of this study of significant differences in the descriptions of the athletic director's leadership behavior were Sprandel (1973) and Austin (1973). In disagreement with these findings are F. Buckiewicz (1974) and Toms (1978) who found that athletic director's and their staffs perceived the athletic director's leadership behavior quite similarly.

Generally, the findings of the present study indicate that athletic directors had a higher perception of their leadership behavior than did their basketball coaches. One reason for these higher perceptions may be that athletic directors, because of their experiences and expectations, have a different view regarding the criteria for measuring leadership. A second reason to explain the differences in perceptions may be that athletic directors feel secure about themselves, because of their administrative position, and thus view their behavior with satisfaction. Another possibility to consider is that athletic directors may believe that they are doing their job to the best of their ability. Believing this, the athletic directors are likely to perceive their leadership behavior to be at a high level.

## Composite of LBDQ-XII Findings

This study had five major hypotheses, each containing 12 sub-hypotheses stated in accordance with the 12 dimensions of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u>. The subsequent acceptance of all sub-hypotheses, or rejection of any of the supporting sub-hypotheses, was the basis for the acceptance or rejection of the major hypotheses from which they were derived. An .01 level of significance was set. A summary of the hypotheses results is presented in Table 23. As shown in the summary, the major null hypotheses accepted were: three and four. The major null hypotheses rejected were: one, two and five.

#### Summary

Presented in this chapter were the findings of the descriptive and statistical analyses of the data. Five major and 60 sub-hypotheses were tested to assess the perceptions of athletic directors and head boys' basketball coaches regarding the leader behavior of secondary school athletic directors on the 12 dimensions of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u>. One- and three-way analyses of variance and paired t-tests were the major statistical procedures employed to test the hypotheses. The findings of the Background Information Survey were also reported in this chapter. This information, for which no specific hypotheses were developed, was presented in quantitative terms, according to the school size classification.

# Table 23

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# Summary of Acceptance or Rejection of Major and Sub-Hypotheses on the Twelve Dimensions of Leader Behavior

Sub- Hypotheses	Dimension	Null Hypotheses				
		Age of Athletic Director	School Size Classification	Time Per Contract	Comparison Among Classes	Results Within Classes
1	Representation	Accept	Accept	Accept	Accept	Reject*
2	Demand Reconciliation	Accept	Accept	Accept	Accept	Accept
3	Tolerance of Uncertainty	Reject*	Reject*	Accept	Accept	Reject*
4	Persuasi <b>veness</b>	Accept	Accept	Accept	Accept	Reject*
5	Initiation of Structure	Accept	Accept	Accept	Accept	Reject*
6	Tolerance of Freedom	Reject*	Accept	Accept	Accept	Accept
7	Role Assumption	Accept	Accept	Accept	Accept	Accept
8	Consideration	Accept	Accept	Accept	Accept	Reject*
9	Production Emphasis	Accept	Accept	Accept	Accept	Reject*
10	Predictive Accuracy	Accept	Accept	Accept	Accept	Reject*
11	Integration	Accept	Accept	Accept	Accept	Reject*
12	Superior Orientation	Accept	Accept	Accept	Accept	Reject*
	Major Hypotheses	Reject	Reject	Accept	Accept	Reject

The secondary schools selected for this study were all located in the State of North Carolina. They were identified by membership in the North Carolina High School Athletic Association, Inc. (NCHSAA). The data from 183 schools were used; this included paired questionnaires returned from the athletic director and the head basketball coach, for a total of 366 individuals, and a return rate of 64.1 percent.

The average age of the athletic directors was 42.9 years. The larger the school size classification, the older the mean age of the director. All 183 athletic directors had earned a college degree, with 58 percent having received a graduate degree. Physical education was the overwhelming undergraduate major of the athletic directors, while educational administration and physical education were the top choices for graduate degree majors. Three-quarters of the sports administrators were also employed as teachers, and 84 percent spent one-half or less of their work day performing the athletic director's responsibilities.

The athletic directors had amassed much experience as head coaches of athletic teams. Most reported they had been a head coach in two or more sports. A majority of the administrators had head coaching experience in at least one of the two major high school sports, football or basketball. Eleven athletic directors mentioned they had no head coaching experience at the secondary level.

The average North Carolina secondary school athletic director had spent 8.64 years as an athletic director, with approximately seven of those years as administrator at the school where presently employed. The sample proved to be considerably more experienced as teachers, having spent an average of 18.37 years teaching, with eleven and one-half years at the present school. The larger the school size classification, the more experience the athletic director had as both athletic director and teacher.

The testing of major hypothesis one revealed significant differences existed in the self-perceptions of the athletic directors' leadership behavior, based on the athletic director's age, in only two of the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII. These dimensions were tolerance of uncertainty and tolerance of freedom. In the dimension tolerance of uncertainty, athletic directors in the 51+ age group perceived themselves to be the most tolerant of uncertainty, while athletic directors in the 31-40 age group perceived themselves as least able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without becoming anxious or upset. In the dimension tolerance of freedom, athletic directors within the age group 41-50 scored themselves highest on this dimension, while athletic directors in the 31-40 age range perceived themselves to be the least tolerant of allowing followers scope for initiative, decision-making and action. The F ratio was not significant on the remaining 10 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII. On the basis of there being

significant differences in two dimensions, major null hypothesis one was rejected.

Major hypothesis two tested the athletic directors' scores based on school size classification. Eleven of the 12 dimensions of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> failed to produce a statistically significant F ratio, and the sub-hypotheses associated with each were accepted. Only null sub-hypothesis 2.3, tolerance of uncertainty, was found to be significant and was rejected. Sports administrators at school size classification AAAA perceived themselves to be the most tolerant of uncertainty. Athletic directors at AA schools perceived themselves to be the least tolerant of uncertainty and postponement. On the basis of there being statistically significant differences on the tolerance of uncertainty dimension major null hypothesis two was rejected.

The 12 sub-hypotheses derived from major null hypothesis three were rejected, indicating there were no significant differences between the way athletic directors perceived their leadership behavior, based on the amount of time they spent performing the athletic director's duties. On this basis, major null hypothesis three was accepted.

The testing of major null hypothesis four revealed that no significant differences existed between the mean scores of the athletic directors and the head coaches on the 12 dimensions of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u>, among the four school size classifications. That is, while differences existed in the way coaches viewed the athletic directors' leadership behavior, these differences were not statistically significant among the four school sizes. Based on these findings, major null hypothesis four was accepted.

Major null hypothesis five tested the differences between the athletic directors' mean scores and the head basketball coaches' mean scores, within each individual school size classification. This process was repeated for each of the 12 variables. Three of the null sub-hypotheses were accepted, indicating no significant differences existed in the athletic director's perceived leadership behavior as reported by the athletic directors themselves and by the head boys' basketball coaches. The accepted dimensions were demand reconciliation, tolerance of freedom, and role assumption. The null sub-hypotheses that were rejected, because significant differences did exist within at least one of the four school size classifications, were representation, tolerance of uncertainty, persuasiveness, initiation of structure, consideration, production emphasis, predictive accuracy, integration, and superior orientation. In all dimensions, except tolerance of uncertainty, the athletic directors perceived themselves as exhibiting the leadership behavior to a higher degree than did the head basketball coaches. In the dimension, tolerance of uncertainty, head coaches at school size classification AA, perceived their athletic directors as being able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without becoming anxious or

upset to a higher degree than did the athletic directors themselves. Due to the rejection of nine null sub-hypotheses, major null hypothesis five was rejected.

The review of literature presented in Chapter II revealed extensive research in leadership behavior as related to educational, military and industrial organizations. In spite of this wealth of research, differences between this study and others made it difficult to relate and discuss conclusions from those investigations. Reasons to explain this difficulty included the population studied, the survey instrument used, and the rigorous level of significance that was set.

The population studied in this research was secondary school athletic directors and relatively few studies have examined the leadership behavior of these individuals. Of the few studies conducted, not one could be found which examined the athletic directors on the twelve dimensions of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u>. Finally, it is possible that significant results may have been discarded because of the stringency of the .Ol level of significance that was set. Yet, because of the large number of significance tests that were required, it was deemed necessary to set a high level of certainty. Based on these differences, the structure chosen for this study did not yield results that seemed to indicate further discussion than was presented.

#### CHAPTER V

# SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

## The Problem

The purpose of this study was to investigate leadership behavior in athletic departments of selected North Carolina High Schools. From data collected, utilizing the <u>Leader</u> <u>Behavior Description Questionnaire--Form XII</u>, this study sought answers to the following questions:

 Is there a difference in the way athletic directors perceive their leadership behavior based upon the age of the athletic director?

2. Is there a difference in the way athletic directors perceive their leadership behavior based upon school size classification?

3. Is there a difference in the way athletic directors perceive their leadership behavior based upon the amount of time they spend performing the athletic director's duties?

4. Is there a difference in the way subordinate head boys' basketball coaches perceive athletic directors' leadership behavior, when compared to the athletic directors' self-perceptions of that same behavior, among the four school size classifications? 5. Is there a difference in the way subordinate head boys' basketball coaches perceive athletic directors' leadership behavior, when compared to the athletic directors' self-perceptions of that same behavior, within each of the four school size classifications?

In addition, background data were obtained from each participating athletic director. This information was used to describe the sample, with three items, age, school size classification, and time spent performing the athletic director's duties, utilized in the examination of hypotheses. Results of the Background Information Survey were analyzed and presented in quantitative terms by number of responses to the specific survey item.

#### Population

The sample included 183 secondary schools in the State of North Carolina. Paired questionnaires were returned by the athletic director and head boys basketball coach at each participating school.

#### Data Collection Instruments

The instruments used in this study were the <u>Leader</u> <u>Behavior Description Questionnaire--Form XII</u>, completed by the athletic directors and head coaches. Athletic directors were also asked to complete the Background Information survey, included in their questionnaire booklets.

Subjects were solicited by mail from an original list which included 332 secondary schools registered as members of the North Carolina High School Athletic Association. Each athletic director and head boys' basketball coach was mailed a questionnaire booklet which included a coded survey instrument to preserve the anonymity of the responding individuals. Specific instructions for completing these forms were found on the purpose page in each booklet. Return of the questionnaire was by a self-addressed stamped manila envelope.

## Statistical Analysis

Upon receipt of the completed instruments, responses were transferred to hand scored answer sheets. These data were later input into the University's Vax-11/780 computer. The Vax computer in the University of North Carolina at Greensboro Academic Computer Center performed all computations of the statistical applications needed for treatment of data. The following statistical applications were performed: frequency analysis, one-way analysis of variance, three-way analysis of variance, and two-tailed t-ratio tests for differences between means. The acceptable level of significance was set at .01.

# Findings of the Study

There were five major hypotheses, each containing 12 sub-hypotheses in accordance with the 12 dimensions of the

<u>LBDQ-XII</u>, investigated in this study. The sub-hypotheses were tested separately; acceptance or rejection of these was the basis for the acceptance or rejection of the major hypothesis from which they were derived. The following results were obtained from responses to the LBDQ-XII.

#### Major Hypothesis One

There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on each of the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII, based upon the age of the athletic director.

The mean scores of sub-hypotheses 1.3, tolerance of uncertainty and 1.6, tolerance of freedom, were found to be significantly different, and were rejected. The dimension tolerance of uncertainty, produced an F ratio of 3.90 which was significant at the .010 level. Athletic directors in the 51+ age group perceived themselves to be the most tolerant of uncertainty; administrators 31-40 perceived themselves as least able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without becoming anxious or upset.

The ANOVA results on the athletic directors' scores showed there was a significant difference (p < .005) in the perceived degree to which athletic directors were tolerant of freedom, based on the athletic director's age. Sports administrators between the ages of 41-50, perceived themselves as being tolerant of freedom to a greater degree than did their peers in the other age groups. Athletic directors in the 31-40 age group, scored themselves as least

tolerant of allowing their followers scope for initiative, decision-making, and action. Generally, however, the age of the athletic directors seemed to have little influence on their responses to the 12 leadership dimensions of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u>. The rejection of two null sub-hypotheses, 1.3 and 1.6, provided the basis for the rejection of major null hypothesis one.

#### Major Hypothesis Two

There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on each of the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII, based upon school size classification.

The three-way analysis of variance on the scores of the athletic directors, based on school size classification, indicated there was a significant difference (p < .007) in the dimension tolerance of uncertainty. Therefore, sub-hypothesis 2.3 was rejected. Athletic directors at school size AAAA perceived themselves to be the most tolerant of uncertainty, while AA sports administrators scored themselves as least able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement. On 11 of 12 dimensions of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u>, school size classification was not a significant factor in the athletic directors' self-perceived leadership behavior. On the basis of there being statistical differences between athletic directors' reported perceptions of leadership behavior on the tolerance of uncertainty dimension, based on school size classification, major null hypothesis two was rejected.

#### Major Hypothesis Three

There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on each of the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII, based upon the time spent performing the athletic director's duties.

Major hypothesis three was accepted subsequent to the acceptance of each sub-hypotheses. Analysis of data on the 12 dimensions of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> indicated there were no significant differences in the athletic director's perceived leadership behavior, based on the amount of time spent performing the athletic director's duties.

#### Major Hypothesis Four

There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors perform to each of the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII, as reported by athletic directors and head boys' basketball coaches among the four school size classifications.

To test for significant differences between the athletic directors' scores and the head coaches' scores on the <u>LBDQ-XII</u>, among the four school size classifications, a one-way ANOVA was done. The F ratios produced were not significant in any of the 12 dimensions. Thus, perceived differences in the athletic director's leadership behavior, between the athletic director and the head coach, were not statistically significant among the four school sizes. On the basis of these findings, major hypothesis four was accepted.

# Major Hypothesis Five

There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors perform to each of the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII, as reported by athletic directors and head boys basketball coaches within each of the four school size classifications.

To determine the significance of difference within each individual school size classification, between the athletic directors' means scores and the mean scores of the coaches, paired t-tests were used. This process was repeated for each of the 12 dimensions of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u>, within each school size classification.

Testing of the difference of mean scores showed that only three dimensions of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> produced t-ratios that were not significantly different within any of the four school size classifications. The null sub-hypotheses accepted were 5.2 demand reconciliation, 5.6 tolerance of freedom, and 5.7 role assumption. Acceptance of these sub-hypotheses indicated that no statistically significant differences existed in the athletic director's perceived leadership behavior, as reported by the athletic directors themselves and by the head boys' basketball coaches.

Nine sub-hypotheses were rejected because the differences between mean scores did produce t-ratios deemed statistically significant within at least one of the four

school size classifications. Rejected were the sub-hypotheses 5.1 representation, 5.3 tolerance of uncertainty, 5.4 persuasiveness, 5.5 initiation of structure, 5.8 consideration, 5.9 production emphasis, 5.10 predictive accuracy, 5.11 integration, and 5.12 super The dimensions consideration and integration orientation. were found to be significantly different within each of the four school size classifications. In all dimensions, except 5.3 tolerance of uncertainty, the athletic directors perceived themselves as exhibiting the leadership behavior to a higher degree than did the head coaches. In the tolerance of uncertainty dimension, head coaches at school size classification AA perceived their athletic directors as being able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without becoming anxious or upset to a higher degree than did the athletic directors themselves.

<u>Composite findings in school size classification A</u>. In school size classification A, the difference of mean scores between the athletic directors and the head coaches, were statistically significant in five dimensions of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u>. In each of these dimensions, the athletic directors perceived themselves as exhibiting the leadership behavior to a higher degree than did the head coaches. Significant at the .Ol level were the subscales persuasiveness, initiation of structure, consideration, and integration. The dimension predictive accuracy was found to be significant at the .001 level of confidence.

Composite findings in school size classification AA. Ιn school size classification AA, six dimensions had statistically significant differences between mean scores of the athletic directors and head coaches. Significant at the .01 level were the dimensions representation, consideration, and predictive accuracy. Tolerance of uncertainty and integration had a significance probability of p < .001. Statistically significant at the .0001 level was the dimension called production emphasis. The higher mean scores of the athletic directors on the dimensions representation, consideration, predictive accuracy, production emphasis, and integration, indicated that they perceived their leadership behavior to be at a higher level than did the head basketball coaches. In the dimension, tolerance of uncertainty, the head coaches perceived their athletic directors to be more tolerant of uncertainty and postponement than did the athletic directors themselves.

Composite findings in school size classification AAA. Results of the t-ratio tests indicated there was a significant difference (p < .01) between the athletic directors<sup>-</sup> mean scores as a group and the mean scores of the coaches as a group on the persuasiveness dimension of the LBDQ-XII, in school class size AAA. Also, significant differences (p < .001) were found in the dimensions consideration and superior orientation. Significant at the .0001 level were the dimensions representation, initiation of structure, production emphasis, and integration. Altogether, in school size classification AAA, seven dimensions were statistically significant, with the athletic directors having perceived their leadership behavior to be at a higher level than did the head basketball coaches.

Composite findings in school size classification AAAA. In the largest size schools, analysis of the mean difference scores indicated a significant difference (p < .01) in the dimensions called representation and persuasiveness. The behavior dimension predictive accuracy, had a significance level of .001. Found statistically significant at the .0001 level of confidence were the LBDQ-XII dimensions initiation of structure, consideration, production emphasis, and integration. The total number of statistically significant dimensions in school classification size AAAA was seven. Τn all seven dimensions, higher mean scores by the athletic directors indicated that they believed themselves to be exhibiting the leadership behaviors at a higher degree than was perceived by the head boys' basketball coaches.

Generally, the larger the school size classification, the greater the overall differences in the perceptions of the athletic director's leadership behavior. Due to the rejection of nine sub-hypotheses, major hypothesis five was rejected.

### Conclusions

On the basis of the obtained data, and within the limitations of this study, the following conclusions are offered. These are presented in accordance with the questions set forth in the problem statement.

1. Is there a difference in the way athletic directors perceive their leadership behavior based upon the age of the athletic director?

(a) There were statistically significant differences between means of age subcategories in the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire---<u>Form XII</u> dimension called tolerance of uncertainty. Athletic directors in the 51+ age group perceived themselves to be the most tolerant of uncertainty, while athletic directors in the 31-40 age group perceived themselves as least able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without becoming anxious or upset.

(b) There were statistically significant differences between means of age subcategories in the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> dimension called tolerance of freedom. Athletic directors within the age group 41-50 scored themselves highest on this dimension, while athletic directors in the 31-40 age range perceived themselves to be the least tolerant of allowing followers scope for initiative, decision-making and action.

(c) No significant differences were found between means of age subcategories in the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> dimensions representation, demand reconciliation, persuasiveness, initiation of structure, role assumption, consideration, production emphasis, predictive accuracy, integration, and superior orientation.

2. Is there a difference in the way athletic directors perceive their leadership behavior based upon the school size classification?

(a) There were statistically significant differences between means of school size classification subcategories in the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> dimension called tolerance of uncertainty. Sports administrators at school size classification AAAA perceived themselves to be the most tolerant of uncertainty. Athletic directors at AA schools perceived themselves to be the least tolerant of uncertainty and postponement.

(b) No significant differences were found between means of school size classification subcategories in the LBDQ-XII dimensions representation, demand reconciliation,

persuasiveness, initiation of structure, tolerance of freedom, role assumption, consideration, production emphasis, predictive accuracy, integration, and superior orientation, with school size classification as a main effect.

3. Is there a difference in the way athletic directors perceive their leadership behavior based on the amount of time they spend performing the athletic director's duties?

(a) No significant differences were found between means of time designated in contract to perform the athletic director's duties subcategories in the 12 dimensions of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u>--representation, demand reconciliation, tolerance of uncertainty, persuasiveness, initiation of structure, tolerance of freedom, role assumption, consideration, production emphasis, predictive accuracy, integration, and superior orientation--with time designated in contract to perform the athletic director's duties as a main effect.

4. Is there a difference in the way subordinate head boys' basketball coaches perceive athletic directors' leadership behavior, when compared to the athletic directors' self-perceptions of that same behavior, among the four school size classifications? (a) Among the four school size classifications, no significant differences were found between the athletic directors' mean scores and the mean scores of the coaches in the 12 dimensions of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u>--representation, demand reconciliation, tolerance of uncertainty, persuasiveness, initiation of structure, tolerance of freedom, role assumption, consideration, production emphasis, predictive accuracy, integration, and superior orientation.

5. Is there a difference in the way subordinate head boys basketball coaches perceive athletic directors leadership behavior, when compared to the athletic directors self-perceptions of that same behavior, within each of the four school size classifications?

> (a) In school size classification A, there were statistically significant differences between the athletic directors' mean scores and the mean scores of the coaches in the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> dimensions persuasiveness, initiation of structure, consideration, predictive accuracy, and integration. In each dimension, the athletic directors' higher mean scores indicated that they believed themselves to be exhibiting the leadership behavior to a higher degree than was perceived by the head basketball coaches.

(b) In school size classification A, no significant differences were found between means of athletic directors and head coaches in the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> dimensions representation, reconciliation, tolerance of uncertainty, tolerance of freedom, role assumption, production emphasis, and superior orientation.

(c) In school size classification AA, there were statistically significant differences between the athletic directors' mean scores and the mean scores of the coaches in the LBDQ-XII dimensions representation, tolerance of uncertainty, consideration, production emphasis, predictive accuracy, and integration. In the dimensions representation, consideration, production emphasis, predictive accuracy, and integration, the athletic directors' higher mean scores indicated that they believed themselves to be exhibiting the leadership behavior to a higher degree than was perceived by the head basketball coaches. In the dimension, tolerance of uncertainty, the coaches higher mean scores indicated that they perceived their athletic directors to be more tolerant of uncertainty and postponement than did the athletic directors themselves.

(d) In school size classification AA, no significant differences were found between means of athletic directors and head coaches in the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> dimensions reconciliation, persuasiveness, initiation of structure, tolerance of freedom, role assumption, and superior orientation.

(e) In school size classification AAA, there were statistically significant differences between the athletic directors' mean scores and the mean scores of the coaches in the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> dimensions representation persuasiveness, initiation of structure, consideration, production emphasis, integration, and superior orientation. In each dimension, the athletic directors' higher mean scores indicated that they believed themselves to be exhibiting the leadership behavior to a higher degree than was perceived by the head basketball coaches.

(f) In school size classification AAA, no significant differences were found between means of athletic directors and head coaches in the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> dimensions reconciliation, tolerance of uncertainty, tolerance of freedom, role assumption, and predictive accuracy. (g) In school size classification AAAA, there were statistically significant differences between the athletic directors' mean scores and the mean scores of the coaches in the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> dimensions representation, persuasiveness, initiation of structure, consideration, production emphasis, predictive accuracy, and integration. In each dimension, the athletic directors' higher mean scores indicated that they believed themselves to be exhibiting the leadership behavior to a higher degree than was perceived by the head basketball coaches.

(h) In school size classification AAAA, no significant differences were found between means of athletic directors and head coaches in the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> dimensions reconciliation, tolerance of uncertainty, tolerance of freedom, role assumption, and superior orientation.

(i) Within all four school size classifications, there were statistically significant differences between the athletic directors mean scores and the mean scores of the coaches in the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> dimensions consideration and integration. The higher mean scores of the athletic directors, within each school size classification, indicated that they perceived

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themselves as exhibiting more consideration and integration leadership behavior than did the head basketball coaches.

(j) Within all four school size classifications, no significant differences were found between means of athletic directors<sup>-</sup> and head coaches in the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> dimensions demand reconciliation, tolerance of freedom, and role assumption.

### Recommendations

1. It is recommended that a similar study be conducted to compare the leader behavior of male and female public secondary school athletic directors to determine if and to what extent they behave differently as leaders.

2. It is recommended that a similar study be conducted to compare the perceptions of the athletic directors<sup>-</sup> leadership behavior, as perceived by their immediate superordinate, themselves, and by their subordinate coaching staff.

3. It is recommended that a study be conducted to examine motivations which encourage or discourage individuals from entering athletic administration.

4. It is recommended that additional research be conducted in order to develop a testing instrument more

conducive to measuring athletic administrators' leadership behavior.

5. It is recommended that a similar study be conducted to explore the influence of factors other than age, school size classification, and time spent performing duties, on the perceptions athletic directors have of their leadership behavior.

6. It is recommended that a study be conducted to investigate athletic administration in secondary schools which uses a larger geographic base.

7. It is recommended that a study be conducted to ascertain the athletic directors perceptions on the effectiveness of college curricula in preparing the individual for a position in interscholastic athletic administration.

### EPILOGUE

This section is presented in the spirit of unfinished business. The statistical analysis of data has been completed and reported. From that analysis, conclusions were formulated and discussed. Yet, the opportunity to reflect on the broader topic of leadership has not existed. That is the purpose of this section.

In a study of this nature it is difficult not to succumb to the temptation of speculation. The researcher, with an

intuitive understanding of the subject, often draws conclusions not substantiated by statistical results. Or based on the statistical results, new questions or concerns may be raised. While empirical proof for these inferences may be lacking, these thoughts may have some merit, if only for the sake of argument. It is the intent of this section to allow the researcher to reflect and speculate on the theme of leadership, to raise questions and voice concerns. The thoughts expressed here, though not necessarily original, are my own. No statistical data will be, or necessarily can be, presented as validation for statements Previous research may be referred to, yet, it is made. intended as material for discussion, not as sources of authority. Not everyone who reads these words will agree. That is expected. I recall the words of St. Augustine:

> I ask my readers to make common course with me when they share my convictions; to keep an open mind when they share my doubts. I ask them to correct me if I make a mistake, to return to my way of thinking if they do.

St. Augustine, <u>The Trinity</u>, I, iii, 5. The purpose of this study was to describe and compare secondary school athletic directors' leadership behavior. It was not intended to evaluate that behavior in terms of its effectiveness or ineffectiveness. The description of behavior and the evaluation of behavior are different processes. The difficulty in evaluation lies in the struggle to discover the formula for successful leadership. Leadership is not a thing--it is a quality. As a quality it escapes definitive descriptions. Yet, attempts to quantify this phenomenon continue. Most often these endeavors consider the traits possessed by those individuals we call leaders.

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire--Form XII (LBDQ-XII) attempts to describe leadership in terms of the leader's behavior, status and interpersonal relationships with the members of the organization. The LBDQ-XII does not purport to measure the quality of leadership behavior, yet in reality it seems to do just that. Responses are given numerical values and Halpin (1954) concluded that high scores in all dimensions were desirable in a leader. Hemphill (1957) agreed with this finding and stated, "[leaders] who are described as above average on both consideration and initiating structure" have the best 'reputations' as good administrators. One can easily infer from these conclusions that an individual who exhibits, to a high degree, the 12 behaviors measured by the LBDQ-XII will be a successful leader. Yet, is it leadership behavior that is actually being described and measured?

In Chapter II it was revealed that several researchers suggested leadership is exercised in conflict or competition (Blumberg & Greenfield, 1986; Burns, 1978; and O<sup>\*</sup>Kane, 1978). The dilemma in understanding leadership exists because of confusion in understanding the verb forms "to

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manage," "to administer," and "to lead" (O'Kane, 1978). While they are often thought to be synonymous in terms of function they are distinctly different. To manage is to be attentive to basic rules and regulations. A manager is concerned with material facts. An administrator is concerned with social facts. To administer is to serve the followers, which helps to maintain the health of the organization. In other words, management involves the technical skills necessary to maintain and operate an organization, while administration involves the humanistic skills necessary to deal with people.

Leadership functions are often quite dissimilar to those of management and administration. The leader in attempting to challenge and change the established system, creates conflict. Within this conflict tradeoffs occur and changes take place (O<sup>\*</sup>Kane, 1978). Blumberg and Greenfield (1986) follow this view, maintaining that in leadership the emphasis is on <u>change</u>, rather than solely maintaining or <u>administering existing structures</u>.

An examination of the 12 dimensions of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> indicates the skills are of a technical and social nature. In reality, the <u>LBDQ-XII</u>, and surveys similar to it, describe the skills of management and administration, not necessarily those of leadership. This is not to say that these skills are not desirable, or even valuable in operating and maintaining organizations. They are. We need managers and administrators to maintain control over those facets of our lives which have to have some sense of order.

While it may be necessary for leaders to possess the skills of management and administration, the possession of these skills alone does not make an individual a leader. In fact, the zealous application of the skills closely associated with management and administration may actually hamper leadership from taking place. To understand how this might occur, we must first understand the primary responsibility of administration.

The main task of administration is the accomplishment of goals, through the guidance of human behavior. This is best accomplished in a system that is stable and where disruptive forces are minimized. An administrator who is focused on maintaining a stable system may feel it necessary to thwart any attempts at constructive disagreement from occurring within the group. This disagreement, call it loyal opposition, is not intended to destroy the will of the majority, or attack the equilibrium of the organization, but rather to create an atmosphere for the exchange of ideas. Fears that this opposition may cause disorder and reduce the ability of the organization to function at peak capacity may induce attempts by the administrator to suppress opposition, however loyal. This suppression is accomplished by strictly controlling resources and individuals, in the hope that this will reduce disorder to the system and help stabilize the

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organization. The very environment where leadership often takes place, in competition or conflict, may then dissolve. Rather than allowing dissent, debate and disagreement, an attempt is made at eliminating divergent thinking and forcing the opposition into silence. This silence is brought about by fear, apathy, or most often as a tendency to be obedient in the belief that the 'team' is best served by silent disagreement.

Through an exaggerated use of skills, often associated with management and administration, the stability of the organization has been maintained, goals might very well have been accomplished, yet leadership has not been evident. The thrust of true leadership centers on the ability of the administrator to create an atmosphere where the dissenter is encouraged to disagree. In this environment the administrator's concern for teamwork and collaboration takes precedent over the simpler task of procuring cooperation. Such an organization would be flexible enough to allow followers latitude for initiative, innovation and sensible risk taking.

Contrast this environment to one which places the emphasis on the traits the leader possess (such as measured by the <u>LBDQ-XII</u>). In emphasizing the leader's skills, we fail to consider judgments made by the leader, and on what values, ethics or purposes they are based. A leader lacking a strong ideological commitment is unprepared to face issues at their moral root. An administrator unready to face the critical questions of moral values, may convert issues such as sportsmanship, honesty and fairness into matters of conformity, convenience or consensus. Only those individuals who know what their moral values are can understand what they are giving up when requested to reach compromise or consensus. While these strategies have a place, they are no substitute in an environment where moral judgment, values and ethics have a high priority.

Leaders who respond to higher levels of moral development and relate their leadership behavior to a set of conscious values, do so because they also possess the qualities of courage and inner strength. They have the courage to state their moral values, perform to them and base their judgments on them. Courage allows these leaders to stand-up for what they believe in, however unpopular the decision. The quality of inner strength is needed to face the consequences that often follow an unpopular verdict. With this inner strength, the leader is able to confront the almost inevitable criticism from those individuals who perceive themselves to be most affected by the judgment. For in the end, it is the administrator who will be held responsible for the matter. Without the courage to define and implement moral judgments and the strength to defend these decisions, values all but disappear.

Leaders who believe in a full and sharing relationship with their followers and maintain the highest level of morality, cannot help but make judgments that will be considered fair, strong and wise. This helps create an atmosphere where not only the leader's, but also the follower's hopes and aspirations can be satisfied.

An environment such as this, within a department of athletics, would not only enhance the coaches' personal satisfaction, it would also increase awareness of the athletic director's function, raise the morale of the coaches, increase the effectiveness of the department's decisions by encouraging divergent views, and finally, aid in the development of future leaders in the field of sports administration.

> And if anyone says, 'I understand your meaning well enough, but it's not true,' I ask him to state his own position and refute mine. If he does this sincerely and without malice and will inform me of his views (if I am still alive, that is), then I shall count my efforts well rewarded. If he cannot let me know personally, then I would be delighted if others profit from his views.

> > St. Augustine, The Trinity, I, iii, 5.

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## APPENDICES

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## APPENDIX A

Letter to North Carolina Coaches Association 206-G Berryman Street Greensboro, N.C. 27405 16 September 86

Mr. Phil Weaver North Carolina Coaches Association 1101 Westover Terr. Greensboro, N.C. 27408

Dear Mr. Weaver:

I am a doctoral student at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. After much deliberation regarding my research topic, I have decided to study the leadership behavior of high school athletic directors.

A review of the literature revealed few studies related to interscholastic athletic administration. The purpose of my study is to compare the athletic director's description of self-perceived leadership behavior with that behavior as perceived by the head basketball coach. I hope this research will aid in supplying some valuable insights in the area.

Several weeks ago I met with you at Grimsley High School and requested the names, schools and addresses of all basketball coaches in the State of North Carolina for the year of 1986-87. You said such information was available, and could be sent to me upon written request. I am requesting that information with this letter.

I would also like to request the permission of the NCCA to use its name in this study as the source of the coaches names. The results of the study would be available to NCCA and each individual participant in the study.

Should you need to contact me, my phone number is 282-3515.

Your consideration in this matter is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely:

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T.J. Spatkowski

### APPENDIX B

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### Letter to North Carolina High School Athletic Association

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206-G Berryman Street Greensboro, N.C. 27405 16 September 86

Mr. Dick Knox North Carolina High School Athletic Association P.O. Box 3216 Chapel Hill, N.C. 27515-3216

Dear Mr. Knox:

I am a doctoral student at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. After much deliberation regarding my research topic, I have decided to study the leadership behavior of high school athletic directors.

A review of the literature revealed few studies related to interscholastic athletic administration. The purpose of my study is to compare the athletic director's description of self-perceived leadership behavior with that behavior as perceived by the head basketball coach. I hope this research will aid in supplying some valuable insights in the area.

Several days ago, in a phone call, I requested the names of all North Carolina high school athletic directors, and I received that information today. Please accept my thanks for the speed in which that information reached me.

I would also like to request the permission of the NCHSAA to use its name as the source of the athletic director's names. The results would be made available to the NCHSAA and upon request to each individual participant in the study.

Your consideration in this matter is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely:

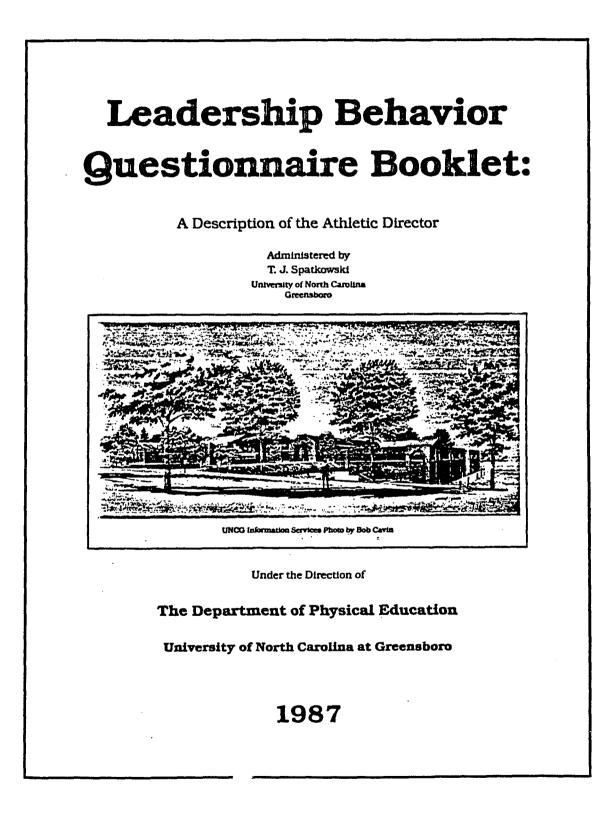
T.J. Spatkowski

### APPENDIX C

LBDQ-XII Booklet \* Athletic Director

\* (reduced to three-fourths size)

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## Leader Behavior Description Guestionnaire Form XII

Originated by Staff Members of The Ohio State Leadership Studies and revised by the Bureau of Business Research

#### Purpose of the guestionnaire

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

Note: the term "group" as employed in the follow items, refers to a department or unit of organization that is supervised by the athletic director.

The term "members" refers to all people in the unit of organization who are supervised by the athletic director.

#### **Published by**

College of Administrative Science The Ohio State University Columbus, Ohio

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**NOTE:** If you serve this school as **both** athletic director and head basketball coach, **please do not fill out this booklet.** Please return it in the provided envelope, noting your dual position below.

I serve this school as both athletic director and head coach for boys basketball. therefore. I have not completed this booklet ......

#### **Directions:**

- a) Read each item carefully.
- b) Think about how frequently you, as athletic director, engage in the behavior described by the item.
- c) Decide whether you always, often, occasionally, seldom, or never act as described by the item.
- d) Place a check mark (~) in one of the five boxes following the item to indicate the answer you have selected.

	ALWAYS	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	SELDOM	NEVER	
Example: The athletic director often acts as described		Ø				

### As Athletic Director of my school:

.

.

1. I act as the spokesperson of the group		
2. I wait patiently for the results of a decision		
3. I make pep talks to stimulate the coaches		
4. I let coaches know what is expected of them		
5. I allow the coaches complete freedom in their work		
6. I am hesitant about taking initiative in the group		
7. I am friendly and approachable		
8. I encourage overtime work		
9. I make accurate decisions		
10. I get along well with the people above me		
11. I publicize the activities of the group		
12. I become anxious when I cannot find out what is coming next		
13. My arguments are convincing		
14. I encourage the use of uniform practices		
15. I permit the coaches to use their own judgment in solving problems $\ldots$ . $\Box$		
16. I fail to take necessary action		
17. I do little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group $\ldots \ldots \square$		
18. I stress being ahead of competing groups		
19. I keep the coaches working together as a team		
20. I keep the coaches in good standing with higher authority $\ldots$ $\Box$		
21. I speak as the representative of the coaches		
22. I accept defeat in stride		
23. I argue persuasively for my point of view		
24. I try out my ideas with the coaches		
25. I encourage initiative in the coaches		
26. I let other persons take away my leadership in the group		
27. I put suggestions made by the coaches into operation $\ldots$ $\Box$		
28. I needle coaches for greater effort		
29. I seem able to predict what is coming next		
30. I am working hard for a promotion		
31. I speak for the group when visitors are present		

.

SAVATY	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	SELDOM	NEVER
32. I accept delays without becoming upset				
66. I let some coaches have authority that I should keep				

	ALWAYS	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	SELDOM	NEVER
<ul> <li>67. I look out for the personal welfare of the coaches</li></ul>					
<ul> <li>94. I ask that coaches follow standard rules and regulations</li> <li>95. I permit the coaches to set their own paces</li> <li>96. I am easily recognized as the leader of the group</li> <li>97. I act without consulting the coaches</li> <li>98. I keep the coaches working up to capacity</li> <li>99. I maintain a closely knit group</li> <li>100. I maintain cordial relations with superiors</li> </ul>					

Code\_\_\_\_\_\_used only for data analysis and follow up.

# **Background Information Survey**

••

1. Age:
2. Your school size classification: AAAA AAA AA A
3. Your undergraduate Major area of study:
4. Your graduate Major area of study:
5. Highest academic degree earned: B.A B.S Masters Ed.S Ed.D Ph.D
6. Length of time as athletic director:
years served as athletic director (all schools)
years served as athletic director in current school
7. Length of time as teacher:
years served as teacher (all schools)
years served as teacher in current school
Are you teaching now?: Yes 🗋 No
8. In which sport(s) did you/do you serve as head coach?:

9. According to your contract, which statement best represents the total time spent-in performing the athletic director's administrative duties during a day:

\_\_\_\_ less than one-fourth time athletic director

\_\_\_\_ one-fourth time athletic director

\_\_\_\_ one-half time athletic director

\_\_\_\_\_ three-fourths time athletic director

\_\_\_\_ full-time athletic director

\_\_\_\_ overload (additional pay)

.

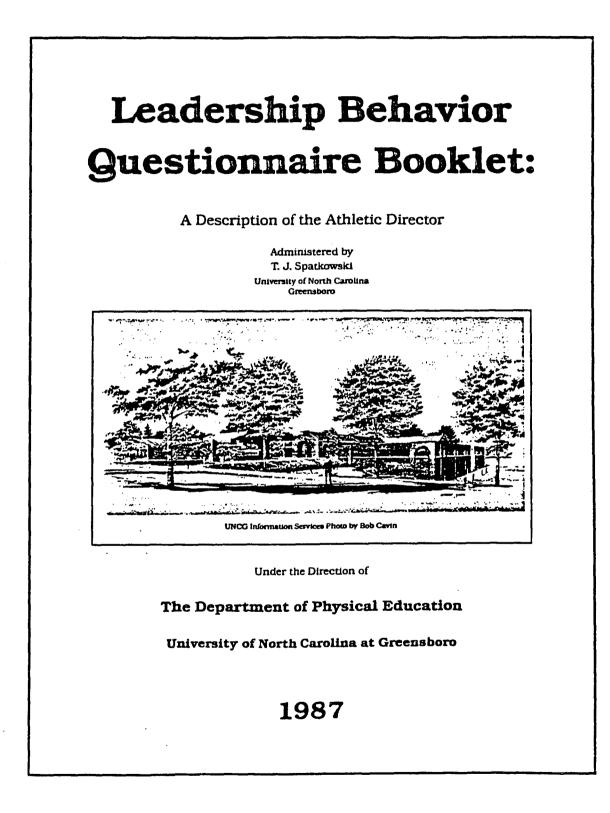
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### APPENDIX D

LBDQ-XII Booklet \* Head Basketball Coach

\* (reduced to three-fourths size)

1



## Leader Behavior Description Guestionnaire Form XII

Originated by Staff Members of The Ohio State Leadership Studies and revised by the Bureau of Business Research

#### **Purpose of the Guestionnaire**

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

Note: the term "group" as employed in the follow items. refers to a department or unit of organization that is supervised by the athletic director.

The term "members" refers to all people in the unit of organization who are supervised by the athletic director.

#### Published by

College of Administrative Science The Ohio State University Columbus, Ohio

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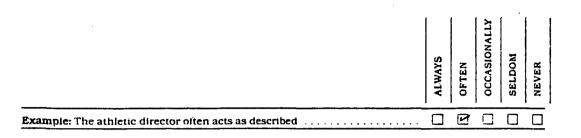
**NOTE:** If you serve this school as **both** head basketball coach, and athletic director. **please do not fill out this booklet.** Please return it in the provided envelope, noting your dual position below.

I serve this school as both head coach for boys' basketball and athletic director. therefore. I have not completed this booklet .....

#### **Directions:**

a) Read each item carefully.

- b) Think about how frequently your athletic director engages in the behavior described by the item.
- c) Decide whether your athletic director always, often, occasionally, seldom, or never acts as described by the item.
- d) Place a check mark (→) in one of the five boxes following the item to indicate the answer you have selected.



### The Athletic Director of my school:

.

1. Acts as the spokesperson of the group		
2. Waits patiently for the results of a decision		
3. Makes pep talks to stimulate the coaches		
4. Lets coaches know what is expected of them		
5. Allows the coaches complete freedom in their work		
6. Is hesitant about taking initiative in the group		
7. Is friendly and approachable		
8. Encourages overtime work		
9. Makes accurate decisions		
10. Gets along well with the people above him/her		
11. Publicizes the activities of the group		
12. Becomes anxious when he/she cannot find out what is coming next $\ldots$ . $\Box$		
13. His/her arguments are convincing		
14. Encourages the use of uniform practices		
15. Permits the coaches to use their own judgment in solving problems $\ldots$ . $\Box$		
16. Fails to take necessary action		
17. Does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group $\ldots$ . $\Box$		
18. Stresses being ahead of competing groups		
19. Keeps the coaches working together as a team $\ldots$		
20. Keeps the coaches in good standing with higher authority $\ldots \ldots \ldots$ $\Box$		
21. Speaks as the representative of the coaches $\ldots$		
22. Accepts defeat in stride		
23. Argues persuasively for his/her point of view		
24. Tries out his/her ideas with the coaches $\ldots$		
25. Encourages initiative in the coaches $\ldots$		
26. Lets other persons take away his/her leadership in the group $\ldots \ldots \ldots$ . $\Box$		
27. Puts suggestions made by the coaches into operation $\ldots$		
28. Needles coaches for greater effort 🔲		
29. Seems able to predict what is coming next		
0. Is working hard for promotion		
B1. Speaks for the group when visitors are present $\ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \square$		

	γs	z	OCCASIONALLY	МО	æ
	VLWAYS	OFTEN	OCCA	SELDOM	NEVER
<ul> <li>32. Accepts delays without becoming upset</li> <li>33. Is a very persuasive talker</li> <li>34. Makes his/her attitudes clear to the group</li> <li>35. Lets the coaches do their work the way they think best</li> <li>36. Lets some coaches take advantage of him/her</li> <li>37. Treats all coaches as his/her equals</li> <li>38. Keeps the work moving at a rapid pace</li> <li>39. Settles conflicts when they occur in the group</li> <li>40. His/her superiors act favorably on most of his/her suggestions</li> <li>41. Represents the coaches at outside meetings</li> <li>42. Becomes anxious when waiting for new developments</li> <li>43. Is very skillful in an argument</li> <li>44. Decides what shall be done and how it shall be done</li> </ul>					
<ul> <li>45. Assigns a task, then lets the coaches handle it</li> <li>46. Is the leader of the group in name only</li> <li>47. Gives advance notice of changes</li> <li>48. Pushes for increased production</li> <li>49. Things usually turn out as he/she predicts</li> <li>50. Enjoys the privileges of his/her position</li> <li>51. Handles complex problems efficiently</li> <li>52. Is able to tolerate postponement and uncertainty</li> <li>53. Is not a very convincing talker</li> <li>54. Assigns coaches to particular tasks</li> <li>55. Turns the coaches loose on a job, and lets them go to it</li> </ul>					
<ul> <li>56. Backs down when he/she ought to stand firm</li> <li>57. Keeps to himself/herself</li> <li>58. Asks the coaches to work harder</li> <li>59. Is accurate in predicting the trend of events</li> <li>60. Gets his/her superiors to act for the weifare of the coaches</li> <li>61. Gets swamped by details</li> <li>62. Can wait just so long, then blows up</li> <li>63. Speaks from a strong inner conviction</li> <li>64. Makes sure that his/her part in the group is understood by the coaches</li> <li>65. Is reluctant to allow the coaches any freedom of action</li> <li>66. Lets some coaches have authority that he/she should keep</li> </ul>					

		CIVATU	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	SELDOM	NEVER
<ol> <li>68.</li> <li>69.</li> <li>70.</li> <li>71.</li> <li>72.</li> <li>73.</li> <li>74.</li> <li>75.</li> <li>76.</li> <li>77.</li> <li>78.</li> <li>79.</li> <li>80.</li> <li>81.</li> <li>82.</li> <li>83.</li> <li>84.</li> <li>85.</li> <li>86.</li> <li>87.</li> <li>88.</li> <li>89.</li> <li>90.</li> <li>91.</li> <li>92.</li> </ol>	Looks out for the personal welfare of the coaches					
94. 95. 96.	Asks that coaches follow standard rules and regulations					
98. 99.	Acts without consulting the coaches					

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## APPENDIX E

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LBDQ-XII Scoresheets 1

	DE Job	AGE SIZE BOONDELL	e u-maj	G-MAj. DE	G. Y-ND-A	Y-AD-C , Y-TCN-A 4-TCN-C	 TC N	?	
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١.	Persuaaton	31	3 23	33 h3 _	(53)63	73 63 93	(	)	
5.	Structure	اد ۱	_ et	3111	st64	74 _ 49 47	(	)	
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8.	Consideration	T 1	ा ध <b>_</b>	37 47	(ST)	TT	(	)	
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11,	Integration	3;	9	39	69	79 99	(	)	248
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### BOORDING IDEY

Circled items are scored 1 2 3 4 5 All other items are scored 5 4 3 2 1

LEDQ Form XII - RECORD SHEET

1. Repri	sentation	1	11	21 <u> </u>	31	¥1						(	}
2. Reco	ciliation						51_(	61_	(P)	<u>81</u>	(91)	l	)
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249

Totals

## APPENDIX F

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Letter of Introduction To Athletic Director & Basketball Coach 14 January 87

Dear Athletic Director:

I am a doctoral student at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. I would appreciate your participation in a research study I am conducting for my dissertation. Dick Knox, Associate Executive Director of the North Carolina High School Athletic Association, has shown support for this study by being kind enough to supply the names of North Carolina's secondary school athletic directors.

The topic of my study is "A Comparative Study of Perceived Leadership Behavior of Selected North Carolina High School Athletic Directors." The purpose is to compare the athletic director's description of self-perceived leadership behavior with that same behavior as perceived by the head basketball coach. With increased importance being placed upon the leadership position of athletic directors, it is hoped this research will aid in supplying some valuable insights in this area.

I would appreciate your granting me approximately thirty minutes of your busy schedule to fill out the enclosed Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire and the background information sheet. In filling out the forms, please read the directions carefully. This form is not a test, nor is it an evaluation of your ability as an athletic director. Rather, it is your perception of your leadership behavior as athletic director. The background information survey will provide information on the professional background of North Carolina's secondary school athletic directors. These data are relevant to this study.

The return of your questionnaire booklet will be interpreted as your granting voluntary cooperation as an anonymous participant in this study. All forms have a numerical code to facilitate handling of the data. Your complete anonymity is personally guaranteed. The data generated from this research will be reported mainly in the form of statistical summaries. No identity of any respondents or schools will be made. If you would like a summary of the results of this study, I will be happy to provide it at your request.

I would appreciate your returning the questionnaire booklet within five days, if possible. A stamped self-addressed manila envelope has been provided for the return. I am most appreciative of your cooperation and participation.

 $\begin{array}{cccc} \underline{PLEASE \ NOTE:} & If you serve this school as both athletic \\ \underline{director \ and} & head \ coach \ of \ boys' \ basketball, \ \underline{DO \ NOT \ FILL \ OUT} \\ \underline{THE \ BOOKLET}. & Please \ return \ it \ in \ the \ envelope \ provided, \\ noting \ your \ dual \ position \ in \ the \ box \ indicated. \end{array}$ 

Sincerely:

~

attouch

T.J. Spatkowski Department of Physical Education School of H.P.E.R.D. University of North Carolina at Greensboro Greensboro N.C. 27412

enclosures

14 January 87

Dear Head Basketball Coach:

I am a doctoral student at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. I would appreciate your participation in a research study I am conducting for my dissertation. Phil Weaver, of the North Carolina Coaches Association, has shown support for this study by being kind enough to supply the names of North Carolina's secondary school head coaches of boys' basketball.

The topic of my study is "A Comparative Study of Perceived Leadership Behavior of Selected North Carolina High School Athletic Directors." The purpose is to compare the athletic director's description of self-perceived leadership behavior with that same behavior as perceived by the head basketball coach. With increased importance being placed upon the leadership position of athletic directors, it is hoped this research will aid in supplying some valuable insights in this area.

I would appreciate your granting me approximately thirty minutes of your busy schedule to fill out the enclosed Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire. In filling out the forms, please read the directions carefully. This form is not a test, nor does it assess the athletic director's ability as a leader, but rather it describes your perception of his leadership behavior.

The return of your questionnaire booklet will be interpreted as your granting voluntary cooperation as an anonymous participant in this study. All forms have a numerical code to facilitate handling of the data. Your complete anonymity is personally guaranteed. The data generated from this research will be reported mainly in the form of statistical summaries. No identity of any respondents or schools will be made. If you would like a summary of the results, I will be happy to provide it at your request.

I would appreciate your returning the questionnaire booklet within five days, if possible. A stamped self-addressed manila envelope has been provided for the return.

I am most appreciative of your cooperation and participation. Best wishes for a successful season.

PLEASE NOTE: If you serve this school as both head coach of boys basketball and athletic director, DO NOT FILL OUT THE BOOKLET. Please return it in the envelope provided noting your dual position in the box indicated.

Sincerely: att Junh

T.J. Spatkowski Department of Physical Education School of H.P.E.R.D. University of North Carolina at Greensboro Greensboro N.C. 27412

enclosures

### APPENDIX G

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Follow-Up Letter Follow-Up Postcards To Athletic Director & Basketball Coach

#### 17 February 87

Dear Athletic Director:

Several weeks ago I mailed you a Leadership Behavior Questionnaire Booklet. I am in the process of compiling my doctoral dissertation data for input into the computer. To date, I have not received your response. Perhaps this booklet was misplaced or lost, so I am enclosing another for your convenience.

Although the response to the questionnaire has been most gratifying, I am still anxious to receive your completed form. In order to have a good representation of secondary school athletic directors in this state-wide study, a return of approximately 90 percent is desired. <u>MY GOAL IS TO HEAR</u> FROM YOU.

I realize this is a very busy time of the year for you. However, your response is vitally important if this study is to be successful. It would be greatly appreciated if you would take approximately 30 minutes to complete the enclosed booklet and return it at your earliest convenience.

May I count you as a contributor to this study? As always, for your assistance and support, I am most grateful.

Sincerely:

T.J. Spatkowski Department of Physical Education School of H.P.E.R.D. University North Carolina at Greensboro Greensboro, N.C. 27412

enclosures



17 Pebruary 87

Dear Athletic Director:

Several weeks ago I mailed you a Leadership Behavior Questionnaire Booklet. I am in the process of compiling my doctoral dissertation data for input into the computer. To date, I have not received your response. Perhaps this booklet was misplaced or lost, so I am enclosing another for your convenience.

Although the response to the questionnaire has been most gratifying, I am still anxious to receive your completed form. In order to have a good representation of secondary school athletic directors in this state-wide study, a return of approximately 90 percent is desired. <u>MY GOAL IS TO HEAR</u> FROM YOU.

I realize this is a very busy time of the year for you. However, your response is vitally important if this study is to be successful. It would be greatly appreciated if you would take approximately 30 minutes to complete the enclosed booklet and return it at your earliest convenience.

May I count you as a contributor to this study? As always, for your assistance and support, I am most grateful.

Sincerely:

T.J. Spatkowski Department of Physical Education School of H.P.E.R.D. University North Carolina at Greensboro Greensboro, N.C. 27412

enclosures

P.S. The basketball coach of your school has already returned his questionnaire. As this is a comparative study, without the return of your completed booklet your coach's score cannot be used in this research. The return of your booklet guarantees that both scores will be used and is therefore vitally important. Thanks for your help.



17 Pebruary 87

Dear Head Basketball Coach:

Several weeks ago I mailed you a Leadership Behavior Questionnaire Booklet. I am in the process of compiling my doctoral dissertation data for input into the computer. To date, I have not received your response. Perhaps this booklet was misplaced or lost, so I am enclosing another for your convenience.

Although the response to the questionnaire has been most gratifying, I am still anxious to receive your completed form. In order to have a good representation of secondary school head basketball coaches in this state-wide study, a return of approximately 90 percent is desired. <u>MY GOAL IS</u> TO HEAR FROM YOU.

I realize this is a very busy time of the year for you. However, your response is vitally important if this study is to be successful. It would be greatly appreciated if you would take approximately 30 minutes to complete the enclosed booklet and return it at your earliest convenience.

May I count you as a contributor to this study? As always, for your assistance and support, I am most grateful.

Sincerely:

Inshi

T.J. Spatkowski Department of Physical Education School of H.P.E.R.D. University North Carolina at Greensboro Greensboro, N.C. 27412

enclosures



17 February 87

Dear Head Basketball Coach:

Several weeks ago I mailed you a Leadership Behavior Questionnaire Booklet. I am in the process of compiling my doctoral dissertation data for input into the computer. To date, I have not received your response. Perhaps this booklet was misplaced or lost, so I am enclosing another for your convenience.

Although the response to the questionnaire has been most gratifying, I am still anxious to receive your completed form. In order to have a good representation of secondary school head basketball coaches in this state-wide study, a return of approximately 90 percent is desired. <u>MY GOAL IS</u> TO HEAR FROM YOU.

I realize this is a very busy time of the year for you. However, your response is vitally important if this study is to be successful. It would be greatly appreciated if you would take approximately 30 minutes to complete the enclosed booklet and return it at your earliest convenience.

May I count you as a contributor to this study? As always, for your assistance and support, I am most grateful.

Sincerely: actushi

T.J. Spatkowski Department of Physical Education School of H.P.E.R.D. University North Carolina at Greensboro Greensboro, N.C. 27412

enclosures

P.S. The Athletic Director of your school has already returned his questionnaire. As this is a comparative study, without the return of your completed questionnaire your AD's score cannot be used in this research. The return of your booklet guarantees that both scores will be used and is therefore vitally important. Thanks for your help.

#### Postcard I

Dear Educator:

2/5/87

Approximately one-week ago, I mailed the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire to you. In processing the returns, there appear to be several questionnaires missing.

For a good representation of North Carolina high school athletic directors and basketball coaches, it is extremely important that a majority of the questionnaires be returned. A return of 90% is desired. May I count on you to be part of this state-wide study?

If you have already returned the material, disregard this request and accept my appreciation for your help. If you have questions, or need another copy, please call collect at (919)-282-3515. I am grateful for your assistance.

Sincerely:

Ted Spatkowski

### Postcard II

#### EACH QUESTIONNAIRE COUNTS . . .

2/26/87

Yes, even though the response to the <u>Leadership Behavior Description</u> <u>Questionnaire</u> has been most gratifying, I am still anxious to receive your completed form. You may be interested to know that as of this date, 65 percent of your fellow AD's and coaches throughout the state have returned their completed questionnaires.

In order to have a valid representation of secondary school athletic directors and basketball coaches in this state-wide study, a return of 90 percent is needed. Won't you help me reach this goal? You can do so by completing the previously sent questionnaire and returning it in the postage-paid envelope.

If you have already returned the material, disregard this request and accept my appreciation for your help. If you have questions, or need another copy, please call collect at (919)-282-3515. I am grateful for your assistance.

> Sincerely yours: Ted Spatkowski, Univ. N.C. at Greensboro

## APPENDIX H

## Letter to School Human Subjects Review Committee and Approval

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To: School Human Subjects Review Committee

From: Ted Spatkowski

Date: 18 November 86

Enclosed please find my Principal Investigator's Project Outline Form and a copy of my approved dissertation proposal titled, A Comparative Study Of Perceived Leadership Behavior Of Selected North Carolina High School Athletic Directors. They are sent to you for your approval in regard to meeting federal and university guidelines in the use of human subjects in a study.

This study will utilize an anonymous questionnaire and all subjects are adults employed as professional educators in the State of North Carolina. As such, I am requesting, with full approval and agreement of my committee (Dr. McGee, Dr. Swanson, Dr. Robinson, and Dr. Purpel), a waiver from requiring that each participant return a signed "Informed Consent Form." Instead, each participant in the study will receive a cover letter informing him/her of all the points stated on the consent form. Consent will be assumed if the questionnaire is returned. (A copy of both cover letters is included in Appendix F, pp. 62-66.) I'm hopeful that the fourth paragraph of both letters will meet guidelines spelled out on the consent form, and will meet with approval from this committee.

If I may clarify further, I will be happy to meet with you. Thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely: T.J. Spatkowski

enc.

cc Dr. Rosemary McGee - Chair

### THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA AT GREENSBORO SCHOOL OF HEALTH, PHYSICAL EDUCATION, RECREATION AND DANCE

#### SCHOOL REVIEW COMMITTEE

#### PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR'S PROJECT OUTLINE FORM

Name of Principal Investigator Theodore J. Spatkowski
Division within HPERD Department of Physical Education
Title of Proposed Project_ "A Comparative Study Of Perceived Leadership
Behavior Of Selected North Carolina High School Athletic Directors"
Proposed Starting Date 5 Jan. 87 Duration 4-6 weeks
Estimated Number of Human Subjects Involved in Project 666
I. Characteristics of Subjects (check as many boxes as appropriate).
Minors Mentally Retarted University Students
XX Adults Pregnant Women Secondary School Pupils
Prisoners Legally Incompetent Elementary School Pupils
Others (Specify)

- II. Consent and Withdrawal Procedures
  - A. Consent obtained from: Individual XX, Institution\_\_\_\_, Parent or Legal Guardian\_\_\_\_, Other (Specify)\_\_\_\_\_
  - B. Type of Consent: Written (attach copy of consent statement) Oral (explain reason for not using written form and attach a verbatim statement of the oral request to the subject). See attached letter.
  - C. Subjects are informed of withdrawal privileges (attach copy of statement). see attached letter.

Use the back of this page and additional sheets, as necessary, to respond to the remaining portions of this form.

III. Risks: Briefly describe the risks (physical, psychological, social) to the subjects, and indicate the degree of risk involved in each case. None

IV. Benefits: Briefly describe the benefits (physical, psychological, social) to the subjects and/or humankind in general.

See "Significance of the Study", proposal pp. 5-7.

- V. Methodology/Procedures
  - A. Briefly describe the methods used for selection of subjects/ participants See "Determination of the Sample", Froposal pp. 17-22
  - B. Briefly describe all other procedures to be followed in carrying out the project.
  - See Chapter III "Design Procedures for Study", Proposal pp. 17-
  - C. Attach a copy of the proposal you are filing (Graduate School, 35 Agency, etc.) and a copy of orientation information to subjects. Include questionnaires, interview questions, tests, and other similar materials.
    - See attached proposal and copy of "LBDQ-XII".
- VI. Agreements: By signing this form, the principal Anvestigator agrees to the following:
  - A. To conform to the policies, principles, procedures and guidelines established by the HPERD School Review Committee (SRC).
  - B. To supply the SRC with documentation of selection procedures and informed consent procedures.
  - C. To inform the SRC of any changes in procedures which involve human subjects, giving sufficient time to review such changes before they are implemented.
  - D. To provide the SRC with any progress reports it may request.

Date	22	November	86	Signature	$\overline{2}$	5	patendi
					$\nabla$		

#### Approved 3/78

The University of North Carclina at Greensboro School of Health, Physical Education, Recreation & Dance Greensboro, North Carolina 27412

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11/25/86 Date

To: M. Spotkouski

The purpose of this communication is to indicate the results of the review made by the Human Subjects Committee of your proposed project

a Comparative Study of Preeved Leadership ...

The evaluators have judged your plans which guarantee the rights of human subjects to be



Approved as proposed

Approved conditionally pending



Not approved. Please contact the School Human Subject Chair, for further information.

We appreciate your compliance with School/University regulations in this important matter. Please remember your commitment to notify the Committee in the event of any change(s) in your procedure.

Sincerely,

Chair, School of HPERD Human Subjects Review Committee

Revised 12/23

approved verbully by chair of IRB (1) 25/86

## APPENDIX I

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# LBDQ-XII Statement of Policy

#### STATEMENT OF POLICY

Concerning the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire and Related Forms

Permission is granted without formal request to use the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire and <u>other</u> related forms developed at The Ohio State University, subject to the following conditions:

- 1. <u>Use</u>: The forms may be used in research projects. They may not be used for promotional activities or for producing income on behalf of individuals or organizations other than The Ohio State University.
- 2. <u>Adaptation and Revision</u>: The directions and the form of the items may be adapted to specific situations when such steps are considered desirable.
- 3. <u>Duplication</u>: Sufficient copies for a specific research project may be duplicated.
- 4. <u>Inclusion in dissertations</u>: Copies of the questionnaire may be included in theses and dissertations. Permission is granted for the duplication of such dissertations when filed with the University Microfilms Service at Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106 U.S.A.
- 5. <u>Copyright</u>: In granting permission to modify or duplicate the questionnaire, we do not surrender our copyright. Duplicated questionnaires and all adaptations should contain the notation "Copyright, 19—, by The Ohio State University."
- 6. Inquiries: Communications should be addressed to:

Administrative Science Research The Ohio State University 1775 College Road Columbus, OH 43210

## APPENDIX J

Hypotheses

#### Hypotheses

## Major Hypothesis 1.

There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on each of the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII based upon the age of the athletic director.

- 1.1 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the speaks and acts as a representative of the group dimension of the LBDQ-XII based upon the age of the athletic director.
- 1.2 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the reconciles conflicting demands and reduces disorder to the system dimension of the LBDQ-XII based upon the age of the athletic director.
- 1.3 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the is able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety and upset dimension of the LBDQ-XII based upon the age of the athletic director.
- 1.4 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the uses persuasion and argument effectively and exhibits strong convictions dimension of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> based upon the age of the athletic director.
- 1.5 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the clearly defines their own role and lets followers know what is expected of them dimension of the LBDQ-XII based upon the age of the athletic director.

- 1.6 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the allows followers scope for initiative, decision and action dimension of the LBDQ-XII based upon the age of the athletic director.
- 1.7 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the actively exercises the leadership role rather that surrender leadership to others dimension of the LBDQ-XII based upon the age of the athletic director.
- 1.8 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the regards the comfort, well-being, status and contribution of followers dimension of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> based upon the age of the athletic director.
- 1.9 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the <u>applies pressure for productive output</u> dimension of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> based upon the age of the athletic director.
- 1.10 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the exhibits foresight and ability to predict outcomes accurately dimension of the LBDQ-XII based upon the age of the athletic director.
- 1.11 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the maintains a close-knit organization and resolves intermember conflict dimension of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> based upon the age of the athletic director.
- 1.12 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the maintains cordial relations with superiors, has influence over them, and is striving for higher status dimension of the LBDQ-XII based upon the age of the athletic director.

## Major Hypothesis 2.

There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on each of the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII based upon school size classification.

- 2.1 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the speaks and acts as representative of the group dimension of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> based upon school size classification.
- 2.2 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the reconciles conflicting demands and reduces disorder to the system dimension of the LBDQ-XII based upon school size classification.
- 2.3 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the is able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety and upset dimension of the LBDQ-XII based upon school size classification.
- 2.4 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the uses persuasion and argument effectively and exhibits strong convictions dimension of the LBDQ-XII based upon school size classification.
- 2.5 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the clearly defines their own role and lets followers know what is expected of them dimension of the LBDQ-XII based upon school size classification.

- 2.6 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the allows followers scope for initiative, decision and action dimension of the LBDQ-XII based upon school size classification.
- 2.7 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the actively exercises the leadership role rather than surrender leadership to others dimension of the LBDQ-XII based upon school size classification.
- 2.8 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the regards the comfort, well-being, status and contribution of followers dimension of the IBDQ-XII based upon school size classification.
- 2.9 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the applies pressure for productive output dimension of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> based upon school size classification.
- 2.10 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the exhibits foresight and ability to predict outcomes accurately dimension of the LBDQ-XII based upon school size classification.
- 2.11 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the maintains a close-knit organization and resolves intermember conflict dimension of the LBDQ-XII based upon school size classification.
- 2.12 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the maintains cordial relations with superiors, has influence over them, and is striving for higher status dimension of the LBDQ-XII based upon school size classification.

## Major Hypothesis 3.

There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on each of the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII based upon the time spent performing the athletic director's duties.

- 3.1 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the speaks and acts as representative of the group dimension of the LBDQ-XII based upon the time spent performing the athletic director's duties.
- 3.2 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the reconciles conflicting demands and reduces disorder to the system dimension of the LBDQ-XII based upon the time spent performing the athletic director's duties.
- 3.3 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the is able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety and upset dimension of the LBDQ-XII based upon the time spent performing the athletic director's duties.
- 3.4 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the uses persuasion and argument effectively and exhibits strong convictions dimension of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> based upon the time spent performing the athletic director's duties.
- 3.5 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the clearly defines their own role and lets followers know what is expected of them dimension of the LBDQ-XII based upon the time spent performing the athletic director's duties.

- 3.6 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the allows followers scope for initiative, decision and action dimension of the LBDQ-XII based upon the time spent performing the athletic director's duties.
- 3.7 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the actively exercises the leadership role rather than surrender leadership to others dimension of the LBDQ-XII based upon the time spent performing the athletic director's duties.
- 3.8 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the regards the comfort, well-being, status and contribution of followers dimension of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> based upon the time spent performing the athletic director's duties.
- 3.9 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the applies pressure for productive output dimension of the LBDQ-XII based upon the time spent performing the athletic director's duties.
- 3.10 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the exhibits foresight and ability to predict outcomes accurately dimension of the LBDQ-XII based upon the time spent performing the athletic director's duties.
- 3.11 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the maintains a close-knit organization and resolves intermember conflict dimension of the <u>LBDQ-XII</u> based upon the time spent performing the athletic director's duties.

3.12 There will be no significant difference between the overall responses of the athletic director on the maintains cordial relations with superiors, has influence over them, and is striving for higher status dimension of the LBDQ-XII based upon the time spent performing the athletic director's duties.

## Major Hypothesis 4.

There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors perform to each of the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII, as reported by athletic directors and head basketball coaches among the four school size classifications.

- 4.1 There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors <u>speak and act as</u> representatives of the group as reported by athletic directors and head basketball coaches among the four school size classifications.
- 4.2 There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors reconcile conflicting demands and reduce disorder to the system as reported by athletic directors and head basketball coaches among the four school size classifications.
- 4.3 There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors are able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety and upset as reported by athletic directors and head basketball coaches among the four school size classifications.

- 4.4 There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors use persuasion and argument effectively and exhibit strong convictions as reported by athletic directors and head basketball coaches among the four school size classifications.
- 4.5 There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors clearly define their own role and let followers know what is expected of them as reported by athletic directors and head basketball coaches among the four school size classifications.
- 4.6 There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors allow followers scope for initiative, decision and action as reported by athletic directors and head basketball coaches among the four school size classifications.
- 4.7 There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors actively exercise the leadership role rather than surrender leadership to others as reported by athletic directors and head basketball coaches among the four school size classifications.
- 4.8 There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors regard the comfort, well-being, status and contribution of followers as reported by athletic directors and head basketball coaches among the four school size classifications.
- 4.9 There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors apply pressure for productive output as reported by athletic directors and head basketball coaches among the four school size classifications.

- 4.10 There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors exhibit foresight and ability to predict outcomes accurately as reported by athletic directors and head basketball coaches among the four school size classifications.
- 4.11 There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors <u>maintain a close-knit</u> organization and resolve intermember conflict as reported by athletic directors and head basketball coaches among the four school size classifications.
- 4.12 There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors maintain cordial relations with superiors, have influence over them, and are striving for higher status as reported by athletic directors and head basketball coaches among the four school size classifications.

## Major Hypothesis 5.

There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors perform to each of the 12 dimensions of the LBDQ-XII, as reported by athletic directors and head basketball coaches within each of the four school size classifications.

## Sub-Hypotheses

5.1 There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors <u>speak and act as</u> representatives of the group as reported by athletic directors and head basketball coaches within each of the four school size classifications.

- 5.2 There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors reconcile conflicting demands and reduce disorder to the system as reported by athletic directors and head basketball coaches within each of the four school size classifications.
- 5.3 There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors are able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety and upset as reported by athletic directors and head basketball coaches within each of the four school size classifications.
- 5.4 There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors use persuasion and argument effectively and exhibit strong convictions as reported by athletic directors and head basketball coaches within each of the four school size classifications.
- 5.5 There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors <u>clearly define their own role</u> and let followers know what is expected of them as reported by athletic directors and head basketball coaches within each of the four school size classifications.
- 5.6 There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors allow followers scope for initiative, decision and action as reported by athletic directors and head basketball coaches within each of the four school size classifications.

- 5.7 There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors actively exercise the leadership role rather than surrender leadership to others as reported by athletic directors and head basketball coaches within each of the four school size classifications.
- 5.8 There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors regard the comfort, well-being, status and contribution of followers as reported by athletic directors and head basketball coaches within each of the four school size classifications.
- 5.9 There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors <u>apply pressure for productive</u> <u>output</u> as reported by athletic directors and head basketball coaches within each of the four school size classifications.
- 5.10 There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors exhibit foresight and ability to predict outcomes accurately as reported by athletic directors and head basketball coaches within each of the four school size classifications.
- 5.11 There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors <u>maintain a close-knit</u> <u>organization and resolve intermember conflict</u> as reported by athletic directors and head basketball coaches within each of the four school size classifications.

5.12 There will be no significant difference between the perceived degree to which high school athletic directors maintain cordial relations with superiors, have influence over them, and are striving for higher status as reported by athletic directors and head basketball coaches within each of the four school size classifications.