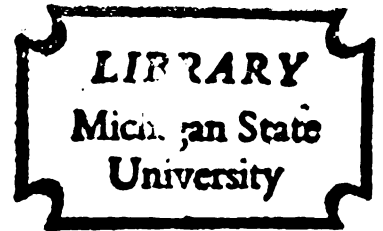


AN ANALYSIS OF PRINCIPAL BEHAVIOR IN
PROBLEM-SOLVING SITUATIONS WITH
INDIVIDUAL TEACHERS

Thesis for the Degree of Ph. D.
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY
DEAN WALDFOGEL
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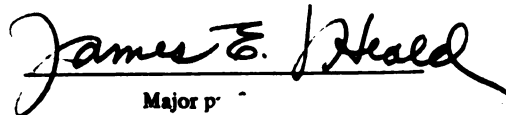
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ABSTRACT

AN ANALYSIS OF PRINCIPAL BEHAVIOR IN PROBLEM-SOLVING SITUATIONS WITH INDIVIDUAL TEACHERS

By

Dean Waldfogel

Extensive study has been conducted which attempts to categorize administrative behavior according to overall administrative style. Lewins' work on the effects of laissez-faire, authoritarian, and democratic leadership styles and Hemphill's study which identified nine aspects of style are representative. However, the results of such style research have been inconclusive.

An analogy can be made between the relationship of individual student differences and appropriately varied teacher behavior, to the relationship of individual teacher differences and appropriately varied administrator behavior.

On the basis of these considerations, several questions seem appropriate and provide the basic thrust of the study:

- 1) Should a variety of administrative approaches and styles be utilized to deal most effectively with individual teachers?
- 2) Is it possible to identify patterns of administrative behavior using the specific problem under consideration or the

individual organizational member as independent variables?

3) What are the variables within the total framework of the social system which are determinants of administrative behavior?

4) Does administrative behavior vary within particular style categories, or do administrators intentionally vary their behavior across various style lines?

Much of the past study devoted to administrative behavior has been done from a broad, all-encompassing perspective. This study utilizes a more atomistic approach, i.e., the focus is on a limited aspect of administrative behavior.

The study explores the nature of the behavior of secondary principals as they interact with teachers on a one-to-one basis in problem-solving or decision-making situations. The study attempts to answer the following questions:

1) Do individual secondary principals use both direct and indirect methods of dealing with teachers:

--as perceived by the principal?

--as perceived by the teacher?

2) Is there a relationship between teacher satisfaction with the contact and whether the administrator's approach is constant or variable?

3) Where both direct and indirect methods are employed, what factors determine the approach used by the administrator?

The collection of data related to the major questions of the study was accomplished by interviewing teachers

and principals regarding a one-to-one contact of a decision-making or problem-solving nature.

The interview format, one outline for teachers and another for principals, was intentionally designed to be structured, but open, i.e., the basic outline was followed as much as possible, while the interviewer retained the flexibility to diverge from the outline.

Relationships among the responses to selected pairs of teacher questions were analyzed using the chi-square test. Relationships between principal responses and teacher responses were analyzed by a repeated analysis of variance model. Answers to key interview questions provided the basis for identifying factors contributing to variance in principal behavior. None of the statistical tests produced significant results.

The following conclusions regarding Livonia Public Secondary Schools are made:

- 1) Principals use both direct and indirect methods of dealing with teachers as perceived by both principals and teachers.

- 2) There is no relationship between teacher satisfaction with teacher-principal interaction and whether the principal uses both direct and indirect approaches.

- 3) Myriad factors are cited by principals and teachers as being determinant of the approach used by principals during interaction with teachers.

Based on the results of the study, an extension of the Getzels-Guba model of leader behavior is described. The entire discussion is limited to the framework of one-to-one problem-solving interaction between principal and teacher.

Four major variables are proposed as determinants of administrative behavior in such situations: role expectations as perceived by the administrator, the need-dispositions of the administrator, the definition of the problem as determined by the administrator, and the aggregate characteristics of the subordinate involved. The four variables which determine administrative behavior are posited as being in constant and dynamic interplay.

Several propositions are offered which are deducible from the extended model.

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By

Dean Waldfogel

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Need for the Study

Proceeding from the premise that differences exist among individual learners, educational researchers have attempted to identify factors which contribute to learning, or the lack of it. Differences in such factors as age, socio-economic background, personality characteristics, physical characteristics, parental influence, self-concept, ad infinitum, have been studied. Research has shown that many of these factors are, indeed, related to learning. Studies are being conducted which examine the relationship between the learning style of the student and the teaching style utilized.¹ The hypothesis is that optimum learning results when the learning style is matched to the teaching style.

The implications of such research are clear: Educators must develop and utilize a variety of means to accomplish similar learning objectives.

An analogy can be made between the relationship of individual student differences and appropriately varied teacher behavior, to the relationship of individual teacher differences and appropriately varied administrator behavior. The existence of differences among teachers has been documented on a wide variety of factors.² Beliefs, their

1. J. E. Hill, Oakland University, Rochester, Michigan.

2. David G. Ryans, Characteristics of Teachers,

classroom behavior patterns, their ages, their socio-economic backgrounds, their training all reflect a wide range of variance.

Extensive study has also been conducted which attempts to categorize administrative behavior according to overall administrative style. Lewins' work on the effects of laissez-faire, authoritarian, and democratic leadership styles³ and Hemphill's study which identified communication, discussion, compliance, analysis, relationship, work organization, and work-direction styles are representative.⁴ However, the results of such style research have been inconclusive. In fact, Hemphill found considerable variance among and across the categories he identified.

On the basis of these considerations, several questions seem appropriate:

1) If it is true that a variety of teaching methods and styles must be employed to most effectively deal with learners, may it also be true that a variety of administrative approaches and styles should be utilized to deal most effectively with individual teachers?

2) If it is impossible to predict a given administrator's behavior on the basis of a particular style category, is it possible to identify patterns of behavior using the specific problem under consideration or the individual

3. Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lippitt, and Ralph K. White, Journal of Social Psychology.

4. John K. Hemphill, "Personal Variables and Administrative Styles," Behavioral Science and Educational Administration.

organizational member as independent variables?

3) If, in fact, administrative behavior varies extensively, what are the variables within the total framework of the social system which are determinants of behavior? Moreover, how much of the variance can be associated with a particular variable?

4) Does administrative behavior vary within particular style categories, or do administrators intentionally vary their behavior across various style lines?

Much of the past study devoted to administrative behavior has been done from a broad, all-encompassing perspective. The notable exception is an extensive amount of work done regarding the behavior of leaders vis-a-vis members of a group. While the significance of contributions of such comprehensive studies to the development of administrative theory cannot and should not be discounted, studies utilizing a more atomistic approach are needed, i.e., studies which focus on limited aspects of administrative behavior and make critical observations of the leader behavior related to that specific focus.

Purpose of the Study

The study will explore the nature of the behavior of secondary principals as they interact with teachers on a one-to-one basis in problem-solving or decision-making situations. The study will achieve its purpose if the following questions are answered:

- 1) Do individual secondary principals use both direct and indirect methods of dealing with teachers:
 - as perceived by the principal?
 - as perceived by the teacher?
- 2) Is there a relationship between teacher satisfaction with the contact and whether the administrator's approach is constant or variable?
- 3) Where both direct and indirect methods are employed, what factors determine the approach used by the administrator?

Equally as important, this study should make a contribution to the existing body of theoretical knowledge regarding leader behavior. Theory offered in idealized terms is rejected. The objective is a contribution to "theory" defined as the best and most accurate picture of how an organism actually works, a "representation of reality."⁵

Definitions

An indirect administrative approach is a method which encourages and/or suggests a change in teacher behavior and is accompanied by a rationale or extensive explanation for such a change.

A direct administrative approach is a method which requests a change in teacher behavior by means of a directive, generally without rationale or explanation.

5. Robert G. Owens, Organizational Behavior in Schools, p. 35.

Teacher satisfaction is a teacher-perceived positive feeling about the teacher-principal interaction as viewed in retrospect.

CHAPTER II: THE THEORETICAL BASIS FOR THE STUDY

Evolution of Administrative Theory

The study of administrative behavior and the development of administrative theory has virtually exploded during the past two decades. From the "scientific management" emphasis of Taylor and Weber during the early part of this century, administrative theory has evolved through the "human relations" approach of Follett's Creative Experience and Mayo's Western Electric studies, to the synthesis and reconciliation of these two approaches which broadly categorizes much of the work in the field since 1950.

The "scientific management" view of administration emphasized its economic aspects. Basically, such a view required an analysis of the job to be done by dividing it into its component tasks in an effort to develop means of performing these tasks as efficiently and effectively as possible. Gulick's acronym POSDCoRB is representative of the activity which was prevalent during this era. Each letter in the acronym, according to Gulick, represents an activity essential to the proper functioning of an executive: planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, and budgeting.⁶ The era was characterized by such terms and concepts as line and staff, span of control, money as the prime motivator, and unit cost.

6. Luther Gulick and L. Urwick, eds., Papers on the Science of Administration, p. 13.

These early theorists pursued the concept that people who were successful in leadership roles were endowed with certain traits or characteristics, e.g., intelligence, imagination, perseverance, emotional stability, etc.

"Classical theory" is a term commonly used to describe this network of ideas, and to the extent that these concepts retain their viability in current administrative operations, that description is accurate. Probably the chief weakness of the management view of administration was its focus on the organizational elements of administration to the neglect of human elements.

The "human relations" movement was a reaction to the structural focus of scientific management. Emphasis was now placed on the importance of cooperation so that the viewpoints of all concerned could be integrated in the interest of reaching a common goal. The study at Western Electric's Hawthorne plant seemed to support the idea that human variability is an important determinant of productivity; specifically, that improved interpersonal relationships between superordinate and subordinate and patient listening would result in improved work.⁷ Essentially, this theory proposed that the organization is a social system; that "involvement" of participants in the decision-making process is a prerequisite to efficient goal achievement of the organization. The era was characterized by

7. Fritz J. Roethlisberger and William J. Dickson, Management and the Worker.

such terms and concepts as good human relations, democratic leadership, group dynamics, human interaction, morale, and involvement. Disavowing the merits of a measurable traits approach to the study of leadership,* the possibility that common elements might exist which would ensure success in various situations was pursued. It was thought that perhaps certain skills could be identified for certain situations.⁹

Behavioral Approach to the Study of Leadership

The synthesis of the scientific management and human relations point of view is characterized by studies and treatises which attempt to describe the behavior of people in organizational settings. Chester Barnard's classic, The Functions of the Executive, provided what many feel to be the springboard for this change in perspective on administrative behavior. In his book, he drew effectively on his own experience as an administrator, integrated several diverse concepts which had been introduced earlier, and called for a social science approach to the study of administration.¹⁰

Simon's landmark work, Administrative Behavior,¹¹

* Stogdill's review of literature of the traits of leaders concluded that there was "...devastating evidence against the concept of the operation of measurable traits in determining social interactions."⁸

8. Ralph M. Stogdill, "Personal Factors Associated with Leadership: A Survey of the Literature," Journal of Psychology, 25, p. 71.

9. John K. Hemphill, Situational Factors in Leadership.

10. Chester I. Barnard, The Functions of the Executive.

11. Herbert A. Simon, Administrative Behavior.

followed closely the direction set by Barnard and opened the study of human behavior in organization. The central concept with which he dealt was "decision-making."

According to Simon, the fundamental aim of organizations is to maximize "rational" decisions. Specifically, the task of rational decision-making is to select that one strategy which will lead to the one preferred set of consequences.¹² Though his work reflects his basic organizational orientation, he is nevertheless credited, in Etzioni's words, with "...opening a whole new vista of administration."¹³

The behavioral approach to the study of leadership, then, does not focus as early theorists did upon underlying capacities or potentialities as determinants of behavior. Neither does it deal solely with the situational aspects of leader behavior. Instead, the focus is upon observed behavior, per se. As Halpin aptly points out,

No a priori assumptions are made that the leader behavior which the leader exhibits in one group situation will be manifest in other group situations, ...nor does the term behavioral approach suggest that this behavior is determined either innately or situationally. Either determinant is possible, as is any combination of the two, but the concept of leader behavior does not itself predispose us to accept one in opposition to the other.¹⁴

12. Ibid., p. 68.

13. Armitai Etzioni, Modern Organizations, p. 30.

14. A. W. Halpin, Administrative Theory in Education, p. 123.

Theories of Motivation

During the fifties and sixties, many significant contributions have been made to the development and refinement of the behavioral approach to the study of leadership. Several of these theories have already proven viable as demonstrated by supportive research and the logical, deductive extension of original statements.

The hierarchy of needs developed by Maslow is a theory of individual motivation which provides a base for and integrates well with other theory in the field of leader behavior. Maslow describes five levels of needs and posits that new levels of need surface as more basic need levels are met. In order from lowest to highest level of need, the categories are:

1. Physiological requirements, e.g., thirst, shelter.
2. Safety or security requirement (physical or emotional), e.g., preference for familiar and known.
3. Love, affection, and belonging needs.
4. Esteem needs, e.g., high value of self, self respect, self esteem, esteem for others.
5. Self-actualization needs, e.g., at peace with self, self fulfillment.

According to Maslow's theory, man strives with great intensity to meet individual needs at whatever level he finds himself in the hierarchy. As his needs at one given level are met, he works for fulfillment of the needs at the

next highest level with similar intensity.¹⁵

This interaction between need satisfaction and need activation has significance from Getzels' viewpoint for understanding that "...the flux of behavior in a social system...is not static, but dynamic."¹⁶ In other words, gratification of one need may call out other needs that then must be taken into account.

Parallel to, but later than Maslow, Herzberg writes that man's needs fall into two basic categories. The lower, or "animal" category includes such needs as safety, food, avoidance of pain, and "hygiene factors" which are defined by Herzberg to mean "the rewards which the organization offers to meet lower needs," e.g., working conditions, pay, pension, job security.¹⁷

The second and higher category relates to "man's compelling urge to realize his own potential by continuous psychological growth." This category includes needs such as maintaining individuality, being creative, and growing intellectually.¹⁸ According to Herzberg, the categories provide a useful model for understanding individual behavior

15. A. H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality, pp. 80-92.

16. Jacob W. Getzels, James M. Lipham, and Roald F. Campbell, Educational Administration as a Social Process, p. 76.

17. Frederick Herzberg, Work and the Nature of Man, pp. 44-56.

18. Ibid.

and for determining how to get the maximum contribution from each participant once you have identified the category in which the individual's greatest needs exist.*

As was pointed out previously, more recent theory tends to provide a balance between organizational and human elements. McGregor's "Theory Y" view of the nature of man provides for an integration of individual and organizational goals. In direct contrast to his Theory X's traditional view of man, Theory Y is based on assumptions such as the following:

1. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as rest or play.
2. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.
3. A commitment to objectives is a function of rewards associated with their achievement.
4. The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept, but to seek responsibility.
5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity, in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.¹⁹

McGregor mentions three means for achieving the appropriate balance between individual and organizational goals.

* In a complementary statement, Stern indicates that needs are revealed by an individual's modes of behavior or from observations of interaction.

19. Douglas M. McGregor, The Human Side of the Enterprise, pp. 46-48.

They are 1) self-control or internalization of standards of behavior, 2) collaboration between superordinate and subordinate, 3) integration of task requirements and individual growth which he states involves trading, negotiations, and accomodation.²⁰

Argyris further defines the relationship between individuals and organizations. He argues that there is a fundamental and inevitable incongruity between the needs and goals of an individual and the needs and goals of a formal organization.²¹ Both the individual and the organization always strive for self-actualization. The effort of the organization to impress its pattern upon the individual is defined by Getzels as the "socializing process." The "personalizing process" is defined by Getzels as the individual's attempt to impress his pattern of behavior upon the organization.²² Argyris concludes that effective leadership is the fusing together of individual and organizational needs so that they are simultaneously fulfilled.²³

Getzels-Guba Model

The well-known and comprehensive Getzels-Guba model of organizational behavior is also based on two similar

20. Ibid.

21. Chris Argyris, Personality and Organization, p. 211.

22. Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell, op. cit., p. 47.

23. Argyris, op. cit., p. 13.

dimensions. Within the framework of a social system, the model separates the phenomena into two classes: the nomothetic and idiographic. The nomothetic factor is defined as "the normative dimension of activity" and includes the roles and expectations associated with the institution or organization. The idiographic factor is defined as "the personal dimension of activity" and includes the need-dispositions and personalities of the individuals within the organization.²⁴

Getzels treats these two dimensions as being at once independent and interactive. If the character and interaction of these elements is understood, then the nature of the resulting behavior may be predicted and controlled. The equation $B = f(R \times P)$, where B = behavior, R = role, and P = personality, summarizes the relationship between the two factors. The diagram below illustrates pictorially the interplay between role and personality.

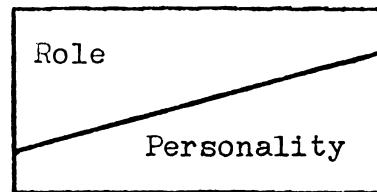


FIGURE 1
Relationships Between Role and
Personality Dimensions of Behavior

On the horizontal axis, the further to the right a given point is selected, the more the resulting social behavior

24. J. W. Getzels, and E. G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," School Review, LXV, p. 424.

would be determined by increased influence of personality needs and decreased influence of organizational constraints.²⁵

Three types of leadership style are deduced from the Getzels-Guba model. The nomothetic or normative leadership style is indicative of behavior in which the influence of role and role expectations is maximized. The basic assumption of the style is that institutional purposes can best be accomplished by creating appropriate procedures that will implement the purpose. Authority is vested rather than entrusted and the predominant conflict likely to be dealt with is role conflict.²⁶

If the influence of personality and need-dispositions is maximized, an idiographic leadership style results. The basic assumption of this style is that the greatest accomplishment will occur by making it possible for each person to contribute what is most meaningful to him. Authority is entrusted rather than vested, and the predominant conflict is likely to be personality conflict.²⁷

A third leadership style, which Getzels calls "transactional," is defined as leadership behavior in which the emphasis on role and personality are maximized or minimized as the situation requires. The basic goal of their leadership style is a thorough awareness of the limits of

25. Ibid., pp. 421-430.

26. Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell, op. cit., pp. 46-47.

27. Ibid., pp. 147-148.

institutional and individual resources and demands within which administrative action must function. Authority is either vested or entrusted, and sensitivity exists to all types of conflicts.²⁸

Extending the concepts of socialization and personalization, Getzels defines an adjusted individual as one who performs up to the expectations determined by his role. An individual who fulfills all of his personal needs is defined as integrated.²⁹

The following diagram represents an overall view of the Getzels-Guba model. On each of the two horizontal axis, each term is the determinant and the source of definition for the term succeeding it.³⁰

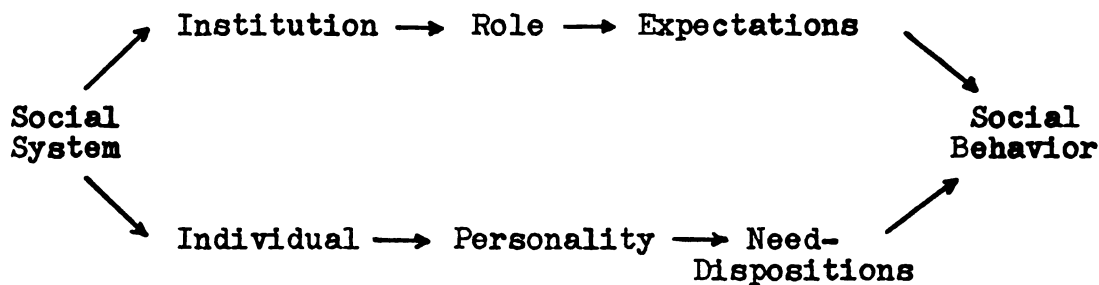


FIGURE 2
Model of Major Dimensions
of Social Behavior

The dyadic nature of the model yields interesting definitions of effectiveness and efficiency. Effectiveness

28. Ibid., pp. 148-150.

29. Getzels, and Guba, op. cit., p. 431.

30. Ibid., p. 429.

is defined as a "measure of the congruence of the role behavior and the role expectations." Likewise, efficiency is defined as "...a function of the congruence between behavior and need dispositions."³¹ Interestingly, Barnard also viewed effectiveness as being related to the accomplishment of the purpose of the organization and efficiency related to the satisfaction of individual motives.³² Getzels' definitions are refinements of those developed by Barnard in that Getzels offers a criterion for the measurement of effectiveness, viz., the role expectations as ultimately defined by the institution, and he lucidly describes the relationship between efficiency and the strain or expenditure of psychic energy.³³

Role Theory

To facilitate understanding of the Getzels-Guba model, a working knowledge of basic concepts of role theory which the model utilizes extensively is necessary. The concepts of "social system" and "role" merit further discussion not only because they are key concepts in the work of Getzels and Guba, but because of their centrality in the work of other theorists such as Bennis, Griffiths, Lonsdale, Benne, Parsons, Simon, etc.

The concept of social system provides a view of organizations with quite a different perspective from that

31. Ibid., p. 430.

32. Barnard, op. cit., p. 60.

33. Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell, op. cit., p. 129.

of the traditional line and staff chart. Formal definitions of the term social system vary directly with the author. Carr defines social system as "an aggregation of individuals and institutional organizations located in an identifiable, geographical locality and functioning in various degrees of interdependence as a permanent organized unit of the social order."³⁴ Homans states that

...the activities, interactions, and sentiments of the group members together with the mutual relations of these elements with one another during the time the group is active constitute what we shall call the social system....³⁵

Griffiths succinctly states that a social system, "...may be simply defined as a complex of elements in mutual interaction."³⁶ Regardless of the definition adopted, the concept of social system is a fruitful one irrespective of the level or size of the system under consideration. The concept forces consideration of the complex milieu within which the interaction occurs and is applicable to such diverse systems as a small committee, or an entire community. A social system may be a subsystem to some larger system within its environment and may also be a suprasystem to a system within its span of influence.³⁷

34. L. J. Carr, Analytical Sociology, p. 167.

35. G. C. Homans, The Human Group, p. 87.

36. Daniel E. Griffiths, "Administrative Theory and Change in Organizations," Innovation in Education, p. 428.

37. Ibid., p. 430.

Any discussion of role theory requires prior agreement on at least the more commonly used terms.

1. Role may be defined as a position within a social system with which is associated a more or less obligatory pattern of behavior.
2. Role expectations refer to behavior that should or should not occur in given situations as perceived by other members of the social system or institution.
3. Role performance or role description or role enactment may be defined as the actual behavior of an individual within a given role.
4. Role perception refers to the role incumbent's own views of the expectations for his role.
5. Role set refers to the relevant audiences or the prime communicators related to a given role.

Role enactment is then, to a greater or lesser degree, delimited by the role expectations ascribed to that role by members of the role set. In Goffman's words,

When an individual makes an appearance in a given position, he will be the person that the position allows and obliges him to be and will continue to be this person during role enactment. The performer will attempt to make the expressions that occur consistent with the identity imputed to him. He will feel compelled to control and police the expressions that occur.³⁸

The role expectation, as described by Bidwell, is a complementary relationship such that the actions and

38. Erving Goffman, Encounters, p. 99.

expectations of the role incumbent are oriented toward the expectations of the role-other, while the role-others' expectations act as sanctions to the role incumbent. Thus, the role expectations organize the need-dispositions of a number of individuals into a systematic whole so that social ends are maximized.³⁹

Role expectations also influence the behavior of those with whom the role incumbent interacts. To the extent that the role expectations are well defined, they may actually facilitate interaction. If role expectations are ambiguous, interaction is likely to be ineffective and dissatisfying.⁴⁰

Returning to our discussion of the Getzels-Guba model, the nomothetic or normative dimension of the model explains social behavior to be influenced to a lesser or greater extent by the expectations or norms of a given position or role as determined by an institution which is itself a subsystem of a larger social system.

The term "need-dispositions" in the idiographic dimension of the model includes both affective and cognitive factors. It refers both to a tendency to fulfill some

39. Charles E. Bidwell, "The Administrative Role and Satisfaction in Teaching," Journal of Educational Sociology, p. 41.

40. Theodore R. Sarbin, "Role Theory," Handbook of Social Psychology, I, Theory and Method, p. 503.

requirement of the organism, and the dispositions to structure experience and activities in certain ways.⁴¹ The need portion of the dyad refers to the aim or goal of the specific behavior, while the disposition factor refers to the manner in which he perceives the environment and the structure he ascribes to it.⁴² This concept, so defined, provides ready utilization for the needs theories of Maslow and Herzberg discussed earlier. Familiar concepts such as preference, interest, attitude, drive, etc., are part of the internal forces which make up an individual's need-dispositions.

As defined by Getzels, personality is "the dynamic organization within the individual of those need-dispositions and capacities that determine his unique interaction with the environment."⁴³ Intentionally omitted are definitions of personality such as "the sum total of ones observed behavior" and "the social stimulus value of one individual for other individuals or groups." The definition as stated, stresses the evolving and changing aspects of personality, its initiating as well as its reactive capacity, and hinges chiefly on the concept of need-dispositions.

In summary, the idiographic dimension of the Getzels-Guba model purports individual behavior to be influenced

41. Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell, op. cit., pp. 68-69.

42. Ibid.

43. Ibid., p. 69.

to a lesser or greater extent by the need-dispositions comprising the personality of a unique individual acting within a social system.

Interpersonal Behavior

A theory of interpersonal behavior offered by William C. Schutz falls within the purview of the Getzels-Guba model and provides a framework for the discussion of interaction among individuals. The basic postulate of Schutz' three-dimensional theory of personal behavior is that each person has three interpersonal needs: inclusion, control, and affection.⁴⁴ Inclusion is defined as the need to feel that the self is significant and worthwhile. In other words, "...the need to establish and maintain a satisfactory relation with people with respect to interaction and association."⁴⁵ The need to always or never be controlled and the ability to respect the self is defined as control.⁴⁶ Affection is defined as the need to initiate and maintain close, personal relationships, to be able to love others, and to have others love the self.⁴⁷

According to Schutz, each person has the need to establish and maintain a satisfactory relationship with other

44. William C. Schutz, FIRO: A Three-Dimensional Theory of Personal Behavior, pp. 18-20.

45. Ibid., p. 18.

46. Ibid., pp. 18-20.

47. Ibid., p. 20.

people in each of these areas. In each area, any given behavior may be ideal, efficient, excessive or pathological, and tends to be conditioned by the nature of interpersonal relations experienced in childhood between parents and children.⁴⁸ He further theorizes that

...every interpersonal relation follows the same general developmental sequence. Interaction begins with inclusion behavior, is followed by control behavior, and finally by affection behavior. This cycle may recur. When the relation approaches termination, it reverses direction, and investment from the relation is withdrawn in the order affection, control, and inclusion.⁴⁹

Theory related to a one-to-one, superordinate-subordinate interaction is extremely limited. As Goffman points out, sociologists have traditionally studied face-to-face interaction as part of the area of collective behavior.⁵⁰ Literature in the area of group dynamics is extensive and has been conducted by people such as Homans, Thalen, and Bales, to name only a few. Though the definitions of the term "group" offered by these authors frequently include groups of size two, the vast majority of their theory and research relates to groups larger than two. Even less group work has been done which would apply to groups of two where one member has a superordinate role and the

48. Ibid.

49. Ibid., p. 200.

50. Goffman, op. cit., p. 7.

other a subordinate role.

Nevertheless, several propositions offered by Homans merit our attention because of their applicability to the specific situation under discussion, i.e., one-to-one, superordinate-subordinate interaction. The following selected propositions offer not only a theoretical explanation for the type of behavior exhibited, but also for the frequency with which the behavior occurs.

If in the past the occurrence of a particular stimulus-situation has been the occasion on which a man's activity has been rewarded, then the more similar the present stimulus-situation is to the past one, the more likely he is to emit the activity or some similar activity now.⁵¹

The more often within a given period of time a man's activity rewards the activity of another, the more often the other will emit the activity.⁵²

The more valuable to a man a unit of the activity another gives him, the more often he will emit activity rewarded by the activity of the other.⁵³

The more severely the distribution of rewards and costs between persons places a man at a disadvantage, the more likely he is to display the emotional behavior we call anger.⁵⁴

Several corollaries are also noteworthy.

The more valuable to the other members of a group the activities a man emits to them are,

51. George C. Homans, Social Behavior--Its Elementary Forms, p. 53.

52. Ibid., p. 54.

53. Ibid., p. 55.

54. Ibid., p. 75.

the higher is the esteem in which they hold him.⁵⁵ (Esteem is defined as "expressed social approval.")

The more valuable to a man the activity another gives him, the more valuable the approval he gives the other, and the more often he emits activity to the other.⁵⁶

The more a man interacts with another, the more he likes him.⁵⁷

The more a man likes another, the more he interacts with him.⁵⁸

When a man interacts with another and the other's activity punishes him, but he does not break interaction off, then the interaction is not associated with much liking.⁵⁹

The more similar the values held by two men, the more likely they are to like one another.⁶⁰

Flexibility of Administrative Behavior

As noted earlier, the behavioral approach to the study of administrative theory has not been characterized by an analysis of simplistic relationships between administrative behavior and personal traits or situational factors. On the contrary, theoretical models which adequately explain behavior in the real world must account for a plethora of major variables. Halpin suggests that perhaps in our enthusiasm with the human relations

55. Ibid., pp. 149-162.

56. Ibid., p. 182.

57. Ibid., pp. 181-183.

58. Ibid., pp. 181-183.

59. Ibid., pp. 186-187.

60. Ibid., pp. 240-260.

approach, which he views in part as a protest against authoritarian leadership style, perhaps we have permitted the pendulum to swing too far. He calls for a re-examination of our ideas about the proper balance between human relations and structure. He warns that

...some principles may apply to both kinds of groups, but there is insufficient research evidence to permit us to assume a priori that leadership styles that succeed in informal autonomous groups will be equally effective in formally organized work groups.⁶¹

Some speculative writers such as Owens recommend intentional variance of leadership style.

The extent to which he (the administrator) can vary his leadership style--both deliberately and consistently--to suit 1) the situation, 2) the faculty group, and 3) his own personality, will determine his success.... How well he integrates, blends, and adjusts the components of his style in harmony with the situation, the group, and his personal being will largely determine his impact as a leader in the school.⁶²

Hamachek suggests that leader behavior should be a function of "personal" and/or "situational" needs. He argues that "functionally competent" leaders are preferable in situations where a specific goal is in sight, where a specific task must be done, or

61. Andrew W. Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration, p. 123.

62. Robert G. Owens, Organizational Behavior in Schools, pp. 135-136.

where an immediate problem must be solved. Contrarywise, psychological assistance, friendly sympathy, acceptance, and support may be more important under other circumstances. In other words, a leader must have "a built-in elasticity" if he is to adequately meet the multiple needs of his followers.⁶³

A certain amount of inconsistency in behavior is naturally to be expected. Parsons and Schills describe the flexibility of behavior which can be tolerated as follows.

An important feature of a large proportion of social roles is that the actions which make them up are not minutely prescribed and that a certain range of variability is regarded as legitimate. Sanctions are not invoked against deviants within certain limits. This range of freedom makes it possible for actors with different personalities to fulfill within considerable limits the expectations associated with roughly the same roles without undue strain.⁶⁴

Sarbin offers a similar statement.

Although in general people do seem to conform to role expectations, we should again emphasize that role behavior does not consist of the rigid following of specific directives. Most role expectations require only that some end result be accomplished within some limits. This allows the actor considerable freedom in the specific types of acts he can employ to accomplish the end. In other cases, the stylistic or ritual qualities

63. B. E. Hamachek, "Leadership Styles, Decision Making and the Principal," National Elementary Principal, p. 51.

64. Talcott Parsons, and Edward A. Schills, Toward A General Theory of Action, p. 24.

of role behavior are important permitting little variation from role expectations. Even in the most formal roles, however, stylistic variations unique to the individual may be permitted or even encouraged. Spontaneity occurs more often and is approved more often in the course of valid role enactment than one might at first assume.⁶⁵

Role performances, according to Goffman, depend on:

1. interpretation of role by incumbent
2. the kind of person he is and what he brings to the role
3. the dynamic interplay with other people
4. expectations of those in controlling roles such as directors
5. expectations of those in non-controlling roles such as colleagues and other reference groups.⁶⁶

Flexibility in administrative behavior is also discussed by Simon. He perceived role incumbents as being continually

confronted with a large number of alternate behaviors, some of which are present in consciousness and some of which are not. Decision...is the process by which one of these alternatives for each moments behavior is selected to be carried out. The sum of such decisions which determine behavior over some stretch of time may be called a strategy.⁶⁷

Viewing the selection of behavior, not as decision-making, but, as an assumption of a role, Carr identifies three phases of situational adjustment. In order of occurrence, they are:

65. Sarbin, op. cit., p. 503.

66. Erving Goffman, The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life, pp. 10-46.

67. Simon, op. cit., p. 67.

1. Gestalt awareness--awareness that a combination or pattern of human relationships and circumstances exists or is forming.

2. Definition of the situation--the ascription of meaning to the combination or pattern, either recognizing familiar cues to identify a stereotype situation or recombining familiar cues to achieve a new synthesis of meaning.

3. Assumption of role--selection of the "part" one is to play in the situation as defined.⁶⁸

Many theorists have discussed the balanced use of authority and involvement techniques by administrators. In Functions of the Executive, Barnard uses the term "zone of indifference", to point out that there are some areas in which the administrator's decision would be accepted without question.⁶⁹ This idea has been extended by Bridges who states that "excessive involvement of teachers can produce resentment and resistance."⁷⁰ Moreover, he suggests guidelines by which administrators can determine the appropriateness of teacher involvement in the decision-making process. 1) The test of relevance--if the teacher's personal stakes are high and if interest and participation

68. Carr, op. cit., p. 39.

69. Barnard, op. cit., pp. 167-170.

70. Edwin M. Bridges, "A Model for Shared Decision-Making in the School Principalship," Educational Administration, III, p. 51.

is high, then involvement is appropriate, and 2) the test of expertise--if the teacher has the necessary competency to make a productive contribution to the decision, then involvement is appropriate.⁷¹

Simon viewed influence as an alternative to the use of authority. In reality, however, the use of influence or suggestion as seen by Simon is not distinct from the use of authority. Though persuasion and suggestion were for him viable means of making decisions, his strong emphasis upon rational decision-making led him to the conclusion that if a disagreement could not be solved by suggestion and persuasion or other means of conviction, then it must be decided by authority.⁷²

Depending upon the kind of organization and the kind of decision, Dill discusses the need for variant patterns of participation which would be appropriate to such goals as:

1. control--to ensure decisions do get made,
2. motivation--to make decisions in ways that people who carry them out feel identified with their successful implementation,
3. quality--to involve those who have the most to contribute,
4. training--to develop skills in those likely to move into positions of leadership,
5. efficiency--to make decisions quickly and with as little waste of manpower as possible.⁷³

71. Ibid., p. 52.

72. Simon, op. cit., pp. 126-129.

73. William R. Dill, "Decision-Making," Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, p. 216.

In his discussion of Theory Y, McGregor stresses the need for "selective adaptation."⁷⁴ He further states that

...authority is an appropriate means for control under certain circumstances-- particularly where genuine commitment to objectives cannot be achieved. The assumptions of Theory Y do not deny the appropriateness of authority, but they do deny that it is appropriate for all purposes and under all circumstances.⁷⁵

Leavitt cites the need for differentiated administrative behavior within organizations so that sometimes Taylor's approach of organizing and controlling would be used, while at other times the participative approach of making jobs more challenging and novel would be used.⁷⁶ Specifically, he views the administrator as having access to three classes of organizational controls: structural, technical, and human. The structural controls include communication systems, authority systems, work flow and assignment systems. Mechanized equipment, including the computer, make up Leavitt's technical controls category. Included in his category of human controls are affective qualities such as trust, interest, confidence, challenge, and excitement. He suggests that the control to be utilized is dependent upon the goal to be achieved. If, for

74. McGregor, op. cit., p. 48.

75. Ibid., p. 56.

76. Harold J. Leavitt, "Unhuman Organization," Harvard Business Review, XL, p. 97.

example, the goal is within the domain of control, order and certainty, then structural controls should be employed first, followed by human controls. If on the other hand, the desired goal is in the area of creativity, adaptability, flexibility, imaginativeness, etc., then human controls should be applied first, followed by structural controls. He concludes with a cautionary note that the controls of such a system are extremely complex; moreover, they are interrelated.⁷⁷

The value of adaptable administrative behavior is also discussed by Lickert in New Patterns of Management.⁷⁸ He concludes that "to be effective and to communicate as intended, a leader must always adapt his behavior to take into account the expectations, values, and interpersonal skills of those with whom he is interacting." Moreover, he maintains that this general rule pertains not only in situations where leaders are interacting with subordinates, but in situations where leaders are interacting with superordinates as well. Indeed, the general rule holds for interaction between any two persons.

Overview of the Development of Administrative Theory

The development of administrative theory in this century has progressed through three somewhat distinct phases.

77. Harold J. Leavitt, "Consequences of Executive Behavior; The Administrative Two Step and Other Seemly Dances for Administrators," NASSP, pp. 167-176.

78. Rensis Lickert, New Patterns of Management, p. 95.

In the early part of the century, scientific management emphasized the structural and organizational aspects of administrative operations. In reaction to that focus, the human relations movement emphasized involvement techniques, group dynamics, and democratic leadership.

The synthesis of these two approaches is found in what may be called the behavioral approach to the study of administration. This approach concerns itself with actual descriptions of leader behavior and attempts to provide a balance for the structural and personal aspects of administration.

Theories of individual motivation including Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Herzberg's animal and self-actualization needs categories, and McGregor's Theory Y which deals with the nature of man, provide useful background for understanding behavior in organization.

The comprehensive Getzels-Guba model of organizational behavior provides a framework within which much of the existing body of administrative theory can be discussed. The basic premise of the Getzels-Guba model is that social behavior is determined by a fluctuating balance between personal need-dispositions and role expectations, or the idiographic and nomothetic dimensions of behavior.

Though theory related specifically to one-to-one, superordinate-subordinate interaction is extremely limited, Schutz's three-dimensional theory of personal behavior and several appropriate propositions developed by Homans are relevant.

Extensive conjectures are found in the literature relating to the need for flexibility in administrative behavior. Many of the concepts available to assist in this discussion, though developed independently, can be reduced to two dimensions of behavior--one organizational in nature and the other personal in nature. For example, the organizational-personality dyad corresponds to Getzels' nomothetic-idiographic, to Barnard's effectiveness-efficiency, to Cartwright's group achievement-group maintenance,⁷⁹ to Ohio State Leadership Studies' initiating structure-consideration,⁸⁰ to Bale's task--socio-emotional, and to even broader categories such as authority-freedom, and sociological-psychological.⁸¹

Perhaps Bennis' statement is a representative summary of the emphasis given to an appropriate balance between these two dimensions. "It is my contention that effective leadership depends primarily upon mediating between the individual and the organization in such a way that both can obtain maximum satisfaction."⁸²

79. Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander, Group Dynamics: Research and Theory, p. 466.

80. Carroll Shartle, Executive Performance and Leadership, pp. 115-122.

81. R. F. Bales, Interaction Process Analysis, pp. 8-29.

82. Warren G. Bennis, Changing Organizations, p.66.

CHAPTER III: RESEARCH RELATED TO THE STUDY

Introduction

Although research related directly to administrative behavior on a one-to-one, superordinate-subordinate basis is virtually non-existent, research does exist which bears directly on various component factors of that situation. Existing research which is relevant may be divided into three categories: a) flexibility of administrative behavior, b) communication between superordinates and subordinates, and c) teacher satisfaction with administrative behavior.

Flexibility of Administrative Behavior

In research of a situational nature, Leavitt varied the interaction and communication pattern for certain tasks and evaluated the accomplishments against criteria such as speed, clarity of organization, parsimonious use of paper, acceptance of creativity, flexibility in dealing with problems, high morale, loyalty, etc. Under the first condition, group members were permitted to interact only with the leader and were prohibited from interacting with other group members. The same tasks under the second condition were pursued within an interaction structure which placed participants in circle arrangement, but permitted a given member to communicate with either the group member to his immediate right or left. The leader was assigned a position at random in the circle. Assessment of the tasks in terms of the criteria mentioned above led

Leavitt to conclude that the highly routinized, noninvolving, centralized communication network seemed to work best by certain industrial engineering criteria such as speed, clarity, efficiency, etc. However, if the criteria for effectiveness is of a more general nature, e.g., acceptance, flexibility, morale, etc., then the egalitarian or decentralized network seemed to work better. He concluded that administrative structure, therefore, ought to be a function of the goal.⁸³

The Ohio State Leadership Studies, headed by Carroll Shartle, attempted to identify various dimensions of administrative behavior. Beginning with nine proposed dimensions, factor analysis of their initial study immediately reduced the nine to only three valid categories and further studies proved conclusively that all of the nine dimensions could be accounted for on the basis of two properly defined dimensions: initiation structure, and consideration. Consideration is defined as the extent to which, while getting work done, the administrator is considerate of members of his staff. The category is indicative of trust, respect, warm interrelationship, etc. Initiation structure is indicative of how well the administrator defines the relationship between himself and his staff, how well he defines the role he expects the staff to assume, and how well defined his patterns of organization

83. Leavitt, op. cit., pp. 94-95.

are, his channels of communication, and his ways of getting jobs done.⁸⁴ Shartle views the two dimensions, consideration and initiation structure, as being "...complementary aspects of performance."⁸⁵ The administrator uses both of them, usually in an integrated fashion. In some instances, initiation structure is emphasized; in other situations, it will be consideration.

In related studies at Ohio State, attempts were made to account for variance in administrative behavior. They concluded that, in fact, some stability does exist in both organizational and individual behavior. This was especially true of the more repetitious events where well developed procedures and work habits seem to account for the consistency of behavior. Nevertheless, they found it impossible to predict the behavior of a given person even on the basis of certain specific event or situations. Even in the more repetitious events, given individuals tended to behave in slightly different ways. Shartle concluded that accurate prediction of behavior depended upon certain independent, antecedent variables, such as:

1. value patterns
2. situational patterns
3. measures of aptitude, knowledge, and skill
4. measures of personality and interest
5. measures of physical energy and capacity
6. past individual and organizational performance.⁸⁶

84. Shartle, op. cit., p. 81.

85. Ibid., p. 124.

86. Halpin, op. cit., pp. 75-84.

As part of the Ohio State leadership studies, Stogdill designed a study using armed services personnel to determine if behavior patterns remained consistent from one job to another. In spite of extensive data, researchers were unable to make accurate predictions regarding the transferees behavior, and concluded that both the man and the job were valid determinants of job performance. Beyond that, Stogdill concluded that the type of organization, the level in the organizational structure, and the type of position exerts specific conditioning effects upon performance.⁸⁷

The expectations which teachers assign to the role of principal reflect the desirability of flexible administrative behavior. In a study by Sharma of the Midwest Administration Center, teachers were asked to indicate what individual or group of individuals should have decision-making power in each of 35 problem areas. The results demonstrated significantly that teachers felt their involvement should be greater in activities related to the instructional program, to teaching load, to reporting pupil progress to parents, to pupil conduct, and to extra-curricular activities. On the other hand, teachers did not expect to be involved in activities relating to determination of budget, determination of policies relating to teaching load, determination of personnel policies, determination of needs for new construction, and establishment

87. Ralph Stogdill, et. al., A Predictive Study of Administrative Work Patterns.

of standards for building maintenance.⁸⁸

Several studies have been done involving the personality and/or need patterns of teachers. While Guba and Jackson found need patterns of teachers to be a function of experience, Goldman, in a later study, found these same patterns to also be a function of age. Goldman hypothesized that

...the differences in need patterns of teachers with varying degrees of experience are largely a result of increasing age and of the problems it brings to people in our society.⁸⁹

From this hypothesis he extrapolates still further,

It is therefore necessary, for school administrators and principals in particular, to accomodate their behavioral approaches to the needs of the specific group with which they are dealing at any given time.⁹⁰

Lewin's prolific studies in the field of administrative behavior have been largely in the areas of group decision-making and other participatory techniques. He has also done extensive work on administrative style. He observed what happened when adult leaders of hobby clubs deliberately engaged in different leadership styles: democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire. The well-known results are that democratic leadership produced higher morale and greater

88. Chiranzi Lal Sharma, "Who Should Make What Decisions?" Administrators Notebook, III.

89. Harvey Goldman and James E. Heald, "Teacher's Need Patterns and the Administrator", NASSP, p. 102.

90. Ibid.

achievement than either of the other two types.⁹¹ However, researchers have been unable to consistently replicate the results of his study in other situations. This failure has led to the conclusion that situational factors alone fail to account for the total variance in the behavior of leaders.

Hemphill, in his extensive study of the behavior of principals, identified eight administrative styles.* In spite of the fact that the administrative styles identified were his own, he concluded that,

...only on rare occasions could one find an actual principal who would exhibit behavior in complete agreement with one of these styles. Far more often principals would be found whose work would be best described as a mixture of two or more of these styles. It would also be expected that many principals would show flexibility in their behavior, so

91. Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lippitt, and Ralph K. White, "Patterns of Aggressive Behavior in Experimentally Created 'Social Climates'," Journal of Social Psychology, 10, pp. 271-299.

- * The eight administrative styles identified were:
- 1) High communication style--stressed communicating with others problems encountered.
 - 2) High discussion style--extensive use of face to face discussion.
 - 3) High compliance style--follows suggestions of others.
 - 4) High analysis style--spend more effort in analyzing situations surrounding problems.
 - 5) High relationship style--concern for maintaining organizational relationships, especially with superiors.
 - 6) High work organization style--emphasis upon scheduling and organizing his own work.
 - 7) High outside orientation style--readiness to respond to pressures from outside the school.
 - 8) High work direction style--stressed importance to giving instructions to others.

that on some occasions their behavior would correspond with one of the styles and on other occasions would fit another.⁹²

Communication Between Superordinates and Subordinates

Several researchers have examined the relationship between communication and administrative behavior. Mellinger, for example, found that lack of trust was an important factor keeping subordinates from communicating with their superiors.⁹³ These results were confirmed by Lickert who found a high correlation between perceived "unreasonable" pressure for better performance from the supervisor and willingness to take complaints and grievances to their supervisor. He found that hostility, fear, distrust, and other similar unfavorable attitudes on the part of members of the organization, created a serious blockage to transmission and acceptance of information, particularly upward bound information.⁹⁴ Subordinates tended to be unwilling to bring their problems to a man who had major control over their destiny in the organization. The men were willing to share successes, but were relectant to share weaknesses

92. John K. Hemphill, "Personal Variables and Administrative Styles," Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, p. 197.

93. C. D. Mellinger, "Interpersonal Trust as a Factor in Communication," Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology, 52, pp. 304-309.

94. Lickert, op. cit., p. 45.

or failures.⁹⁵ He concluded that if the communication process was to function effectively, reciprocal confidence and trust on the part of members of the organization was necessary.

In a similar study conducted by Peoples, a significant relationship was found between the initiation of upward-bound communication for the purpose of problem-solving and the leader behavior of the principal. Using the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire, principals were placed into four categories depending upon a high or low score received on each of the dimensions of the questionnaire--consideration and initiation structure. The categories distinguished among principals rated low on both dimension (-, -); those rated high on initiating structure, but low on consideration (+, -); those rated low on initiating structure, but high on consideration (-, +); and those rated high on both dimensions (+, +). The hypothesis was that principals in the category (-, -) would receive less upward bound communication than principals in the (+, -) category who in turn would receive less communication than principals in the (-, +), who, finally, would receive less upward-bound communication than principals rated high on both dimensions. The study confirmed the hypothesis. In other words, upward-bound communication for the purpose of problem-solving is much more likely to occur when leader behavior is perceived favorably on both consideration and initiating structure.

95. Ibid., p. 53.

Based on the theory of complementary needs, Goldman investigated an hypothesis that principals would most prefer to work with teachers whose personal need patterns were complementary to their own. Principals were asked to list the one-fourth of the staff they would most like to work with and the one-fourth they would least like to work with. Both teachers and principals were administered the Edwards' Personal Preference Scale. Analysis of the data, however, failed to support the hypothesis.⁹⁶

The Western Electric Studies were also responsible for providing impetus to the study of communication. Argyris, in summarizing the implications of the study, suggested that "...one needs to learn how to listen, to recognize his and other people's feelings, and to ask questions that help to understand the situation."⁹⁷ Similar conclusions are stated by Culbertson and Rogers.⁹⁸

Teacher Satisfaction with Administrative Behavior

Teacher satisfaction with administrative behavior has received extensive study partly because of the ease with which such information may be obtained and partly because it is indicative of the value placed by many school administrators on the development and maintenance of positive

96. Harvey Goldman, A Study of the Teacher-Administrator Relationship and the Influence of Need Patterns.

97. Argyris, op. cit., p. 213.

98. Jack A. Culbertson, Administrative Relationships, pp. 392-393.

teacher attitudes. Bidwell in his study of satisfaction in teaching hypothesized that "convergence of teachers role expectations toward the administrator and their perceptions of his behavior will be accompanied by an expression by these teachers of satisfaction with the teaching situation." With admitted weaknesses in his questionnaire-interview technique, the hypothesis was accepted.⁹⁹ As a tangential part of his study, Sharma found also that teachers' expressions of satisfaction with their positions was related directly to the extent to which "current practices in decision-making in their schools conformed to the practices they felt should be followed."¹⁰⁰

Similar results were attained by Haralick who found that teacher satisfaction with their position was not so much related to the administrator's democratic or autocratic style, as it was to the teachers' "perception of the principal's positive compliance with the end norms."¹⁰¹ End norms were defined by Haralick as norms concerning what constitutes acceptable behavior by the principal, especially in the area of supporting teachers in front of parents and students, or, in other words, the "role expectations" ascribed to that situation by the teachers.¹⁰²

99. Bidwell, op. cit., pp. 41-47.

100. Sharma, loc. cit.

101. Joy Gold Haralick, "Teacher Acceptance of Administrative Action," Journal of Experimental Education, p. 40.

102. Ibid.

An interesting study by Prince revealed a relationship between the congruence of values held by principal and teachers, and the teacher's confidence in the principal's leadership and evaluation of his effectiveness. Teachers with traditional values tended to have most confidence in and perceive as most effective a principal who also held traditional values. On the other hand, principals who held emergent values were perceived as most effective and with the greatest degree of confidence by teachers who held emergent values. Prince concluded that it is not the values themselves, but their fit in the role set that seems important in the teacher's estimate of the principal's performance.¹⁰³

Overview of Related Research

Research which bears directly on the topic under study is virtually nonexistent, though some research can be considered relevant since it may potentially provide explanation for certain aspects of the phenomena. Studies can be cited which indicate teacher expectation of variance of administrative behavior from situation to situation. The evidence regarding stability of administrative behavior within a given situation, and from one situation to another is inclusive. (Perhaps this is so because an adequate conceptual framework for analyzing behavior patterns has not yet been built). Evidence supporting the need for flexibility of

103. Richard Prince, A Study of the Relationship Between Individual Values and Administrative Effectiveness in the School Situation, pp. 95-97.

administrative behavior to be dependent upon the goal is of an experimental nature only.

Research evidence does support the proposition that communication between superordinate and subordinate is much more likely to occur if trust and other positive attitudes between superordinate and subordinate are favorable.

Teacher satisfaction with their position has been found to be related to a congruence between teacher expectations for administrative behavior and perceptions of actual administrative behavior. Teacher confidence in administrative behavior has been shown to be related to the congruence of values held by teacher and principal.

CHAPTER IV: RESEARCH DESIGN

Collection of the Data

The collection of data related to the major questions of the study was accomplished by interviewing teachers and principals. The major questions of the study were:

1) Do individual secondary principals use both direct and indirect methods of dealing with teachers:

--as perceived by the principal?

--as perceived by the teacher?

2) Is there a relationship between teacher satisfaction with the contact and whether the administrator's approach is constant or variable?

3) Where both direct and indirect methods are employed, what factors determine the approach used by the administrator?

Two interview outlines, one for teachers and one for principals, were developed. The interview questions were developed so that information regarding the major purposes of the study would be elicited. Other questions were developed to provide interesting, related, but tangential information.

The interview format was intentionally designed to be structured, but open, i.e., the basic outline was followed as much as possible, while the interviewer retained the flexibility to diverge from the format. This approach had the advantage of permitting the interviewer to omit a given question if it was irrelevant to the situation

under discussion or to pursue in depth a facet of a situation not fully clarified or promising fruition if expanded. The interview method of collecting data was chosen in order to minimize the distortion frequently resulting from the imposition of artificial experimental conditions, and to maximize the disclosure of a wide range of complex data and variables potentially associated with the major questions.

The interview outlines were tested on one secondary principal and two teachers. With minor modification in the order in which questions were raised, the interview outline was adopted as originally proposed.

Five secondary schools were selected at random from among those in the Livonia Public Schools, Livonia, Michigan. Upon approval of the study by the Livonia Public Schools, the cooperation of the five principals was solicited. All principals agreed to cooperate.

The principals were asked to name, as of the time of contact, the most recent ten teachers in their schools with whom they had had individual appointments of a decision-making or problem-solving nature. Confidentiality of all responses was assured, and personal interviews of each of the five principals ensued.

The interview outline for the principals appears below. Each of the questions in the principal outline numbered one through six was designed to be asked in regard to each of the ten teachers identified. Questions in the principal

outline numbered seven through nine provided the basis for a general discussion after questions one through six had been answered relative to each of the teachers identified by a given principal. The entire interview was recorded on audio tape. Principals were arbitrarily assigned letters A, B, C, D, and E for reference purposes.

Principal Interview Outline

- 1) Did small talk precede the discussion of the problem?
- 2) Who stated the problem?
- 3) Was there a restatement of the problem?
- 4) Was the expressed problem different from the real problem?
- 5) Was an attempt made to help the teacher understand the basis for the decision or was the decision given directly without rationale? If without rationale, why? (press of time, previous experience with the teacher, written policy?)
- 6) Did you feel the teacher understood the basis for the decision? (whether or not there was agreement.)
- 7) Do you behave differently with different teachers who have the same problem? If so, in what way?
- 8) Do you behave differently if a given teacher has different problems?
- 9) Under what conditions do you vary approaches?

Subsequent to the principal interview, the ten teachers identified by each principal were interviewed. One teacher at each of two schools was unwilling to participate. Each of the questions in the teacher outline numbered one through nine was designed to be asked of each of the teachers interviewed. Again, confidentiality was assured and the interviews were recorded on audio tape. The interview outline for teachers appears below. Teachers were arbitrarily assigned numbers one through ten as well as the letter of their principal for reference purposes, e.g., teacher B-3 symbolizes the third teacher identified by principal B.

Teacher Interview Outline

- 1) Did you feel at ease when talking with him?
- 2) Did you feel he listened to you?
- 3) Did he ask your thoughts or your position?
- 4) Do you feel he understood your position?
- 5) Was the expressed problem different from the real problem?
- 6) Did he offer the decision with a great deal of explanation or with little explanation?
- 7) Did he mention existing policy as a basis for the action?
- 8) Did you have a good feeling about the conference?
- 9) Do you think the principal might have behaved differently if some other teacher had come to him with the same problem? If so, why?

Analysis of the Data

The raw data from the transcripts of the interviews received refinement in the following manner. Responses to both principal and teacher questions were generally prefaced with a "yes" or "no." Where the yes-no preface did not occur, answers were forced into a yes-no dichotomy by the interviewer for purposes of analysis. A summary of responses to the questions by teachers in each school appears in Table 1. The responses by principals to questions are summarized in Table 2. The specific data by teacher summarized in Tables 1 and 2 appear in Appendix A.

The responses of all teachers to selected questions were analyzed for relationships among the questions. This portion of the data analysis was a direct attempt to determine the existence of relationships between teacher satisfaction with the teacher-principal contact, and teacher-perceived principal behavior.

Ten selected pairs of questions were analyzed. The analysis was made by means of the chi-square formula using Yates correction for small sample size. The level of significance required for the experiment was set prior to the analysis at .10 level. Since ten tests were being made on the same population, actual testing for each pair was performed at .01 level. Specific entries in each cell of the chi-square table for each pair of variables are found in Appendix B.

Table 1

SUMMARY OF TEACHER RESPONSES BY QUESTION

<u>Teacher Question</u>	<u>Response</u>	<u>No. of Teachers</u>					<u>Total</u>	<u>Percent Positive Response</u>
		<u>A*</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>E</u>		
Ease	No	0	0	2	2	0	4	92
	Yes	9	10	7	8	10	44	
Listened	No	1	0	1	1	0	3	92
	Yes	8	10	8	9	10	45	
Ask Thoughts	No	1	0	0	1	0	2	96
	Yes	8	10	8	8	10	44	
Understood	No	0	1	0	5	1	7	84
	Yes	8	9	8	4	9	38	
Expressed Real	No	5	10	4	7	10	36	16
	Yes	2	0	3	2	0	7	
Explanation	Low	3	5	4	2	4	18	54**
	High	6	3	4	4	4	21	
Policy	No	7	3	4	4	5	23	45
	Yes	1	6	4	3	5	19	
Good Feeling	No	1	1	0	6	1	9	81
	Yes	7	9	9	4	9	38	
Behave Different	No	5	9	6	0	5	25	47
	Yes	4	1	3	9	5	22	

* School

** "High" categorized as positive response.

Table 2

SUMMARY OF PRINCIPAL RESPONSES BY QUESTION

<u>Principal Question</u>	<u>Response</u>	<u>No. of Teachers</u>					<u>Total</u>	<u>Percent Positive Response</u>
		<u>A*</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>E</u>		
Small Talk	No	5	4	6	4	5	24	40
	Yes	4	3	2	6	1	16	
Restatement	No	1	3	4	2	2	12	63
	Yes	5	4	2	3	6	20	
Expressed Real	No	2	8	8	6	6	30	36
	Yes	7	1	1	4	4	17	
Rational	Low	3	3	4	3	5	18	52**
	High	4	4	5	4	3	20	
Understood	No	1	0	1	5	0	7	81
	Yes	6	7	5	4	8	30	

* Principal

** "High" categorized as positive response.

In this situation, the chi-square test answers whether or not there was a change in the individual teacher's response from one question to another. The null hypothesis for the test was that a teacher's response to one question is independent of the response given to another question.

A correlation coefficient was determined for each pair of variables using the formula $\sqrt{\frac{\chi^2}{n}}$ = ϕ . The ten pairs of variables selected and the corresponding chi-square and correlation coefficient are displayed in Table 3. Only one pair of variables produced a statistically significant result, viz., the relationship between teacher-perceived positive or negative feelings about the interaction, and teacher perception of whether or not the principal understood the teacher's position and feelings regarding the issue under discussion. However, the expected frequency in one of the cells was less than three, viz., 1.2, so confidence in the result is questionable.

The relationship between principal responses and teacher responses was analyzed by a repeated measures analysis of variance model. The analysis encompassed two independent variables: 1) principals, and 2) teacher type, which was determined by the yes-no responses of teachers to individual teacher questions. The dependent variable was the principals' answers to principal questions. The teachers in the design acted as repeated stimuli to principals for answers to principal questions.

Table 3

CHI-SQUARE TEST AND CORRELATION COEFFICIENT
RESULTS FOR TEN SELECTED PAIRS OF
RESPONSES TO TEACHER INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

<u>Pairs of Variables Tested</u>	<u>Chi-Square³</u>	<u>Correlation Coefficient</u>
Ease (1) ¹ /Good Feeling (8)	.11184	.04
Understood (4)/Difference Expressed-Real (5)	.12772	.057
Understood (4)/Good Feeling (8)	20.959	.68 ²
Understood (4)/Behave Differently (9)	1.37068	.17
Explanation (6)/Difference Expressed-Real (5)	.56767	.13
Difference Expressed-Real (5)/Good Feeling (8)	.24766	.07
Explanation (6)/Policy (7)	1.01250	.16
Explanation (6)/Good Feeling (8)	.46744	.11
Explanation (6)/Behave Differently (9)	.13547	.03
Good Feeling (8)/Behave Differently (9)	1.29608	.16

1 Teacher question number.

2 Significant at .10 level. Expected frequency in one cell 1.2, so confidence is questionable.

3 Specific entries in each cell of the chi-square table for each pair of variables are found in Appendix B.

In this situation, the test answers whether or not there is a relationship between the principal's responses to certain questions and certain teacher types. The null hypothesis was that principal's answers to questions were independent of teacher's answers to certain other questions or, that the means of the principals' responses are identical regardless of teacher type.

To ensure an adequate n in each cell, two arbitrary criteria were imposed: 1) the responses to teacher questions in a given school must be distributed so that at least three of the ten teachers responded in each of the two, yes-no, categories, and 2) at least four of the five schools must meet the above criterion for a given teacher question. Based on these criteria, only teacher questions number six and number seven, amount of explanation and reference to policy, qualified for analysis. For teacher question number six, only principals A, B, C, and E were eligible. Eligibility for question number seven was limited to principals B, C, D, and E. Where more than three teachers of a given principal were of the same type, i.e., more than three teachers answered the teacher question similarly, three were selected at random for analysis of variance purposes.

Table 4 displays the data on which the analysis of variance was conducted for teacher question number six, amount of explanation. The two teacher types were determined on the basis of a high-low dichotomy into which the answers

Table 4

AMOUNT OF EXPLANATION*

<u>Principal</u>	<u>Teacher Type</u>	<u>Teacher</u>	<u>Principal Question</u>				
			<u>Q1</u>	<u>Q2</u>	<u>Q3</u>	<u>Q4</u>	<u>Q5</u>
P1	Y ₁ **	T1	1	1	0	1	1
		T2	1	1	0	1	1
		T3	0	0	0	0	1
	Y ₂	T4	0	0	1	0	0
		T5	0	1	1	1	1
		T6	1	0	0	1	1
P2	Y ₁	T7	0	0	0	1	1
		T8	1	0	0	1	1
		T9	0	0	1	1	1
	Y ₂	T10	0	1	0	0	0
		T11	1	0	0	0	1
		T12	0	0	0	1	1
P3	Y ₁	T13	1	0	0	1	0
		T14	0	1	0	0	1
		T15	0	0	0	0	1
	Y ₂	T16	0	1	1	1	0
		T17	1	0	0	1	0
		T18	0	0	0	1	0
P4	Y ₁	T19	0	1	1	0	1
		T20	0	1	0	0	1
		T21	0	1	0	0	1
	Y ₂	T22	0	1	0	1	1
		T23	0	0	1	1	1
		T24	0	0	1	0	0

* Principal responses to questions related to teachers who were selected at random from among those who answered teacher question regarding "amount of explanation" in a given manner.

** Y₁ :: Teacher negative response (0)
 Y₂ :: Teacher positive response (1)

to the teacher question about amount of explanation were forced. Table 4 displays the principals' answers to all principal questions, number one through number five for the teachers. A positive response is indicated by "1", a negative response by "0". Table 5 displays similar data for teacher question number seven, reference to policy. The alpha level for the total experiment was set at .10, thereby requiring each individual experiment to be tested at an alpha level of .05.

The analysis of variance data for teacher question number six, amount of explanation, are reported in Table 6. The results for the analysis of variance related to teacher question number seven, reference to policy, are found in Table 7. Back-up data for both analysis of variance tables are reported in Appendix C. Also possible under the analysis of variance is the testing of other hypotheses not related to the formal hypotheses of the study. However, none of the results, either those intentionally or unintentionally studied, was statistically significant.

The last three questions of the principal interview outline and the last question of the teacher interview outline yielded, as anticipated, a wide variety of responses. These responses and similar responses found elsewhere in the interview transcripts were crucial to the identification of factors determinant of principal behavioral fluctuation. A list of key phrases, mostly relating to factors influencing principal behavior, appears in Appendix D.

Table 5

POLICY*

<u>Principal</u>	<u>Teacher Type</u>	<u>Teacher</u>	<u>Principal Question</u>				
			<u>Q1</u>	<u>Q2</u>	<u>Q3</u>	<u>Q4</u>	<u>Q5</u>
P1	Y ₁ **	T1	0	1	0	0	0
		T2	0	1	0	0	0
		T3	0	0	0	1	1
	Y ₂	T4	0	0	0	1	1
		T5	1	0	0	0	1
		T6	1	0	0	1	1
P2	Y ₁	T7	0	0	0	0	1
		T8	0	0	0	1	1
		T9	0	0	0	1	0
	Y ₂	T10	1	0	0	1	0
		T11	0	1	0	0	1
		T12	0	0	0	0	1
P3	Y ₁	T13	1	1	0	1	1
		T14	1	0	0	1	1
		T15	0	0	0	0	1
	Y ₂	T16	0	0	1	0	0
		T17	1	0	0	0	1
		T18	1	1	1	1	0
P4	Y ₁	T19	0	1	1	0	1
		T20	0	0	1	1	1
		T21	0	1	0	1	1
	Y ₂	T22	0	1	1	1	1
		T23	0	1	0	0	1
		T24	1	0	0	0	0

* Principal responses to questions related to teachers who were selected at random from among those who answered teacher question regarding "reference to policy" in a given manner.

** Y₁ = Teacher negative response (0)
Y₂ = Teacher positive response (1)

Table 6

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE FOR
TEACHER QUESTION REGARDING "AMOUNT OF EXPLANATION"

	<u>Source of Variance</u>	<u>Sum Square</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>Mean Square</u>	<u>F Ratio*</u>
P	Principals	.625	3	.208333	.925924
Y**	Teacher Type	.075	1	.075000	.333333
PY	Principals x Teacher Type	.292	3	.097222	.432097
T(PY)	ERROR	3.600	16	.225000	////////
Q	Questions (Principal)	3.250	4	.812500	3.786413
PQ	Principals x Questions	3.083	12	.256944	1.197410
YQ	Teacher Type x Questions	1.717	4	.429167	2.000004
PYQ	Principal x Teacher type x Questions	3.417	12	.284722	1.326861
QT(PY)	ERROR	13.733	64	.214583	////////
TOTAL		29.792	119	////////	////////

* No F ratio was statistically significant

** Variable of primary interest

Table 7

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE FOR
TEACHER QUESTION REGARDING "REFERENCE TO POLICY"

	<u>Source of Variance</u>	<u>Sum Square</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>Mean Square</u>	<u>F Ratio*</u>
P	Principals	1.092	3	.363889	1.746669
Y**	Teacher Type	.008	1	.008333	.039998
PY	Principals x Teacher Type	.492	3	.163889	.786236
T(PY)	ERROR	3.333	16	.208333	////////
Q	Questions (Principal)	3.450	4	.862500	3.763630
PQ	Principals x Questions	1.125	12	.162500	.709089
YQ	Teacher Type x Questions	.950	4	.237500	1.036362
PYQ	Principal x Teacher Type x Questions	3.383	12	.281944	1.230299
QT(PY)	ERROR	14.667	64	.229167	////////
TOTAL		29.325	119	////////	////////

* No F ratio was statistically significant

** Variable of primary interest

Many of the key phrases were either directly mentioned more than once or were mentioned using different words to express a similar idea. Further refinement was given to this information by a categorization process. The key phrases were forced into arbitrary categories by the author. The arbitrary categories for principal and teacher responses appear below. In general, categories receiving more numerous mention are listed in the outline prior to categories receiving less frequent mention.

FACTORS IDENTIFIED BY PRINCIPALS AS
BEING RESPONSIBLE FOR VARIANCE IN PRINCIPAL BEHAVIOR
IN ONE-TO-ONE INTERACTION WITH TEACHERS

- I. Factors related to the specific situation
 - A. Nature of the problem
 - 1. Urgency and/or severity (5)*
 - 2. Complexity (number of interrelated factors, number of people affected, etc.) (4)
 - 3. Controversiality
 - 4. Familiarity
 - 5. Relationship to existing policy and/or practice (3)
 - a. Technical, mechanical
 - b. Immediacy and/or availability of solution
 - B. Teacher relationship to problem
 - 1. Personal commitment to solution and/or professional growth desirable (6)
 - 2. Teacher recommendation presented (2)
 - 3. Requested information presented
- II. Factors related to specific person
 - A. Personality characteristics (14)
 - 1. Rigid
 - 2. Authoritarian

* A parenthetical number following a particular category indicates that mention of this category during the interviews occurred more than once. The number refers to the specific number of times it received mention.

- 3. Sensitive
 - 4. Open
 - 5. Emotional
 - 6. Likeable
 - 7. Mature
 - B. Perception of other subjective personal characteristics
 - 1. Confidence in teacher's abilities (8)
 - 2. Perceived feelings regarding specific problem (5)
 - 3. Anticipated feelings resulting from a given administrative action (4)
 - 4. Educational philosophy (3)
 - 5. Loyalty to principal (2)
 - C. Teacher relationship to principal
 - 1. Previous working relationship (3)
 - 2. Personal relationship (2)
 - D. Personal information
 - 1. Family and/or personal problems (5)
 - 2. Age-experience
 - 3. Sex of teacher
- III. General
- A. Time availability
 - B. Administrative experience
 - C. Personal, emotional disposition

FACTORS IDENTIFIED BY TEACHERS AS
BEING RESPONSIBLE FOR VARIANCE IN PRINCIPAL BEHAVIOR
IN ONE-TO-ONE INTERACTION WITH TEACHERS

- I. Relationship of teacher to principal
 - A. Personal (6)
 - B. Working (5)
 - C. Principal's confidence in teacher ability and productivity (3)
- II. Personal characteristics of teacher
 - A. Age and experience of teacher (6)
 - B. Personality (2)
- III. Other
 - A. Extent of teacher concern and involvement in the problem (2)
 - B. Expressed interest in school program by teacher
 - C. Approach desired by teacher
 - D. Sex of teacher

CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

Results of Data Analysis and Answers to Major Questions

The correlation coefficient results for the ten pairs of teachers questions selected reveal the highest correlation between the paired responses of teacher questions occurred on teacher responses to 1) whether or not teachers felt the principal understood their position and 2) whether or not teachers felt satisfaction at the conclusion of the conference. The correlation was positive, indicating the responses tended to be in the same direction on both items.

Correlation, of course, does not necessarily indicate a cause-effect relationship. If the correlation reflected a real cause-effect relationship, implications for the behavior of secondary principals must be considered. For example, if teacher satisfaction at the conclusion of a conference is a primary objective of a principal, and if satisfaction is determined by teacher-perceived principal understanding of the problem, the principal might deliberately choose to spend interaction time with the teacher in an effort to assure the teacher that he, the principal, does in fact have a full and broad-based understanding of the problem.

On the other hand, both factors, teacher-perceived understanding of the problem and teacher satisfaction, could be related to still another factor, e.g., the congruence of the principal's decision to the desires of the teacher. Teacher perception that the principal understands the

problem fully may well be directly contingent upon whether or not the principal's solution or decision is compatible with the decision or solution desired by the teacher.

The relationship of these two factors bears some similarity to the conclusions of Haralick's study discussed in Chapter III, i.e., teacher satisfaction is related to teacher's perception of the principal's positive compliance with end norms. The correlation of these two factors may also parallel Bidwell's conclusion (Chapter III) that teacher satisfaction is dependent upon convergence of teacher's role expectations for administrators and teacher perception of administrative behavior.

A logical integration of the statistically significant correlation found in this study and the conclusion of the Haralick study might be the following: If the principal understands the teacher's position, then the principal will behave in the teacher-expected or teacher-accepted manner and consequently, teacher satisfaction will be increased.

Teacher satisfaction at the end of the conference did not correlate well with any other factor tested. Because of the direct relationship to one of the primary purposes of the study, viz., the relationship between teacher satisfaction and the constancy or variability of the administrator's approach, attention is drawn to the fact that the correlation between teacher satisfaction and amount of explanation given is low, and not statistically significant.

A fair conclusion would be that the use by a principal of only one technique--only high explanation or only low--will not maximize teacher satisfaction. An examination of Table 2 or Appendix A reveals that high levels of teacher satisfaction occur both in schools and situations where the amount of explanation perceived by teachers is limited, where the amount of explanation is extensive, or where principal behavior varies from one to the other.

However, the evidence is inadequate to conclude that appropriate selection by the principal of the strategy of high or low amounts of explanation is per se a good predictor of teacher satisfaction. The explanation for these results might lay in one of two extremes: 1) each of the principals involved was highly skilled in determining the appropriate approach to be used for the individual teacher and situation under consideration, or 2) teacher satisfaction with principal-teacher interaction is not at all related to the use of an appropriate approach.

Further, note that no relationship exists between reference to school policy and the amount of explanation. One might have hypothesized, for example, that reference to policy might have been accompanied by low amount of explanation and conversely.

An analysis of the frequency of various responses as shown in Tables 2 and 3 provides additional evidence related to the major purposes of the study. The responses

to teacher question number six regarding the amount of explanation given by the principal, and principal question number four regarding the amount of rationale for the decision provided also bear directly on the first of three major purposes of the study, i.e., are principals perceived as using both direct and indirect approaches with teachers? Fifty-four percent of the teachers viewed the amount of explanation given them as high, while principals perceived themselves as providing a high degree of rationale for decisions or solutions in 52% of the cases. Not only are these two percentages remarkably close, but the proximity to 50% provides evidence that teachers and principals agree that principals tend to use both direct and indirect methods of approaching teacher problems.

The fact that teachers recalled a mention of school policy in 45% of the cases and that principals recalled making a restatement of the problem 63% of the time provides further evidence that principals' behavior reflects a range of variance across situations and individuals.

Principal behavior was remarkably consistent as perceived by teachers on the questions regarding whether the principal had listened to them and whether he had asked their thoughts or feelings on the issue. Ninety-two percent of the teachers felt that the principals had listened to them, and 96% said that the principal had asked for their feelings or thoughts on the issue under discussion. On these dimensions of administrative behavior, the group of

principals in the study were more homogeneous in their behavior. However, the responses to these questions did not correlate well with teacher satisfaction regarding the conference.

The analysis of variance treatment rendered no statistically significant results. No significant differences were found among principals in their answers to the five principal questions. Differences of principal responses within teacher type, as determined by the teachers positive-negative response to a given teacher question, were also insignificant. In both teacher questions analyzed, graphing reveals interaction between teacher type and principal responses; however, the statistical analysis failed to demonstrate significance. Interestingly, the results imply no relationship exists between teacher-perceived amount of explanation and principal-perceived amount of explanation. Similarly, no relationship exists between principal perceptions regarding the degree to which the teacher understood the decision, and the teacher-perceived amount of explanation offered.

The verbal responses of principals and teachers to questions regarding fluctuation in principal behavior covered a wide range of factors. Principals, in general, perceived themselves as intentionally varying their behavior from one situation to another, as well as from one person to another. The issue of behavior variance elicited a response from the principals which reflected the view that behavior fluctuation was desirable. Moreover, the principals comments

left the interviewer with the impression that a skilled principal had the ability to determine the most appropriate approach for a given situation or teacher. Predictably, principals were able to verbalize many more factors which they perceived as being determinants of their own behavior than were the teachers. Outside of factors over which principals had little control, e.g., time availability and their own emotional disposition, the factors cited by principals tended to fall into two major categories, one related to the specific situation, and the other related to the specific person. (See Chapter IV, pp. 62-63.)

The personality characteristics of the teachers, themselves, or the principal's confidence in the abilities of a given teacher were mentioned by principals with a great degree of frequency as factors which influenced the principal's behavior with a given teacher. In spite of the individual teacher involved, however, principals also saw themselves as varying their approach depending upon the nature of the problem involved. The most frequently mentioned aspects of the problem which principals perceived as affecting their behavior were the urgency or severity of the problem, the complexity of the problem, and the desirability of a teacher commitment to the solution of the problem.

The comments of teachers in response to the question of fluctuation of administrative behavior reflected quite a different view of principal behavior variability. Teachers tended to feel that any variance in principal behavior

based on the fact that a different teacher was involved, reflected inconsistency--a definite sign of weakness. Teacher responses generally reflected a defensiveness of their own principal's behavior, e.g., "our principal treats everyone the same." Similar comments and the tone in which they were offered are the basis for the above conclusion.

The few teachers who did perceive a change in principal behavior dependent upon the teacher involved, tended to base the expected behavioral change on their own personal and/or working relationship with the principal rather than any personal characteristics of their own or any aspects of the situation under consideration.

If, as principals and teachers agree, principal behavior is directly affected by the personal and/or working relationship of the teacher to the principal, and if the tacit assumption that the better the personal relationship between teacher and principal, the higher the satisfaction with teacher-principal interaction is valid, then the inference can be made that principals should intentionally create situations which will foster the development of personal relationships with the teachers.

As was pointed out in Chapter II, there is a growing body of research which confirms the existence of a relationship between teacher expectation of principal behavior and teacher satisfaction with principal behavior. The discrepancy noted above between the value placed by principals on fluctuation of behavior and the value placed by

teachers on the same item, would lead to the conclusion that principals might spend valuable time helping teachers appreciate the need to use a variety of administrative approaches, as well as the advantages of doing so.

Conclusions

Based on the data presented in the study relative to the major questions of the study, the following conclusions regarding Livonia Public Secondary Schools are made:

- 1) Principals use both direct and indirect methods of dealing with teachers as perceived by both principals and teachers.
- 2) There is no relationship between teacher satisfaction with teacher-principal interaction and whether the principal uses both direct and indirect approaches.
- 3) Myriad factors are cited by principals and teachers as being determinant of the approach used by principals during interaction with teachers. Principals and teachers agree that the personal and/or working relationship of the teacher with the principal is a crucial factor. Principals list significantly more factors responsible for behavior fluctuation than do teachers. Included in the principal list of factors are other personal characteristics of the individual teacher as well as characteristics of the specific situation or problem under consideration.

CHAPTER VI: TOWARD A PARTIAL THEORY OF PRINCIPAL BEHAVIOR IN INDIVIDUAL TEACHER INTERACTION

Introduction

Administrative theory, unfortunately has fallen into extensive disrepute among practicing school administrators. They complain that theory has little, if any, relevance to the problems they face and the responsibilities they bear on the job on a day-to-day basis. Flippant use of the term "ivory tower" to emphasize the irrelevance of theory and the gap between theory and practice, is unusually common. It must be pointed out, however, that existing administrative theory, even at the current stage of its development, has had notable effects upon leader behavior. The Human Relations movement with its emphasis upon group dynamics and involvement is a case in point.

Nevertheless, criticism of administrative theory must be accepted for whatever element of truth it possesses. Few theoreticians would describe the current stage of theory development as anything but primitive, and would admit openly to many of its weaknesses. Much of the theory which has been offered is extremely fragmented. No acceptable framework has yet been offered for even those theories which have passed the test of research. Moreover, leading theorists themselves are unable to agree upon the most profitable approach to the development of further theory. Views espoused regarding the solution to the problem range from additional observation of raw behavior to the development and refinement of a comprehensive theory of administration.

Carr's statement on the development of a comprehensive theory of leadership summarizes the parameters within which such development must occur.

Any comprehensive theory of leadership must incorporate and integrate all the major variables which are now known to be involved, namely, 1) the personality of the leader, 2) the followers, with their attitudes, needs, and problems, 3) the group itself as regarding both a) structure of interpersonal relations and b) group characteristics, and 4) the situation as determined by physical setting, nature of task, etc. Furthermore, any satisfactory theory must recognize that it is not these variables per se that enter into the leadership relation, but rather the perception of the leader by himself and by others, the leader's perception of those others, and the shared perception by the leader and others of the group and the situation. What is needed is a conception in which the complex interaction of these factors can be incorporated.¹⁰⁴

Extension of the Getzels-Guba Model

One of the most general theoretical models presented to date is the Getzels-Guba model discussed earlier in this paper (See pp. 13-17). As noted earlier, this model offers two dimensions as determinants of behavior--the nomothetic or role and its accompanying expectations, and the idiographic or personality and its unique set of need-dispositions. The dynamic interaction of the two dimensions receives extensive treatment as does each dimension independently.

Nevertheless, the model as it exists, even with its degree of comprehensiveness and the extensive research which supports it, does not meet Carr's criterion of

104. Carr, op. cit., p. 261.

incorporating and integrating all the major variables which are known to be involved in administrative behavior. Indeed, the model's creators openly discuss its limitations. For example, it does not fully account for either the followers with their related attitudes, needs, and problems, nor the situation as determined by physical setting, nature of the task, etc. The study described in this paper has shown that in principal-teacher, face-to-face interaction, factors related to the subordinate individual and factors related to the task or problem under discussion are extremely important determinants of principal behavior.

In this section an attempt will be made to extend the Getzels-Guba model to meet the objections raised above. The extension is made only within the purview of this study, i.e., principal-teacher, one-to-one interaction. No violation of the existing Getzels-Guba model is intended. The attempt is simply designed to account for some of the "individual latitude" which the Getzels-Guba model permits. Getzels' states:

...behavior...is a function of both role and personality.... When role is maximized, behavior still retains some personal aspects because no role is ever so closely defined as to eliminate all individual latitude. When personality is maximized, social behavior still cannot be free from some role prescription.¹⁰⁵

Determinants of Behavior: Situation and Individual

According to the Getzels' formula, behavior is a function of role and personality; more specifically, it

105. Getzels, op. cit., p. 83.

is a function of role expectations and need-dispositions. Within the parameters outlined above and based on the results of the study, two other variables must be considered determinants of behavior. For purposes of this discussion, the variables will be called situation and individual. The term situation may be defined as the nature of the problem or task under consideration. Terms such as urgency, complexity, controversiality, familiarity, and relationship to existing policy and practice, serve as examples of possible dimensions which define the nature of the problem. The use of categorical factors such as these complemented with other factual and opinion data related to the situation combine to create the administrator's definition of the problem. It is the administrator's perception of the problem which has the potential of influencing his behavior.

The term individual shall refer to the unique person associated with the specific situation under consideration. Associated with the individual, is a broad and extensive array of characteristics perceived by the administrator which are unique to the person. Some of these characteristics, such as age, experience, sex, etc., are part of a factual bank of data related to the individual. Still other characteristics are derivations of behavioral cues. These cues emanate from a variety of sources including actual observed behavior, previous personal interaction, verbal feedback from other members of the organization, etc. From these cues, the

administrator ascribes to the individual attitudes, beliefs, values, philosophies, expectations, need-dispositions, interpersonal skills, a degree of confidence in his work and so forth. This aggregation of characteristics perceived by the administrator, regardless of the accuracy of that perception, may have a direct impact on the actual behavior of the administrator.

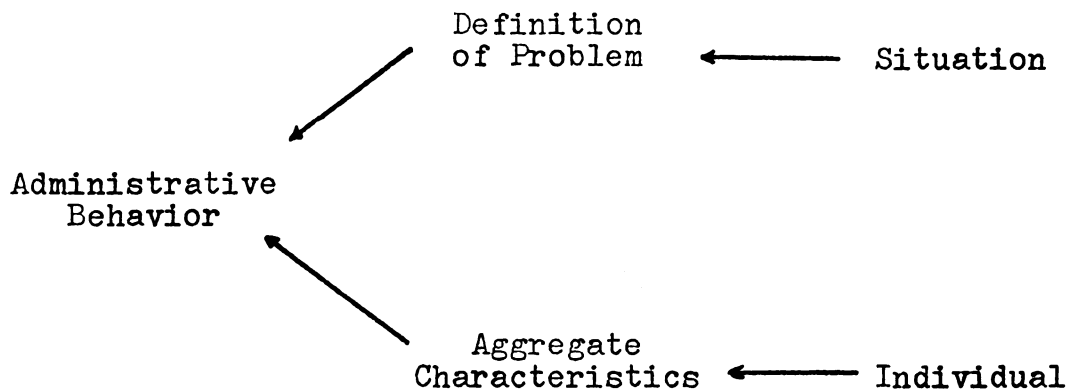


FIGURE 3
The Situation and Individual Dimensions of Principal Behavior in One-to-One Interaction with Teachers

A pictorial representation of the two variables under discussion is seen in Figure 3. Each term in the figure devolves from the one on its right in the sense that the administrative behavior is determined by giving consideration to each of the categories in the order indicated. Varying degrees of emphasis given to particular aspects of the preceding category finally determine the actual behavior. As in the Getzels-Guba model, there is a dynamic interplay of the two major factors in determining administrative behavior, in this case, situation and individual. In some circumstances, the individual administrator will give greater

emphasis to situational factors than to individual factors. The emphasis under different conditions may be reversed.

If the situation is one which clearly relates to existing policy, then administrative behavior is likely to emphasize the situational dimension. If, on the other hand, the problem may be resolved by means of several viable alternatives, administrative behavior may give emphasis to the personal dimension. Perhaps no problem can be fully associated with one dimension to the exclusion of the other. For example, even in situations which fall within the purview of clearly defined policy, the actual method for enforcement, the verbage selected, and the tone of the interaction, may still be subject to individual consideration.

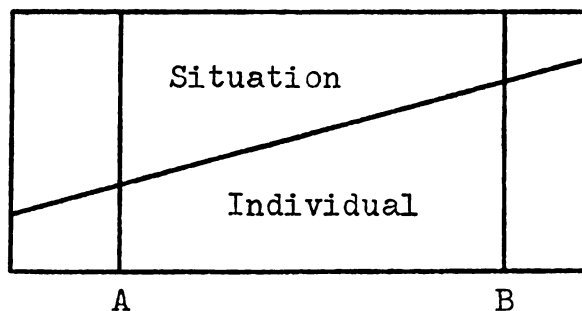


FIGURE 4
Varying Proportions of Situation and Individual
Determinants of Principal Behavior

The interplay between the two variables can be represented in a pictorial manner similar to the one representing the interaction of role and personality (See Figure 4). Any given vertical line drawn across the figure represents the relative emphasis ascribed to situational or individual dimensions. For example, behavior represented by line A

places heavy emphasis upon situational aspects, while line B represents behavior in which heavy emphasis is placed upon individual aspects.

Interaction of Four Behavior Determinant Variables

The original point was, however, that situation and individual represented two variables in addition to role and personality which are determinants of administrative behavior. The hypothesis is that any administrative behavior is a function of these four variables and the relative emphasis given by the administrator to each variable. Consideration must now be given to the dynamic interplay of four variables. In mathematical notation, the Getzels-Guba formula $B = f(R \times P)$ must be expanded to the formula $B = f[(R \times P) + (S \times I)]$ where S represents the term situation and I represents the term individual. In other words, administrative behavior is determined by some balance on each of two pairs of dimensions. Further, the assumption that there is considerable variability in the balance between the influence of role and personality associated with a given administrator is maintained.

The three-dimensional figure following represents the interaction of these pairs of variables (Figure 5). The back, vertical panels each represents the interaction of one of the given pairs of variables, Role-Personality and Situation-Individual. The floor panel in the figure represents the arena of interaction of these two pairs of variables. The floor is arbitrarily divided into four equal quarters to facilitate discussion and analysis.

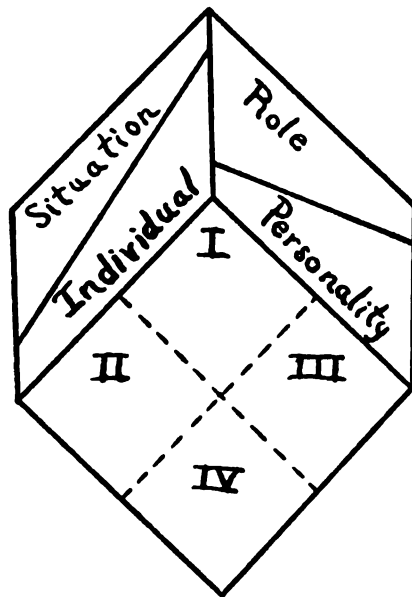


FIGURE 5
Interplay in Three-Dimensional Space
of the Four Variables:
Role, Personality, Situation, Individual

This model in three-dimensional space permits us to graphically portray the interplay of the four variables. Using a process of triangulation, the line representing the Role-Personality balance, can be crossed with the line representing the Situation-Individual balance so that actual behavior may be represented by a precise point on the floor of the model. The triangulation process is accomplished in the following manner (See Figure 6). Let vertical line C on the Role-Personality panel represent the relative emphasis ascribed to role and personality as determined by a given behavior. Let vertical line D on the Situation-Individual panel represent the relative emphasis given to situation and individual dimensions determined by a particular behavior. Project line C across the floor panel in a plane parallel to the Situation-Individual panel and containing line C. Similarly, project line D across the

the floor panel in a plane parallel to the Role-Personality panel and containing line D. The projected lines intersect at point Q which represents the actual administrative behavior resulting from the emphases placed at C and D.

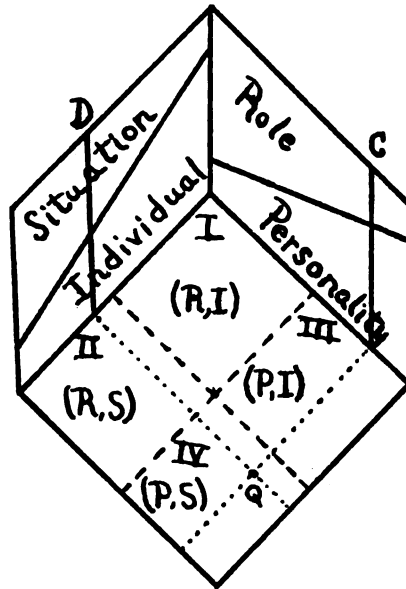


FIGURE 6
The Triangulation Process

Activity in quadrant I then, represents greater influence ascribed to role than to personality, and greater influence given to individual than to situation. The notation (R, I) may also be used to denote this quadrant. Likewise quadrant II represents high emphasis given to role and situation, or (R, S). In quadrant III, high emphasis is placed on personality and individual or (P, I). Finally, quadrant IV represents high emphasis placed on personality and situation, or (P, S).

Propositions

Several interesting hypotheses are deducible from

the model as described.

Proposition 1

The greater the emphasis attributed to role, the more likely heavy emphasis will be given to situation, or

As $i(R) \rightarrow \infty$, then $p[i(S) > i(I)] \rightarrow 1$.*

Proposition 1 depicts the situation in which an administrator is extremely cognizant of the constraints placed upon his behavior by the role in which he finds himself an incumbent. The implication is made that the greater the emphasis he ascribes to role expectations, the more likely it is that he will find himself giving emphasis to the situational aspects of one-to-one interaction. This conclusion coincides with Getzels declaration that the primary type of conflict associated with the Normative Leadership Style is role conflict.¹⁰⁶ There are obvious exceptions to this generalization. Role expectations, for example, would mandate certain administrative behavior emanating from the fact that a teacher possessed some physical handicap. Nevertheless, the preponderance of administrative behavior occurring on the role side of the role-personality continuum would take place in quadrant II of the arena rather than quadrant I.

Proposition 2

The heavier the influence ascribed to personality, the more likely that the individual dimension will receive heavy emphasis, or

As $i(P) \rightarrow \infty$, then $p[i(I) > i(S)] \rightarrow 1$.

106. Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell, op. cit., p. 147.

* $i(R)$ = influence of Role; \rightarrow = approaches;
 $p[i(S) > i(I)]$ = probability that the influence of Situation is greater than the influence of Individual.

Proposition 2 suggests that administrative behavior which is dominated by the need-dispositions of the personality is likely to be heavily influenced by individual characteristics ascribed by the administrator to the subordinate involved in the interaction. This deduction also coincides with Getzels' statement that the primary type of conflict associated with the personal leadership style is personality conflict.¹⁰⁷ While behavior dominated by personality as opposed to role may occur in both quadrants III and IV, the majority of that behavior can be expected to occur in quadrant III.

Proposition 3

The more balanced and varied the influence of role and personality, the more likely it is that the influence of situation and individual will be varied, or

As $i(R) \rightarrow i(P)$, then $p[i(S) = i(I)] = p[i(S) > i(I)] = p[i(I) > i(S)]$.

Flexibility in administrative behavior as described in Getzels' Transactional Style is precluded when behavior proceeds from an inordinately high impact of either role expectations or personality needs.¹⁰⁸ In either case, the range of administrative behavior is extremely limited and consequently more predictable.

On the other hand, if a balance between the influence of role and personality on behavior can be achieved, and further, if the influence of role and personality can be intentionally controlled from one situation to another,

107. Ibid., p. 148.

108. Ibid., pp. 148-150.

the entire range of administrative behavior will be broadened. As delineated by the propositions, in the case of behavior dominated by role considerations, behavior dominated by situational considerations is expected. Likewise, where personality considerations dominate behavior, dominance by individual considerations is anticipated. But where a balance between role and personality considerations can be achieved, a variety of situational and individual balances can be expected to occur. A balance between role and personality frees the administrator from narrow, compulsive behavior, and makes it possible for him to intentionally vary the balance between situational and individual considerations as well. The result is that in some cases situational aspects dominate, in some cases individual aspects dominate, and in still others, they are quite equal.

Variability in administrative behavior raises an interesting question regarding its relationship to a common teacher expectation for administrative behavior, namely, consistency. Does the administrator who intentionally varies his behavior to take into consideration specific situational and individual features sacrifice a degree of teacher satisfaction with his behavior since teachers expect him to be consistent? Obviously, the question is extremely complex and no further analysis of the question shall be undertaken here.

Summarizing, at the role end of the continuum, the preponderance of behavior is expected to occur in quadrant II.

At the personality end of the continuum, the preponderance of activity is expected to occur in quadrant III. Where role and personality considerations are balanced (centralized), a range of behavior on the situation-individual continuum is most likely to occur.

Proposition 4

The preponderance of administrative behavior will occur on the floor panel within an S-shaped band running from extreme quadrant II to extreme quadrant III.

Proposition 4 is deduced directly from Propositions 1, 2, and 3.

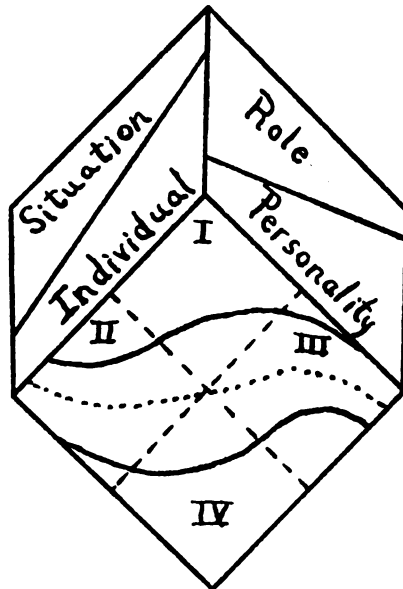


FIGURE 7
The S-Shaped Curve

Figure 7 shows pictorially the portion of the arena in which the preponderance of all administrative behavior is expected. The area is essentially an S-shaped curve with a very narrow band at either end representing the limited range of behavior we expected there, and a very wide band in the center representing the broad range of activity expected when role and personality considerations are balanced.

The S-shaped band is in no way intended to account for all administrative behavior. The hypothesis is simply that the S-shape will account for a major and significant portion of that behavior.

Proposition 5

Behavior occurring in quadrants I and III is particularistic in nature while behavior occurring in quadrants II and IV is universalistic in nature.

For the purpose of discussion, the floor panel will be divided into two halves with quadrants I and III in one half, and quadrants II and IV in another. An interesting parallel can be found between the general behavior occurring in each half and the particularistic and universalistic dimensions of behavior. The particularistic-universalistic dichotomy is offered by Parsons as a means of analyzing interpersonal relationships.¹⁰⁹ Particularistic relationships are described as those in which the interaction is determined on the basis of personal rather than role factors. Emotional rather than functional ties define the rights and obligations of the participants. The affective content of the interchange would likely be high and functional considerations would be secondary to emotional ones. Consistent with the discussion of the model described in this chapter, behavior occurring in quadrants I and III would be particularistic in nature.

Likewise, activity occurring in quadrants II and IV can be hypothesized as universalistic in nature. In other words, subordinates involved in behavior occurring in these

109. Parsons and Schills, op. cit., pp. 81-82.

quadrants are likely to receive the same treatment regardless of who they are. Interaction is determined on the basis of role rather than personal factors. The administrator would maintain affective neutrality and emotional considerations would be secondary to functional ones.

Proposition 6

The greater the interrelationship between the definition of the problem and the aggregate characteristics of the individual, the less efficient the decision-making process.

Obviously, the more factors which must be taken into consideration, the greater the complexity of the situation and the more difficult rational decision-making becomes. Proposition 6, however, describes a situation which is not so simple as adding linearly to the number of factors to be considered. Rather, the dimensions of the problem increase geometrically when the definition of the problem is intertwined with the characteristics of the individual.

In some cases, attention can be focused on the definition of the problem to the virtual exclusion of individual characteristics. A solution to a problem, for example, may simply require the collection of appropriate data and its analysis. In other cases, the reverse may be true, i.e., characteristics of the individual receive exclusive attention. For example, high political or personal interests may result in a decision to make an immediate exception to existing policies. Moreover, some administrators are inclined to treat one dimension of the total field while giving little or no emphasis to the other dimension. By comparison, the decision-making process under these conditions, i.e.,

consideration of only one dimension, is relatively simple.

However, when an administrator intentionally sets about to give thorough consideration to both dimensions of the interaction, the decision-making process becomes unusually complex. The situation is no longer so easy as simply issuing a directive with which a subordinate is expected to comply. An administrator may decide to deal with the attitudes of the subordinate from whom behavioral change is desired. Such complexity in the decision-making process makes much heavier demands on the mental energies of administrators than those where the interrelationship between problem and individual is ignored. To the extent that mental energies are expended, or that psychic strain is present, efficiency is sacrificed.¹¹⁰ (See page 17.)

The Broader Model

The full array of forces impinging upon an administrator in one-to-one interaction may also be portrayed by means of the diagram in Figure 8. This diagram is simply a composite of the Getzels-Guba model and the extension of that model described in this paper. Behavioral determinants on the left side of the diagram relate specifically to the administrator or superordinate and role expectations as he perceives them emerging from the organization. Behavioral determinants on the right side relate specifically to the teacher or subordinate in the interaction and to the administrator's perception of the problem involving the subordinate.

110. Getzels, op. cit., p. 129.

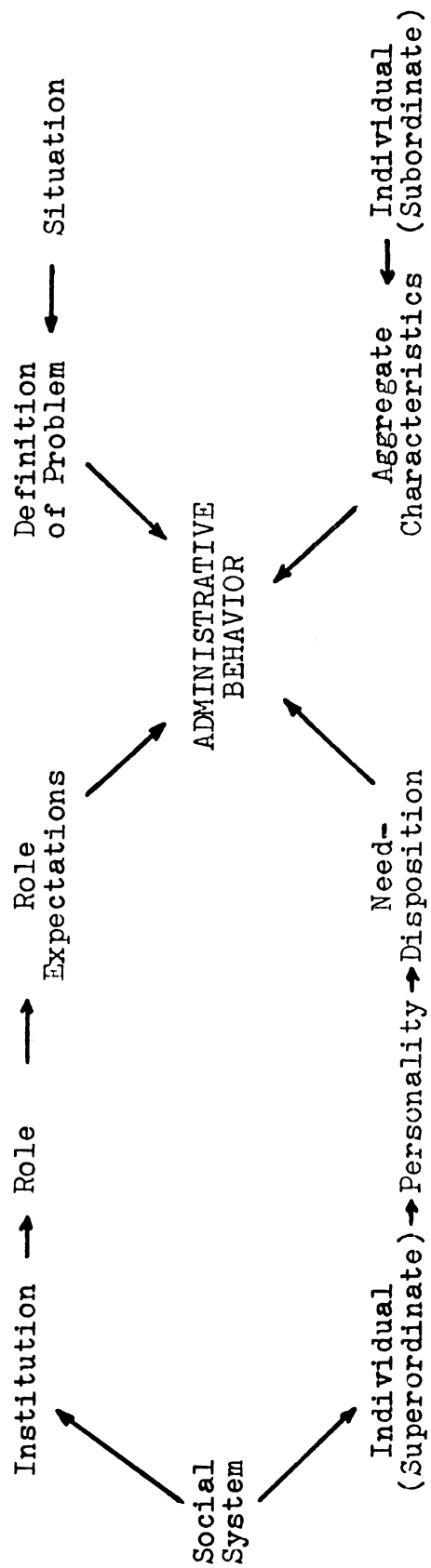


FIGURE 8
The Extended Getzels-Guba Model

If a vector analysis could be done of the four arrows most directly influencing administrative behavior, the length of each of these arrows, i.e., the emphasis given to each of the four variables, would be revealed in constant flux for a particular administrator. In some cases, the fluctuation is conscious and deliberate, but even where behavioral consistency is the goal, some fluctuation inevitable occurs.

Summary

In this chapter, a theoretical model of administrative behavior which attempts to describe the real world was discussed. The entire discussion was limited to the framework of one-to-one problem-solving interaction between principal and teacher.

Four major variables were proposed as determinants of administrative behavior in such situations: role expectations as perceived by the administrator, the need-dispositions of the administrator, the definition of the problem as determined by the administrator, and the aggregate characteristics of the subordinate involved. The four variables which determine administrative behavior were posited as being in a constant and dynamic interplay.

Several propositions were offered which are deducible from the model.

CHAPTER VII: IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study was intentionally designed to observe closely phenomena occurring in normal teacher-principal interaction. The focus was purposely set to closely scrutinize behavior with the idea of asking pertinent questions. Many more questions have been raised by the study than have been answered. The following is an initial list of questions raised by this study which merit further investigation.

1) If certain dimensions of the teacher and the situation are known, can the administrative approach most likely to maximize teacher satisfaction be predicted?

2) Is there a correlation between teacher-perceived principal understanding of the issue under discussion and teacher satisfaction?

3) Do teachers value consistency in principal behavior while principals value flexibility?

4) Is teacher satisfaction higher in schools where situations are created to develop personal relationships between principals and teachers?

5) Under what set of conditions do principals provide limited rationale or explanation?

6) Each of the propositions in Chapter VI requires testing:

1--The greater the emphasis attributed to role, the more likely heavy emphasis will be given to situation.

- 2--The heavier the influence ascribed to personality, the more likely that the individual dimension will receive heavy emphasis.
- 3--The more balanced and varied the influence of role and personality, the more likely it is that the influence of situation and individual will be varied,
- 4--The preponderance of administrative behavior will occur in the arena within an S-shaped band running from extreme quadrant II to extreme quadrant III.
- 5--Behavior occurring in quadrants I and III is particularistic in nature while behavior occurring in quadrants II and IV is universalistic in nature.
- 6--The greater the interrelationship between the definition of the problem and the aggregate characteristics of the individual, the less efficient the decision-making process.

7) Does teacher-perceived principal understanding of the problem and/or teacher satisfaction with a principal-teacher conference have a relationship to the congruence of the decision to the desires of the teacher?

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Table A1

RESPONSES TO ALL QUESTIONS, TEACHER
AND PRINCIPAL, BY INDIVIDUAL TEACHER FOR SCHOOL A

<u>Question</u>		<u>Teacher</u>									
		<u>A1</u>	<u>A2</u>	<u>A3</u>	<u>A4</u>	<u>A5</u>	<u>A6*</u>	<u>A7</u>	<u>A8</u>	<u>A9</u>	<u>A10</u>
T E A C H E R	1	+	+	+	+	+		+	+	+	+
	2	+	+	-	+	+		+	+	+	+
	3	+	+	-	+	+		+	+	+	+
	4	+	+	+	+	+		+	+	NA	+
	5	-	+	-	NA	-		-	+	-	NA
	6	+	-	-	-	+		+	+	+	+
	7	-	-	-	-	-		-	NA	+	-
	8	+	+	+	+	-		+	+	+	+
	9	-	+	-	-	-		-	+	+	+
P R I N	1	-	+	+	-	+		+	-	-	-
	3	NA	+	+	-	NA		+	+	+	NA
	4	-	-	-	-	-		-	-	+	+
	5	-	+	+	-	+		-	NA	+	NA
	6	-	+	+	+	+		+	NA	+	NA

* unwilling to cooperate
Key: yes/high = +
no/low = -
NA = no answer

Table A2

RESPONSES TO ALL QUESTIONS, TEACHER
AND PRINCIPAL, BY INDIVIDUAL TEACHER FOR SCHOOL B

<u>Question</u>		<u>Teacher</u>									
		<u>B1</u>	<u>B2</u>	<u>B3</u>	<u>B4</u>	<u>B5</u>	<u>B6</u>	<u>B7</u>	<u>B8</u>	<u>B9</u>	<u>B10</u>
T E A C H E R	1	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
	2	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
	3	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
	4	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+
	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	6	-	-	+	NA	NA	+	-	-	-	+
	7	+	+	-	NA	-	+	+	+	-	+
	8	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+
	9	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
P R I N C I P A L	1	-	-	-	+	-	+	NA	-	NA	NA
	3	+	NA	+	+	+	-	-	-	NA	NA
	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
	5	-	+	NA	NA	NA	-	-	+	+	+
	6	+	+	NA	NA	NA	+	+	+	+	+

Key: yes/high = +
no/low = -
NA = no answer

Table A3

RESPONSES TO ALL QUESTIONS, TEACHER
AND PRINCIPAL, BY INDIVIDUAL TEACHER FOR SCHOOL C

<u>Question</u>		<u>Teacher</u>									
		<u>C1</u>	<u>C2</u>	<u>C3</u>	<u>C4</u>	<u>C5</u>	<u>C6</u>	<u>C7</u>	<u>C8</u>	<u>C9</u>	<u>C10</u> *
T E A C H E R	1	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	2	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	
	3	+	+	+	NA	+	+	+	+	+	
	4	+	+	+	NA	+	+	+	+	+	
	5	-	-	-	-	NA	NA	NA	-	+	
	6	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	NA	+	
	7	-	-	+	-	+	+	-	NA	+	
	8	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	
	9	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	+	
P R I N C I P A L	1	-	-	+	NA	-	-	-	-	+	
	3	-	-	-	NA	-	+	+	NA	NA	
	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	
	5	+	-	+	+	-	-	+	-	+	
	6	NA	+	NA	+	+	+	-	+	NA	

* unwilling to cooperate

Key: yes/high = +

no/low = -

NA = no answer

Table A4

RESPONSES TO ALL QUESTIONS, TEACHER
AND PRINCIPAL, BY INDIVIDUAL TEACHER FOR SCHOOL D

<u>Question</u>		<u>Teacher</u>									
		<u>D1</u>	<u>D2</u>	<u>D3</u>	<u>D4</u>	<u>D5</u>	<u>D6</u>	<u>D7</u>	<u>D8</u>	<u>D9</u>	<u>D10</u>
T E A C H E R	1	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+
	2	+	+	+	.	.	+	+	+	+	-
	3	+	+	NA	.	+	+	+	+	+	-
	4	-	-	+	-	.	-	+	-	+	NA
	5	-	NA	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
	6	+	NA	+	NA	+	+	-	-	NA	NA
	7	+	NA	+	NA	-	+	-	-	NA	-
	8	-	+	-	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
	9	NA	+	+	.	+	+	+	+	+	+
P R I N	1	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	-
	3	-	NA	NA	-	NA	+	+	NA	+	NA
	4	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+
	5	-	NA	-	NA	+	+	+	-	NA	+
	6	-	-	+	NA	+	-	+	+	-	-

Key: yes/high = +
no/low = -
NA = no answer

Table A5

RESPONSES TO ALL QUESTIONS, TEACHER
AND PRINCIPAL, BY INDIVIDUAL TEACHER FOR SCHOOL E

<u>Question</u>		<u>Teacher</u>									
		<u>E1</u>	<u>E2</u>	<u>E3</u>	<u>E4</u>	<u>E5</u>	<u>E6</u>	<u>E7</u>	<u>E8</u>	<u>E9</u>	<u>E10</u>
T E A C H E R	1	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
	2	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
	3	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
	4	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	6	+	-	-	NA	-	+	+	NA	-	-
	7	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	+
	8	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
	9	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	-
P R I N C I P A L	1	-	-	-	NA	NA	NA	NA	+	-	-
	3	+	-	+	+	+	-	NA	NA	+	+
	4	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	-	-	-
	5	+	-	-	+	-	+	NA	NA	-	-
	6	+	+	+	+	+	+	NA	NA	+	+

Key: yes/high = +
no/low = -
NA = no answer

APPENDIX B

CHI-SQUARE TABLES FOR EACH OF THE TEN PAIR OF VARIABLES TESTED

Teacher
Question
Number 8

Teacher Question Number 1

	Yes	No
Yes	36	3
No	8	1

$$\chi^2 = .11184$$

$$p = .04$$

Teacher
Question
Number 5

Teacher Question Number 4

	Yes	No
Yes	4	1
No	29	5

$$\chi^2 = .12772$$

$$p = .057$$

Teacher
Question
Number 8

Teacher Question Number 4

	Yes	No
Yes	36	1
No	2	6

$$\chi^2 = 20.959$$

$$\phi = .68$$

Teacher
Question
Number 9

Teacher Question Number 4

	Yes	No
Yes	16	4
No	23	1

$$\chi^2 = 1.37068$$

$$\phi = .176$$

Teacher
Question
Number 6

Teacher Question Number 5

	Yes	No
Yes	4	14
No	1	14

$$\chi^2 = .56767$$

$$p = .131$$

Teacher
Question
Number 8

Teacher Question Number 5

	Yes	No
Yes	3	30
No	2	7

$$\chi^2 = .24766$$

$$p = .076$$

Teacher
Question
Number 7

Teacher Question Number 6

	Yes	No
Yes	6	10
No	12	8

$$\chi^2 = 1.01250$$

$$p = .167$$

Teacher
Question
Number 8

Teacher Question Number 6

	Yes	No
Yes	15	16
No	5	2

$$\chi^2 = .46744$$

$$p = .110$$

Teacher
Question
Number 9

Teacher Question Number 6

	Yes	No
Yes	9	7
No	10	11

$$\chi^2 = .03547$$

$$p = .030$$

Teacher
Question
Number 9

Teacher Question Number 8

	Yes	No
Yes	17	8
No	19	3

$$\chi^2 = 1.29608$$

$$p = .166$$

APPENDIX C

MEANS USED IN ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR TEACHER QUESTION RELATED TO "AMOUNT OF EXPLANATION"

Grand Mean .458

Means for P (Principals)

P1	P2	P3	P4
.567	.433	.367	.467

Means for Y (Teacher Type)

Y1	Y2
.483	.433

Means for PY interaction (First Order)

	P1	P2	P3	P4	Total
Y1	.600	.533	.333	.467	.483
Y2	.533	.333	.400	.467	.433
Total	.567	.433	.367	.467	.458

Means for Q (Questions)

Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5
.292	.417	.292	.583	.708

Means for PQ interaction (First Order)

	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Total
P1	.500	.500	.333	.667	.833	.567
P2	.333	.167	.167	.667	.833	.433
P3	.333	.333	.167	.667	.333	.367
P4	.000	.667	.500	.333	.833	.467
Total	.292	.417	.292	.583	.708	.458

Means for YQ interaction (First Order)

	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Total
Y1	.333	.500	.167	.500	.917	.483
Y2	.250	.333	.417	.667	.500	.433
Total	.292	.417	.292	.583	.708	.458

Means for PYQ interaction (Second Order)

Q1	P1	P2	P3	P4	Total
Y1	.667	.333	.333	.000	.333
Y2	.333	.333	.333	.000	.250
Total	.500	.333	.333	.000	.292

Q2	P1	P2	P3	P4	Total
Y1	.667	.000	.333	1.000	.500
Y2	.333	.333	.333	.333	.333
Total	.500	.167	.333	.667	.417

Q3	P1	P2	P3	P4	Total
Y1	.000	.333	.000	.333	.167
Y2	.667	.000	.333	.667	.417
Total	.333	.167	.167	.500	.292

Q4	P1	P2	P3	P4	Total
Y1	.667	1.000	.333	.000	.500
Y2	.667	.333	1.000	.667	.667
Total	.667	.667	.667	.333	.583

Q5	P1	P2	P3	P4	Total
Y1	1.000	1.000	.667	1.000	.917
Y2	.667	.667	.000	.667	.900
Total	.833	.833	.333	.833	.708

MEANS USED IN ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR
TEACHER QUESTION RELATED TO "REFERENCE TO POLICY"

Grand Mean .425

Means for P (Principals)

P1	P2	P3	P4
.367	.300	.500	.533

Means for Y (Teacher Type)

Y1	Y2
.417	.433

Means for PY interaction (First Order)

	P1	P2	P3	P4	Total
Y1	.267	.267	.533	.600	.417
Y2	.467	.333	.457	.467	.433
Total	.367	.300	.500	.533	.425

Means for Q (Questions)

Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5
.333	.375	.208	.500	.708

Means for PQ interaction (First Order)

	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Total
P1	.333	.333	.000	.500	.667	.367
P2	.167	.167	.000	.500	.667	.300
P3	.667	.333	.333	.500	.667	.500
P4	.167	.667	.500	.500	.800	.533
Total	.333	.375	.208	.500	.708	.425

Means for YQ interaction (First Order)

	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Total
Y1	.167	.417	.167	.583	.750	.417
Y2	.500	.333	.250	.417	.667	.433
Total	.333	.375	.208	.500	.708	.425

Means for PYQ interaction (Second Order)

Q1	P1	P2	P3	P4	Total
Y1	.000	.000	.667	.000	.167
Y2	.667	.333	.667	.333	.500
Total	.333	.167	.667	.167	.333

Q2	P1	P2	P3	P4	Total
Y1	.667	.000	.333	.667	.417
Y2	.000	.333	.333	.667	.333
Total	.333	.167	.333	.667	.375

Q3	P1	P2	P3	P4	Total
Y1	.000	.000	.000	.667	.167
Y2	.000	.000	.667	.333	.250
Total	.000	.000	.333	.500	.208

Q4	P1	P2	P3	P4	Total
Y1	.333	.667	.667	.667	.583
Y2	.667	.333	.333	.333	.417
Total	.500	.500	.500	.500	.500

Q5	P1	P2	P3	P4	Total
Y1	.333	.667	1.000	1.000	.750
Y2	1.000	.667	.333	.667	.667
Total	.667	.667	.667	.833	.708

APPENDIX D

Compilation of key phrases drawn from the transcript of principal interviews which identify factors perceived by principals as influencing their own behavior.

Principal A

chummy

upset

rigid

mad

emotions

enjoyed her relationship

question

administrative decisions

like it cut and dried

variance of philosophy

sour grapes on kids

not enthused myself

people I like

critical of the operation of the school

attacks personally

personal upset

problem is technical

important for other people to make the decision

difficult decision

commitment necessary

Principal B

asked to solve the problem themselves
need of support
involve the health, safety, and welfare
not terribly sensitive
felt threatened or coerced
maturity
relationship with one another
sex
personal problem
curriculum problem
interpersonal relationships
magnitude of the problem
how important to make a decision
relationship between group and the individual

Principal C

had the opportunity (spend time)
religious thing
easy to work with
chemistry of the teacher and the child
relationship is pretty straightforward
openness I have with some staff members
how I think they feel about the problem
whether the problem has to be solved
degree of background
alot of information

Principal D

authoritarian person
very sensitive person
can be open with
laissez-faire person
her father was ill
felt this was pretty important to her
being authoritarian
frustrations with ambiguity
frustrations
personal problems
severe personal problems
very severe incident
violation of policy
working with the person toward improvement
confidence in people

Principal E

he is a very good school person
very direct person
worked together a long time
valued person on this staff
very discreet person
inexperienced
likely to rattle under fire
confidence in that person's ability
they must be involved
in stress situations become obtuse

problem is personal or of a confidential nature
problem that demands resolution
how many people were going to be directly or indirectly
affected
required a commitment
information, background, and attitudes of the person
past history of cooperative working arrangements
seriousness of the consequences
don't go away shattered
respect for the opinions and emotions involved

Compilation of key phrases drawn from the transcript
of teacher interviews which identify factors perceived by
teachers as influencing principal behavior.

Teacher A-1

have his support
younger teachers

Teacher A-2

new staff member

Teacher A-8

interest shown as to what goes on

Teacher A-9

first-year teacher

Teacher A-10

personal friends

Teacher B-2

involved in the process

Teacher C-9

first-year teacher

Teacher D-2

respect for my judgment

Teacher D-3

personality

chronic grippers

Teacher D-5

how well he knows the staff member

how much confidence he has in the staff member

his ability to pull something off

experience of the staff member

past experience with a staff member

Teacher D-6

personality

Teacher D-7

I know him well

know what he expects

Teacher D-8

work very closely with him

Teacher D-9

peoples' feelings

Teacher D-10

be different with a male faculty member

Teacher E-5

have mutual ideas

Teacher E-6

have worked together quite a while

Teacher E-9

know this person very well

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