PROFESSIONAL EXPECTATION FULFILLMENT AND PERCEPTION FORMATION AMONG HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS

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ABSTRACT

PROFESSIONAL EXPECTATION FULFILLMENT AND PERCEPTION FORMATION AMONG HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS

by Kenneth William Olsen

Statement of Problem

This study treats two primary questions. First, to what extent are the professional expectations and their fulfillment alike for high school principals and teachers? Second, to what degree, if at all, does the principal influence the perceptions teachers have toward the superintendent of schools?

Research Methodology

Twenty high school principals and one hundred and eighteen high school teachers responded to a research instrument containing eighteen items, each paired with each, for a total of 154 response sets. Six categories of the educational enterprise were each represented by three of the eighteen items. The categories were: (1) Teachers, (2) Superintendents, (3) Students, (4) Curriculum, (5) Principals, and (6) Community Support and Building Adequacy.

Respondents were asked to make item selections based upon "Select that item which most nearly meets your professional expectations."

Principals were selected from ten urban, two suburban, and eight rural high schools. Teachers were selected from each school on the variables of years experience, primary or secondary wage earner, sex, academic discipline, and age.

Data were collected on machine scored answer sheets and were processed on an IBM 1620 Computer. Rank order correlations were run on

a total of 39 variables producing 741 relationships as a base for analysis.

The study was predicated upon a synthesis of the Theories of Symbolic Interaction and Reference Group.

Major Findings

First Hypothesis

The data produced evidence that high school principals and teachers do not perceive the educational enterprise in a significantly different fashion. Rank order correlation for both groups on scales of the instrument was .888.

Correlations between perceptions of principals and sub-categories of teachers, i.e., age, experience, academic training, sex, et cetera were above .7 in every instance.

Ancillary findings revealed differential perception between the groups on specific scales of the research instrument.

Second Hypothesis

The data produced evidence which indicates that principals influence teachers' perceptions of the superintendent in urban settings, but apparently have little influence in rural areas. The hypothesis was accepted in seven of nine cases of urban schools. Urban and suburban schools showed strong evidence of principal influence on teacher perceptions in this area. Rural schools evidenced a marked absence of response pattern.

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by

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CHAPTER I

Part 1

Need

Conditions which offer different perceptions of reality to different perceivers provide no mutual foundation for discussion or understanding. It is quite possible that disagreement, in many instances, is not based upon the inability of groups to agree to a solution, but to agree to an articulation of the problem.[1]

It is from the premise that school effectiveness is influenced and often the consequence of, differential perception that the needs of this paper proceed.

1. There is a need for the development and synthesis of a theoretical framework which will provide for the prediction and control of variables contributing to differential perception.

2. There is a need for the development of a method to determine

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[1]In 1966 Northern High School in Detroit, Michigan experienced a student revolt against "substandard education." A particular target of the rebellion was the school principal who didn't see conditions as did the dissident students. The uprising and boycotting of classes resulted in the eventual removal of the principal and the unfavorable publicity was believed to have contributed to the defeat of a crucial bond issue sought by the City's Board of Education. A measure of the differential perception held by the principal, teachers, and students might have uncovered a high degree of dissonance and possibly provided the information which would have averted the unfortunate situation which developed.

the areas and degree of consensual perception shared by the several representative groups of an educational unit.

3. There is a need for the isolation and analysis of variables contributing to differential perception affecting educational effectiveness.

The organizational milieu of the American high school provides, functionally, for a nearly autonomous educational unit. The administration, faculty, and student body represent interacting but discrete populations, and the intra-group perceptions of these societal units determine the educational atmosphere of the school.

A school in which administration, faculty and students share a general or near perceptual consensus on major issues is likely to be harmonious. Whether that school is dynamic or static depends upon the expectations of the people involved.

A school in which there is great dissonance of perception between major organizational divisions may be distinguished by unrest, militancy, agitation, and disharmony.

To maintain that the only factor preventing the smooth and dynamic movement of a high school program is the differing perception held by people would be naive. Clearly defined and communicated differences of opinion over acknowledged reality might well be the reason for disunity and lack of progress. However, problems and conditions which are unanimously understood provide a common ground for discussion and eventual agreement or disagreement. There is a critical need for a rationale and methodology which will provide schools and districts a clear picture of what is perceived to be real.

Part 2

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to attempt solutions to the needs enumerated in Part One of this chapter.

Stated in a positive manner, these purposes are:

1. To develop a synthesis of theory which will provide the framework for the prediction and control of variables contributing to differential perceptions.

2. To develop a method of determining the areas and degrees of consensual perception shared by the several representative groups of an educational unit.

3. To isolate and analyze the variables contributing to differential perceptions affecting educational effectiveness.

The needs which justify the conduct of this study will be met to the extent that these purposes are realized.

"IF A MAN DOES NOT KEEP PACE WITH HIS COMPANIONS, PERHAPS IT IS BECAUSE HE HEARS A DIFFERENT DRUMMER. LET HIM STEP TO THE MUSIC HE HEARS, HOWEVER MEASURED OR FAR AWAY."

Henry David Thoreau
Walden

Part 3

Theoretical Basis for Study

The theoretical section of this document is intended to offer solid base for the two general hypotheses listed in this chapter, and provide a rational framework for the operational hypotheses which generate from them.

What is presented here is not a new theory. It is, rather, a synthesis of a relatively old formulation known as Symbolic Interaction and a more contempory approach primarily recognized as Reference Group Theory. The latter is a logical outgrowth of the first.

Symbolic Interaction is an issue from the seminal mind of George Herbert Mead.

Symbolic Interaction

> When George Herbert Mead died in 1931 at the age of sixty-eight, he had not published a single book. Indeed, he had published few major papers for someone who would gain recognition posthumously as one of the most brilliantly original of American pragmatists. During the decade before his death, sociologists at the University of Chicago, where Mead taught philosophy, discovered what original contribution Mead was making to that branch of their field known as "Social Psychology." Graduate students in sociology flocked to his classes and later were instrumental in introducing his writings on social psychology into the standard sociological literature. His concepts became common property among sociologists; his lines were quoted freely in text books, and his pages were reproduced in readers designed for most student audiences. Through the sociologists, social psychologists who were trained in psychology departments also discovered Mead. While his point of view can hardly be said to be a dominant influence on American sociology and social psychology since World War II, his impact continues to be felt, moreover, he remains an oft-quoted elder statesman in both fields.[2]

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[2]Anselm Strauss, Editor, George Herbert Mead on Social Psychology (Chicago and London: University of Chicago Press, 1964), pp. 1-2.

The theory of symbolic interaction is complex and not all of it is relevant to the subject of this paper. What is considered salient is put forth in the "IF, THEN" format with detailed justification for assumptions, propositions, and ultimately hypotheses.

Succinctly said, symbolic interaction holds that men are socialized--develop a self--as the function of being born into a society which exists and initiates on the basis of communication through gestures which have become internalized and operationalized as symbols. Each individual develops an orientation to a series of symbols based upon his membership--real or imagined--in one or many sub-cultures. Such sub-cultures or communities of interaction are known as the "generalized other."

The process of thinking, singular to man, is "the internalized conversation of gestures." Since man cannot internalize those systems of symbols with which he has had no contact, man's thinking is largely determined by his experiential background. As thinking is the result of ability to interact symbolically, so also is perception of reality influenced by one's range of possible or desirable interpretations. Those "generalized others" which have the greatest influence on the development of the self are termed "reference groups' or "reference relationships." Individuals of particular significance are defined as "significant others."

Because not all people have identical backgrounds and similar generalized or "significant others," they do not all think with the same symbols nor do they perceive all things in the same fashion.

The first general hypothesis of this thesis is that high school principals and teachers have internalized symbols which proceed from

different experiential backgrounds, including different reference groups and "significant others" and, therefore, perceive the same phenomena from different and dissimilar points of view. The specifics of such dissimilarity and the attendant causes are developed in succeeding sections of this paper.

The second general hypothesis posits that a principal represents a "significant other" for teachers. As such he becomes a mediator of their perceptions toward another, more obscure, "significant other" in the person of the superintendent of schools. High school teachers who exhibit high positive perceptions of their principal will tend to share the principal's perception of the superintendent of schools.

If, in fact, the principal is a significant person in the lives of teachers, either positive or negative, it can be expected that he will influence, even mitigate, perceptions.

Development of Theory for General Hypothesis I

The following assumptions are taken primarily from the writings of George Herbert Mead,[3] and in some instances the formulations of Arnold M. Rose[4] are utilized in this progression.

Each statement presented in this initial syllogistic sequence is considered in detail later in the section.

If 1. society precedes any existing individual and provides the matrix for the socialization (humanization of every entrant into that society[5]

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[3]George Herbert Mead, Mind, Self and Society (Chicago and London: University of Chicago Press, 1934), (1963).

[4]Arnold M. Rose, Editor, Human Behavior and Social Process (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1962.)

[5]Ibid., p. 13.

And, if the process of socialization takes place in three stages:

a. The psychogenic process of infant learning,

b. The internalization and operationalism of gestures into meaningful symbols, and

c. Communication through the interaction of symbols;[6]

And, if 2. the individual defines (has meaning for) himself, as well as other objects, actions, and characteristics,[7] the organized community or social group which gives to the individual his unity of self, being called the "generalized other";

And, if 3. man's thinking is the internalized conversation of gestures and can take place only in relation to the "generalized other";

And, if 4. even though 'old' groups, cultural expectations, and personal meanings and values may be dropped, in the sense that they become markedly lower on the reference relationship scale, they are not lost or forgotten;

Then, man's thinking is conducted through use of symbols and gestures, the meaning of which, is the result of experiences

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[6] Ibid., p. 13.

[7] Ibid., p. 11.

received in relation to his past or present "generalized others." Men of different affiliations--real or imagined--will operate with different symbolic interpretations and will think and perceive differently.

The preceding development and interpretation is offered as the legitimizing rationale for the first general hypothesis.

Justification of Assumption

1. The first assumption taken from the development of the theory of symbolic interaction states that man is preceded by a society which provides for his socialization (humanization), and such socialization takes place in stages.

> "Man is not born human. It is only slowly and laboriously, in fruitful contact, cooperation, and conflict with his fellows, that he attains the distinctive qualities of human nature."[8]

The "self of the individual is the result of the interacting processes of socialization.[9] First the infant, through trial and error, conditioning, or other processes also found among other animals, becomes habituated to a particular sequence of events or behavior. Such interaction is based upon the internalization of gestures and these gestures function in a triadic relationship.

> "The relation of the gesture of one organism to the adjustive response made to it by another organism in its indicative capacity as pointing to the completion resultant of the act it initiates (the meaning of the

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[8]Robert E. Park, Principals of Human Behavior (Chicago: The Lakeside Corporation, 1915), p. 9.

[9]Feral children may be considered as an example through aberration.

> gesture being thus the response of the second organism to it as such, or as a gesture.) What, as it were, takes the gesture out of the social act and isolates it as such--what makes it something more than just an early phase of an individual act--is the response of another organism, or of other organism, to it. Such a response is its meaning, or given its meaning . . . the gesture arises as a separable element in the social act, by virtue of the fact that it is selected out by the sensitivities of other organisms to it; it does not exist as a gesture merely in the experience of the single individual."[10]

The three parts of the triad are the gesture, the initiator and the respondent. An unknown gesture (one which has not become internalized as a symbol) which is performed in solitude and to which there is no response, will continue to be an unknown gesture and will have no part in communication or socialization.

Often the same gesture and the same initiator with a different respondent will develop a different meaning. This is a contributing factor to the differentiation of roles entered into by each individual.

Unless there is a respondent representing society toward whom the individual can direct his gesture he cannot become a member of society. Gestures are operationalized with specific meaning and become symbols. Such symbols become the language of communication and may be in the form of speech and hand movements or ever changing expressions and countenances.

> "We always assume that the symbol we use is one which will call out in the other person the same response; provided it is a part of his mechanism of conduct. A person who is saying something is saying to himself what he says to others; otherwise he does not know what he is talking about."[11]

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[10] Mead, pp. 135-136.

[11] Ibid., p. 147.

In this statement Mead impresses the point that the respondent must have internalized the same mechanism. The meaning implied by "part of his mechanism" is crucial.

The subtleties of experiences which make men different--even while basically the same--can militate against identical understandings of the same gesture. Consequently we have misunderstanding and incomplete communication. The gestures may be the same; the initiation the same; the respondents different and the reception and perception dissimilar.

The process of socialization, therefore, takes place in three stages:

1. The infant becoming "habituated" to a sequence of behaviors and events through some psychogenic process.

2. The introduction of the triadic relationship of the gesture, the initiation and the respondent.

3. The internalization of symbols and the emergence of communication.

2. <u>If the individual defines (has meaning for) himself, as well as other objects, actions, and characteristics, the organized community or social group which gives to the individual his unity of self, being called the "generalized other."</u>

It is inevitable that as the individual expands his scope of interaction and increases the number of respondents and becomes a respondent, that he will begin to distinguish his identity. This is concluded in the development of "self."

> "The self is something which has a development; it is not initially there at birth, but arises in the process of social experience and activity, that is, develops in the given individual as a result of his relations to that process as a whole and to other individuals within that process."[12]

> "Self consciousness, rather than affective experience with its motor accomplishments, provides the core and primary structure of the self, which is thus essentially a cognitive rather than an emotional phenomenon."[13]

It is here that the concepts of role and role-playing are revealed in Mead's plan. They are in the context of another essential concept, that of reference groups.[14]

Two central terms introduced by Mead are "I" and "me". They rise out of the development of the concept of self and he defines them as follows:

> "The "I" is the response of the organism to the attitudes of the others; the "me" is the organized set of attitudes of others which one himself assumes. The attitudes of the others constitute the organized "me", and then one reacts toward that as an "I".[15]

The individual which entered society as a "not-yet-human" is now gaining an awareness of self and things not self and is beginning to interact with others to the point of internalization of attitudes into "me". The question might be asked if such a dramatic role on the part of cultural others doesn't mean the introduction of cultural determinism. Arnold Rose in his introductory chapter in Human Behavior and Social Process anticipates such a question and presents eight points as an answer.

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[12]Ibid., p. 135.

[13]Ibid., p. 173.

[14]Reference group theory will be developed separately, but it is important for its point of origin in symbolic interaction.

[15]Mead, p. 175.

"(a) Some of the interaction between individuals is on a non-cultural or natural-sign level, so that some learned behavior is universally human and independent of specific cultures. (b) Most cultural expectations are for ranges of behavior rather than for specific behaviors. The expectations that people will wear clothes, for example, sets limits for permissible coverings for the human body, but leaves room for considerable choice within those limits. (c) Most cultural expectations are for certain roles, rather than for all individuals, and for certain situations, rather than all situations, and the individual has some "freedom of choice" among the roles and situations he will enter. Different occupations, for example, require different clothing, and the process of entering a given occupation is not completely culturally determined. (d) Some cultural expectations are for variation rather than conformity. The scientist and the fashion designer, for example, are culturally expected to be innovators in certain ways, and their innovations are not predictable from the culture. (e) The cultural meanings indicate possibilities for behavior (as the cultural values do.) The fact that a chair is an object to be sat on, for example, does not mean that the chair is only to be used for sitting or that one must always sit when a chair is available. (f) The culture, especially our culture, is often internally inconsistent, and one may move from one culture or subculture to another, so that there are conflicting cultural expectations for an individual. This does not mean solely that the individual has a choice between the two conflicting patterns of behavior he is exposed to, or can make a synthesis of them, but also that he can--within the limits permitted by the culture--define for himself somewhat new patterns suggested by the variation among the old ones. (g) To extend the last point somewhat, whenever the individual is "blocked" in carrying on behavior expected within the society, he has some possibility of innovating--within the limits of cultural tolerance--to devise new behavior patterns that will take him around the block. The self--Mead's "I"--is a creative self (the nature of thinking in symbolic interaction theory has already been indicated.) (h) Finally, the symbolic interactionist does not exclude the influence of biogenic and psychogenic factors in behavior, even though he does not incorporate them into his theory. These eight important qualifications to a cultural determinism do not nullify the importance of the basic assumption that all men are born into an on-going society and are socialized in some significant degree into behavior which meets the expectations of its culture."[16]

As a person gains definition of self he becomes symbolically involved with a larger number of socializing agents.

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[16]Rose, pp. 13, 15.

The total community or social group which contributes to the complete development of the self Mead names the "generalized other." It is his position that ". . . the behavior of an individual can be understood only in terms of the behavior of the whole social group of which he is a member;[17] since his individual acts are involved in larger, social acts which go beyond himself and which implicate the other members of that group."[18]

3. Man's thinking is the internalized conversation of gestures and can take place only in relation to the "generalized others."

It is Mead's position that since man has become socialized (humanized) through the interaction of symbols learned in relation to others, he can conduct an internalized conversation with these gestures only in relation to his "generalized others."

When the thought patterns are abstract his relation to the "generalized others" does not assume a reference to any particular individual. The broader the definition of the "generalized other", the more abstract is the thought. For example, when a person contemplates the purpose of man's existance or the poor of the world, his thinking may become very abstract.[19]

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[17]Further development of reference group theory advances the importance of groups to which a person does not belong.

[18]Mead, pp. 6-7.

[19]It is interesting to recall the stereotypic image of the "absent-minded" professor or the "unrealistic" philosopher or dreamer. The nature of some mental activities precludes specificity and even objectivity.

When the thinking is concrete it takes that attitude which is expressed toward his behavior by the attitudes of others most closely associated with him in the social situation eliciting thought.[20]

> ". . . only by taking the attitude of the "generalized others" toward himself in one or another of these ways, can he think at all, for only then can thinking--or the internalized conversation of gestures which constitutes thinking--occur."[21]

An obvious implication of this point, and one which is seen by Mead, is that the self-conscious human being takes his outlook and social attitudes toward a given question or situation from the attitudes of a social group, groups, or part of a group to which he belongs. Based upon these memberships the individual makes his choices and governs his actions. What then of the heretics, renegades, mavericks and deviates of society who appear to reject all prior socialization? The answer to this might be found in the fact that had they not been influenced by their culture or sub-culture, they could not react against it. The relationship between individual and reference groups need not always be positive. However, if there is no surrogate culture which represents the reactionary views of the non-conformist, his actions will be based upon an obscure "generalized other" and his thinking will be very abstract.

It is through this process that man learns and becomes a part of a culture or sub-culture. Indeed it is in this way that cultures and societies exist.

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[20]The "generalized other" needn't be a group or even an individual, but might be an object.

[21]Mead, p. 156.

> "In this sense and only in this sense, society is more than a collection of individuals; it is a collection of individuals with a culture, which has been learned by symbolic communication from other individuals back through time, so that the members can gauge their behavior to each other and to the society as a whole."[22]

4. Even though 'old' groups, cultural expectations, and personal meanings and values may be dropped, in the sense that they become markedly lower on the reference relationship scale, they are not lost or forgotten.

> "Symbolic interaction's theory shares with psychoanalytic theory the assumption that man never forgets anything."[23]

This statement certainly does not mean that all that a person has ever thought or done is within range of recall. It does mean that we are the total of our parts and cannot dissever ourselves from anything that has influenced us. Ralph Waldo Emerson used the analogy of food and its effect upon the body when he said that even though we cannot attribute any particular physical characteristic to a given meal, its influence is there and cannot be denied.

In the framework of reference group theory this concept has singular implication which will be pursued in some detail in the second section of this theoretical presentation.

In the setting of symbolic interaction it means that there is no act or event perceptable to man which does not permanently modify his set of symbols. Further, since it is through the conversation of symbols that man thinks, no experience is inert as pertains to his cognitive process.

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[22]Rose, p. 10.

[23]Ibid., pp. 16, 17.

Bruner says that "thinking is basically an endeavor to anticipate reality." How an individual interprets an event or condition determines what is "reality" for him.[24]

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[24]This could open the entire philosophical question of relativism versus universalism. Although this dichotomy will not be explored as a part of this paper, the contributions from cultural anthropology are are suggested as an excellent source.

Presentation of Assumptions for General Hypotheses II

The introduction of this chapter contains the statement that the theory of reference groups is a "logical outgrowth" from symbolic interaction.

The following presentation of assumptions is taken largely from symbolic interaction.

If 1. the socialization of an individual is the function of his interaction with individuals and groups,

And, if 2. some individuals and some groups exert, or have potential to exert, greater influence than others and thereby become "significant others,"

And, if 3. "significant others" may be monomorphic or polymorphic in their influence,

And, if 4. individuals develop their internalization and interpretation of symbols in relation to others,

And, if 5. thinking is the "internalized conversation of gestures" and determines perception as well as interpretation,

Then, 6. individuals who are perceived as significant--positively or negatively--influence the thinking and perception of those for whom they are significant in those areas which are considered significant.

The second general hypothesis posits that a principal represents a "significant other" for teachers. As such he becomes a mediator of their perceptions toward another, more obscure, significant other in the person of the superintendent of schools.

Justification of Assumptions

1. The socialization of an individual is the function of his interaction with individuals and groups.

This assumption parallels the first under the theoretical development for General Hypothesis I.

2. Some individuals and some groups exert, or have potential to exert, greater influence than others and thereby become "significant others."

Man is a social animal. As an infant he is dependent upon other humans for his sustenance and existance and from that time forth relies upon others and groups of others as a reference for his individual identity.

The groups of membership and association, aspiration or repulsion open to an individual are almost infinite. A person may have as many different aspects of his "self" as there are groups in his experiential environment. These variations of self in relation to one's relative positions to others are defined as 'roles' and "each man in his time plays many parts."

Individuals are significant in the lives of others. A person may represent many things, both desirable and undesirable, to another and as such become a "significant other"[25] in his life. "Significant others" may be significant because of the role they play or their relation to the role or roles played by others. For example, a man may be a father, husband, son, brother, and employee.

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[25]Robert K. Merton, Social Theory and Social Structure (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1949), p. 265.

His significance in one role may be far greater than in another, i.e., as a father he may be more significant to this child than to his professional colleagues.

It is impossible for a person to exist totally isolated from human culture. Cultures are composed of the inter-relations of individuals and groups.

The vast body of literature in group dynamics attests to a fairly recent definition of man's affective, cognitive, and genetic interdependence upon man. The greater part of such literature finds genesis in the twentieth century. The writings of Lewin, Cartwright, Zander, Bales, Bogardis, Gibb, and others have been spread with speed and penetration.

However, before the advent of those names most commonly associated with reference group theory, there was an intellectual harbinger by the name of George Herbert Mead.

> "Mead was, of course, a forerunner and an important forerunner in the history of reference group theory, particularly with respect to his central conception, variously expressed in his basic writings, but adequately captured in the statement that 'the individual experiences himself as such, not directly, but only indirectly, from the particular standpoints of other individual members of the same group, or from the generalized standpoint of the social group as a whole to which he belongs'".[26]

Merton goes on to take Mead to task for not engaging in systematic empirical studies and failing to see the significance of groups to which a person did not belong.

Mead's writings do not specify the particular influence of non-membership groups nor do they negate the possible validity

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[26] Ibid., p. 238, 239.

of such an inclusion that more recent investigators advance the extension as an expansion rather than a repudiation of the original notion. The same condition prevails concerning the place of the individual as a reference group.[27]

The second general hypothesis of this study holds that the building principal is perceived as a "significant other" by his or her teachers. More specifically, since teachers in most large public school systems have little interaction with the superintendent, it is posited that the building principal plays the role of liaison. In this setting the opinions of the principal, if he is positively perceived by his teachers, would become the opinions of his teachers. If he is negatively perceived by this teachers, they may or may not share his perceptions.

It is important to note that this hypothesis does not imply that the principal is a "significant other" in all spheres of activity. Merton, in a paper on the pattern of influence, differentiates between the person who has great influence in one area and the leader who has influence in many areas.

> "Some influentials, and these may be termed monomorphic, are repeatedly cited as exerting influence, but only in one rather narrowly defined area--e.g. the area of politics, or of carrons of good taste, or of fashion. The monomorphic influentials are the "experts" in a limited field, and their influence does not diffuse into other spheres of decisions. Others, and this includes a good number of the top influentials, are polymorphic, exerting interpersonal influence in a variety of (Sometimes seemingly unrelated) spheres."[28]

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[27] Ibid., p. 284

[28] Ibid., pp. 413, 414.

3. "Significant others" may be monomorphic or polymorphic in their influence on others.

Because of the near autonomous role the high school principal enjoys as a "Dean of the Faculty" he is, for good or bad, a "significant other" in the professional lives of teachers.[29] The review of literature in Chapter II will present studies which substantiate this statement. However, the principal may not be a person of significance beyond a narrow spectrum of professional activity. He may exert influence on teachers in one area of the school's program or he may be polymorphic to the extent that he is a leader in all areas.

It is a consideration of this study that a principal may be of monomorphic significance for teachers representing some reference groups and of polymorphic significance to teachers representing others.

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[29]Two pieces of Michigan State legislation may modify this situation greatly in the coming years. (1) Teacher Tenure Act--this law provides teachers with job security and freedom from worry about unjust or capricious acts by principals, or (2) Michigan law (Act 336, 423.209 General Schools Laws, Part III) now provides authorization for collective bargaining by public employees. One of the major purposes of this dissertation is to determine if principals and teachers represent a different community of interests--if in fact they do, it will be further indication that there is a measurable schism between "management and labor" roles of principals and teachers. As these lines become better defined and strengthened, the principal will continue to be a "significant others" but, in the labor relations jargon, he will be in an advisory position representing management. It is expected that this will be the case and suggest that a replication of this study in a few years will show an interesting change in emphasis between the perception of teachers and principals.

4. Individuals develop their internalization and interpretation of symbols in relation to others.

Principals were teachers before they became administrators. As teachers they experienced the same "perceptual mass" as all other classroom teachers. Many of the internalized symbols of the principal were placed into his cognitive pattern as the result of his teaching background. From this shared history, teachers and principals can be expected to have many of the same perceptions. Those which are dissimilar are the result of different experiences and associations introduced to the role of principal.

5. Thinking is the "internalized conversation of gestures" and determines perception as well as interpretation.

This assumption is covered in section one of this chapter.

Then, individuals who are perceived as significant--positively or negatively--influence the thinking and perception of those for whom they are significant in those areas in which they are considered significant.

The preceding development and interpretation is offered as the legitimizing rationale for the second general hypothesis.

Part 4

Hypotheses

First General Hypothesis

High school principals and teachers have internalized symbols which proceed from different experiential backgrounds, including different reference groups and "significant others" and, therefore, perceive the same phenomena from different and dissimilar points of view.

Second General Hypothesis

A principal represents a "significant other" for teachers. As such he becomes a mediator of their perceptions toward another, more obscure, "significant other" in the person of the superintendent of schools. High school teachers who exhibit high positive perceptions of their principal will tend to share the principal's perception of the superintendent of schools.

Part 5

Overview of Chapters

Chapter I - Theoretical Basis

The needs for, purposes of, and theoretical justification of the study are presented in this chapter.

Chapter II - The Review of Literature

The research reviewed in this chapter is presented under two main headings.

1. Development of a theoretical and empirical foundation for two general hypotheses. (The theoretical section is offered in Chapter One. The empirical foundation constitutes Part 1 of this chapter.)
2. Analysis of other research related to the two general hypotheses.

Chapter III - Research Design

In Chapter Three the determination of sample selections is explained; the development of instrumentation is presented; hypotheses, design, and analysis are reviewed; and a summary of the chapter is given.

Chapter IV - Primary Findings

Data relevant to the two primary hypotheses are presented under two headings in Chapter Four.

Those data pertinent to The First Hypothesis are given in Part One: Findings - Differential Perceptions in the Fulfillment of Educational Expectations.

Data pertinent to the second hypothesis are given in Part Two: Findings - Principal's Role as Intermediary in Teachers' Perception Formation.

Chapter V - Supplemental Findings

Data related to the major hypotheses in a tangential way are presented and analyzed in this chapter. Findings are reviewed which are supportive or critical of the results of the primary research.

Chapter VI - Summary

Chapter Six is divided into three parts.

1. Summary - This section offers an abstract of the most cogent contributions of the study, together with a concise statement of review in which the purposes, procedures and findings are described in a capsulized format.

2. Discussion - In this section attention is paid to those findings representing the most significant defense or refutation of the assumptions put forth in the study.

3. Implications for Future Research - This study represents a first step. Possible future steps in the same and other directions are outlined in this part of the chapter.

CHAPTER II

Review of Literature

A survey of the literature in educational administration, psychology, sociology, and social-psychology failed to reveal a study which paralleled the questions at hand closely enough for comparative analysis.

Because of the multiple variables involved in this study there are inherent difficulties in the clear delineation of the specific problem within a single discipline. The frame of reference is, therefore, taken from several areas of social science and the conditions are presented under two main headings.

1. Development of a theoretical and empirical foundation for two general hypotheses. (The theoretical section is offered in Chapter One. The empirical foundation constitutes Part I of this chapter.)

2. Analysis of other research related to the two primary hypotheses.

To deal with such a bifurcation of the research question this chapter is organized into two sections, each treated under a separate heading.

Part 1

Development of an Empirical Foundation For the General Hypotheses

Differential Perception

"The light within meets the light without." Plato[1]

In Chapter One an attempt was made to show why people might see the same thing in different ways. In this section of the review of literature studies will be presented which show, in fact, that people do perceive according to what Plato called the "light within" and what Mead and others suggest to be the individual interpretation and internalization of gestures and symbols.

> "Shared perspectives are the products of common communication channels. Despite the frequent recitation of this proposition, its full implications, especially for the analysis of mass societies, have not been fully appreciated. Variations in outlook arise through segregation, conflict, or simply reading different literature--leads to the formation of distinctive cultures."[2]

James Bagby,[3] in a study of perception in a cross cultural format compared Mexican and American subjects. He set up ten sets of slides to be viewed through a stereoscope. On one side were mounted pictures of objects familiar to most Mexicans--such as a matador, a dark haired girl and a peasant. On the other side were mounted

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[1]Quoted on page 161 of The Nature of Prejudice by Gordon W. Allport. Doubleday Anchor Books, Doubleday & Company, Inc. Garden City, N.Y. 1958.

[2]Tamotsu Shibutani, "Reference Groups and Social Control," Human Behavior and Social Processes (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1962), p. 134.

[3]James W. Bagby, "A Cross-Cultural Study of Perceptual Predominance in Binocular Rivalry," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, Vol. 54 (1957), pp. 331-334.

pictures of objects in the same general setting of light, shadows, and placement, but familiar to most Americans, i.e., a baseball player, a blond girl, and a farmer. There were some exceptions, but generally the Americans saw what was familiar to them and the Mexicans saw those scenes which represented their culture.

Another example of differential perception is presented by Jerome Bruner in his chapter, The Cognitive Process in The Nature of Prejudices by Gordon Allport where he quotes E. G. Malhurbe.[4]

> "In South Africa on a Public Service Examination, candidates were instructed to "underline the percentage that you think Jews constitute of the whole population in South Africa: 1 percent, 5 . . . ., 10 . . . ., 15 . . . ., 20 . . . ., 25 . . . ., 30 percent." When tabulated, the modal estimate turned out to be 20 percent. The true answer is just a little over 1 percent."

It would be interesting to replicate such a questionnaire in America and expand it to other ethnic or religious groups. "When Mead spoke of the 'generalized others' he was not referring to people but to a shared perspective."[5]

The more people have this "shared perspective" or the more they relate themselves to the same or similar "generalized others" the more they will tend to have common perceptions.

> "The more alike members of a teaching group are in terms of their attitudes toward leadership, the more they are alike in the amount of satisfactions derived from working in the school situation."[6]

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[4]E. G. Malhurbe, Race Attitudes and Education, Hornle Lecture, 1946. Johannesburg: Institute of Race Relations.

[5]Shibutani, p. 132.

[6]Donald C. Mayer, "Leadership that Teachers Want," Administrator's Notebook, Midwest Administration Center, The University of Chicago, Vol. III, No. 7, (March 1955).

In the two examples of perception based upon, or influenced by, attitudes about ethnic grouping the facts of reality were clear to the respondants. They could see the slides and that which is seen by witnesses is admitted as valid evidence in the courts. The people who were sure that there were more Jews than 1 in 100 could draw upon their personal experiences as a basis for judgment. The significant factor in these cases is that two different groups actually viewed the same thing differently in one instance and perceived reality differently in the other.

According to the theory of symbolic interaction there is a sound explanation of how people develop their individual sets of symbols based upon experience gained through interaction.

The question which becomes apparent is how can different people see reality in different ways and accommodate to their interpretation? One explanation to gain wide circulation is put forth by Leon Festinger under the title of A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance.[7] The Basic hypotheses are:

> "1. The existence of dissonance being psychologically uncomfortable, will motivate the person to try to reduce the dissonance and achieve consonance.
>
> 2. When dissonance is present, in addition to trying to reduce it, the person will actively avoid situations and information which would likely increase the dissonance."[8]

Testing defines dissonance as "nonfitting relations among cognitions." If a person experiences something which is in contradiction to what his pattern of symbolic interaction would predict, he experiences

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[7]Leon Festinger, A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance, (Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson, and Company, 1957).

[8]Ibid., p. 3.

dissonance. Such dissonance, is as Festinger says "uncomfortable and steps are taken to reduce it." These steps may take various forms.

One way a person may diminish the effects of dissonance is to seek information which tends to lessen it while avoiding additional information which would cause its increase.[9] For example, the teacher or principal who perceives a situation in a particular way may seek support of what he feels should be, while ignoring conflicting details.

Another technique which may work toward the reduction of dissonance is demonstrated in decision behavior.

> "Once dissonance exists following a decision, the pressure to reduce it will manifest itself in attempts to increase the relative attractiveness of the unchosen alternative, to establish cognitive overlap, or possibly to revoke the decision psychologically."[10]

> "Following a decision there is an increase in the confidence in the decision or an increase in the discrepancy in attractiveness between the alternative involved in the choice, or both. Each reflects successful reduction of dissonance."[11]

Once a person makes a commitment through private or public decision he begins to seek information which will justify his choice. A principal must often make decisions which could likely be viewed by teachers as not entirely in their interests. Their cognitive processes of symbolic interaction could have them seeking support for a position quite opposite that of the principal's.

A concluding statement by Festinger which has pertinence in the teacher-principal dyad is as follows:

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[9] Ibid., pp. 21, 22.

[10] Ibid., p. 47.

[11] Ibid., p. 83.

> "If a person is involuntarily exposed to information that will increase dissonance, then in addition to the usual procedures whereby he may reduce this dissonance, there are also set up quick defensive processes which prevent the new cognition from ever becoming firmly established."[12]

After a person becomes committed to a position he may actually prevent himself from perceiving conditions contrary to what he wants to see.[13]

Osgood and Tannenbaum, in their development of the Principal of Congruity, appear to have said much the same thing as Festinger, if not in as much depth.

> "The Principal of Congruity in human thinking can be stated quite succinctly: changes in evaluations are always in the direction of increased congruity with the existing frame of reference."[14]

Summary of Part 1

In Chapter One, and to this point in Chapter Two, much has been said about the general theoretical basis for positing that people in different role positions do perceive the same things differently. This study deals with the perceptions of a number of factors in the operation of the American high school as seen by teachers and principals. The list of dichotomous relationships in human interaction is long. Such role pairs as leader-follower, ruler-subject, superior-subordinate, management-labor, and administrator-teacher are accepted

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[12] Ibid., p. 137.

[13] The principal who adheres to the "old ways" while his school foments for change may quite honestly plead unawareness of the current of unrest.

[14] Charles E. Osgood and Percy H. Tannenbaum, "The Principal of Congruity in the Prediction of Attitude Change," Psychological Review, Vol. 62, No. 1, (1955), p. 43.

as real by most observers. Secondary characteristics, in fact and word, reinforce this relationship of strata. Terms like "white collar", blue collar", "front office", and "executive washroom" tend to formalize these differences. Practices of salary differentiation, power to hire or fire, and union negotiations with management offer empirical evidence to solidify a concept into an observable fact.

The research reviewed in this chapter is representative of documented differential perceptions. This study is addressed to the investigation of possible differential perceptions by teachers and principals.

Part 2

Analysis of Other Research Related To the Two General Hypotheses

The research reported in this section has bearing upon the general hypotheses in a less direct manner than that presented in Part One. The analysis of variables and data based upon this research is presented in Chapter Five as supplemental findings. The literature reviewed here has strong, albeit, indirect relevance for the main themes of this paper.

Teachers are unquestionably important within the walls of their individual classrooms. Because teachers do not enjoy the same degree of "professional prominence" as principals they could be expected to see themselves and their roles in a less secure fashion and, therefore, seek to defend against any implied threat.

A relationship which might be expected to issue from this setting is that teachers would tend to rate very high any questions dealing with competency and innovativeness of teachers.

> "Each individual adjusts to the situation according to the way he perceives it, and not as it "really" is. Since the leader's perceptions of the prevailing attitude trends existing in a group tend to be more realistic than those of non-leaders and isolates, the changes of their adequate adjustment are greater than those of non-leaders and isolates."[15]

Principals, having been teachers, have experienced the frame of reference of the teachers. Changes in the perception of the two groups are assumed to be the result of a broader, more varied set of symbols on the part of the principals.

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[15]Kamla Chowdey and Theodore M. Newcomb, "The Relative Abilities of Leaders and Non-Leaders to Estimate Opinions of Their Own Groups," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, Vol. 47, (1952), pp. 51-57.

Job satisfaction may be a function of principal and teacher interaction.

> "Those teachers whose wants and needs were in agreement with their principal's expectations would express significantly higher job satisfaction than those teachers whose wants were in conflict with the principal's definition of the teacher's role."[16]

An observation made in this study was that teachers who were in agreement with the principal were laudatory of his ability, while those who never mentioned him, complained of other things. This would seem to support an expected relationship that teachers perceive principals more positively than do principals.

In 1960 Ruth E. Hartley conducted a study with college freshmen to determine if, how, and to what extent a new reference group met the needs of students.[17]

Just as a class becomes, positively or negatively, a reference group for a student, so also, does it become such for a teacher. A teacher is more closely identified with the success or failure-real or imagined--of a class than is any individual student. The teacher is perceived by students of the class most often in reference to that class. How students are perceived by the teacher is a function of how well they meet expectations held for students by that teacher.

> "The more successful a new group is perceived to be in meeting the personal needs of an individual, in comparison with his established groups, the more likely he is to accept it as a reference group."[18]

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[16]Merton V. Campbell, "Teacher-Principal Agreement on the Teacher Role," Administrator's Notebook, Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, Vol. VII, No. 6, (February 1959).

[17]Ruth E. Hartley, "Personal Needs and the Acceptance of a New Group as a Reference Group," The Journal of Social Psychology, Vol. 51, (1960), pp. 349-358.

[18]Ibid., p. 350.

A teacher must rely upon the activities of a class for a large measure of professional and personal gratification. How well these personal and professional needs are met determines teacher perceptions of students.

In the instance of teacher perception of students the factor of expectation is the crucial variable.

In the area of curriculum a new notion is introduced--a process, a method, a result, rather than a person or persons.

> "The higher the status position of the group or individual, the greater the tendency for that group or individual to internalize responsibility for an improved state of affairs."[19]

Unlike the situation in which the person of authority and security may minimize his personal importance, in matters of perceived achievement the internalization is great. (Pepitone substantiated the above hypothesis but posits the question as to whether failure would bring the same response.)

On items dealing with curriculum the principal can make positive responses on the questionnaire without appearing immodest or insincere and at the same time attribute excellence of administration and program to himself.

Teachers are also involved with curriculum to the point that they will internalize a degree of responsibility for programs in their area.

A presentation of the possibility that teachers and principals would perceive the same situations in a dissimilar fashion may appear as a "commonplace ponderously announced." It would, perhaps, seem

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[19]Albert Pepitone, "Attribution of Causality, Social Attitudes, and Cognitive Matching Processes," Person Perception and Interpersonal Behavior, Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, (1958) pp. 258-276.

as obvious to state that the more highly valued a person perceived himself to be to a group, the greater will be his attraction and his evaluation of himself in its function.

Jay M. Jackson discovered this assumption to be invalid.[20] He found that a person tended to minimize his perceived value if he really was important and to maximize it if he was not.

The principal of a school is, by definition, a valued person. If he or she is secure as an individual in that position, he or she would not, according to Jackson, have to prove the point.

There are three scales in the research instrument which consider the principal; one dealing with ability to meet the needs of the school, one with the number and quality of innovations, and one with the principal's ability to deal with people. If, in fact, the principal is not threatened in his position, he or she could be expected to minimize the principal's role in each of these scales.

There is evidence to support the possibility that teachers would be willing (and able under the provisions of Festinger's theory) to accommodate weakness and errors on the part of the principal in an effort to preserve the positive image.

> "Can it be assumed that when contrast occurs between associated events, this has the effect of decreasing the probability of activation of one event by the other so that the connection between the events will actually be weakened? If so, a familiar reaction to a certain situation might be explained. A respected person performs some act that is socially disapproved. Instead of this disapproval generalizing to the man, the act may actually tend to be forgotten or to remain dissociated from the concept of the man.

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[20]Jay M. Jackson, "Reference Group Processes in a Formal Organization," Group Dynamics Research and Theory, 2nd ed. D. Cartwright and A. Zander (Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson and Company, 1960).

> "...The relation is stronger from antecendent to consequent than in other directions. In this case, generalization is more likely to occur from act to man than from man to act."[21]

The teacher is the person who must work for the school district in the public relation aspects of bond and millage elections which, in many instances, directly affect salaries. The teachers represent their classes and themselves in this effort. The principal represents the school.

The principal meets with community representatives at a different level than do teachers: A level which is often free from individual student orientation. The principal many times sees only the extremes of the community support or opposition. Both principals and teachers see their claim for tax and community support to be the most important.

Blake and Manton researched this aspect of group identification and found that:

> "...group members evaluate their own group above the judgments they accord to the proposal from a comparison group. The over evaluation of one's own group product relative to a comparison group can be interpreted in several ways: (a) as due to perceptual distortion stemming from group identification and needs in a situation where personal adequacy via group adequacy serves as a criterion of acceptance or rejection under win-lose conditions; (b) as stemming from distortions in reporting evaluations for the instrumental purpose of "winning" or because of greater familiarity with the rational reasons and premises of one's own group's solution."[22]

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[21]Helen Peak, "Psychological Structure and Person Perception," Person Perception and Interpersonal Behavior, ed. Renato Taguiri and Luigi Petrullo (Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1958), pp. 337-352.

[22]Robert R. Blake and Jane Suggley Manton, "Over Evaluation of Our Own Group's Product in Intergroup Competition," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, Vol. 64, No. 3, (1962), pp. 237-238.

From the foregoing statement the assumption is taken that those for whom the school represents a very significant reference group will tend to see community support as less favorable than those for whom the schools are less significant.

Principals and primary wage earners represent the two groups for whom schools could be expected to be most closely associated with ego. For these groups the school represents the setting of career commitment and personal success is interrelated with school success. The principal is subject to the same factors of identification with school as are other primary wage earners. In addition to these, he is influenced by two other conditions.

First, whereas the teacher is most specifically associated with the happenings of one class or subject, the principal is associated with all aspects of the school program. For him school could be expected to represent an even more significant generalized other than for teachers. An important aspect of school success is community support of that school. The intimate connection between school acceptance and professional stature is strong for a principal. It would tend to enhance his view of self if his perception of community support were favorable.

Second, a more measurable consideration is apparent in the higher salaries received by principals. This might also tend to re-inforce a natural propensity to perceive community support positively.

From this rationale an expected relationship would be that principals would rank community support higher than would teachers.

In 1961, A Robert Kahn and Fred E. Feidler reported a study in which they measured the people perception of subjects on the variables of age and sex. Their hypothesis that "Females will perceive significant

figures in their interpersonal environment more favorably than will males," was confirmed.[23] If this finding were to be interpreted in an educational setting it might be suggested that female teachers are not in professional competition with the principal or superintendent. The assumption that female teachers are not comparing themselves to principals and superintendents and, therefore, not as critical is given additional credence in the non-significance of Kahn's and Feidler's hypothesis that "Females will assume more similarity to 'significant others' than will males."[24]

Age is an important variable in that as well as exerting influence alone, it subsumes many other factors. All the forces that impinge over time can be demonstrated as a function of age. This study considers the newest teachers, and the most experienced, by age.

Kahn and Feidler confirmed a hypothesis that "older subjects will perceive more differences in personality traits among their 'significant others' than will younger subjects."[25]

Summary of Part 2

The preceding pages describe research considering various aspects of interaction among people according to selected variables. These studies tend to legitimize a more inclusive study but do not represent a definitive body of research in this area.

Related studies have been conducted in social-psychology, sociology, and psychology. A broad look at educational administration within the framework presented has yet to be made.

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[23] A. Robert Kahn and Fred E. Feidler, "Age and Sex Difference in the Perception of Persons," Sociometry, Vol. 24, No. 2, (June 1961).

[24] Ibid. [25] Ibid.

CHAPTER III

Research Design

The design of this study is directed toward the collection of data which will provide evidence for the acceptance or rejection of two general hypotheses.

An ancillary purpose of this approach is the development of a large number of related variables for analysis. These data will be presented in Chapter Five as Supplemental Findings.

The operational hypotheses are presented here.

OPERATIONAL HYPOTHESES

First Operational Hypothesis

High school teachers and principals will exhibit significantly different perceptions of professional expectation fulfillment as reflected by rank order correlations of teachers' and principals' responses to the research instrument.

This statement implies only difference and not extent or direction of that difference. Implicit in the theoretical foundation of the study is the acknowledgment that teachers and principals have many shared experiences because principals have also been teachers and some teachers aspire to become principals. The difference posited in this hypothesis are those which might issue from the differentiating demands and experiences of the educator as administrator.

Design for the study of this hypothesis includes the presentation of a rank order correlation of various population segments on many perceptual variables. A scale by variable presentation will display differences or sameness in specific areas under investigation. A number of relationships will be treated individually as evidences in support of the hypotheses.

Second Operational Hypothesis

High school teachers with a mean rank of 12 or higher on the three scales of the Principal Category of the research instrument used in this study will tend to share their principal's perception of the superintendent as measured by mean differences on the three scales of the Superintendent Category of the same instrument.

It is expected, therefore, that teachers exhibiting positive perception of the principal will tend to share his perception of the superintendent.

The design for analysis of this hypothesis will involve a rank order correlation of principals and staff by schools. Comparisons, displayed graphically, will be made between schools of the same district, and all urban schools compared with all rural and suburban units. Scales dealing with perceptions of principals and superintendents will provide the variables.

The collection of data relevant to the support or rejection of the hypotheses has been facilitated through the development of an instrument designed to measure differential perceptions. The perceptions ultimately chosen for measurement comparisons were based upon the degree to which the professional environments of principals and teachers lived up to their respective professional expectations.

After consideration was given several approaches, the matrix of a forced choice, dyadic set was accepted.

The instrument was organized to measure three items (scales) in each of six areas (categories) of the educational enterprise.

The six areas dealt with the perceptions held by teachers and principals toward:

1. Faculty
2. Superintendent
3. Students
4. Curriculum
5. Principal
6. Community - Parents - Building

These six categories were selected on the premise that they represented the four major individuals or groups associated with the daily operation of the high school as well as considering the curriculum and outside influences such as community, parents, and school plant.

The selection of the specific items for each category was made through use of a panel of nine experts who chose the eighteen items from a group of fifty-four. They were picked on the assumption that they would be both discriminating and comprehensive within categories. The items from which the instrument was developed are presented below by category and scale.

Category I - Faculty

Scale 1 - Professional competence of faculty.

Scale 2 - Numbers and quality of innovations by faculty members.

Scale 3 - Job satisfaction of faculty members.

Category II - Superintendent

Scale 4 - Ability of district superintendent to deal with people.

Scale 5 - Numbers and quality of innovations by district superintendent.

Scale 6 - Superintendent's ability to see and meet present and future needs of district.

Category III - Students

Scale 7 - Students' ability to work without supervision.

Scale 8 - Students' motivation to learn.

Scale 9 - Students' satisfaction with school.

Category IV - Curriculum

Scale 10 - Curriculum for students from the full range of academic ability.

Scale 11 - Capacity of curriculum to meet the full range of academic ability.

Scale 12 - Concern for the student in both academic and non-academic areas.

Category V - Principal

Scale 13 - Ability of principal to deal with people.

Scale 14 - Number and quality of innovations by this school's principal.

Scale 15 - Principal's ability to see and meet present and future needs of district.

Category VI - Community - Parents - Building

Scale 16 - Community's willingness to pay for quality school program.

Scale 17 - Extent to which parents take an active interest in this school's program.

Scale 18 - Educational adequacy of this school's building or buildings.

Each of the eighteen items was paired with every other item, appearing as Part A in half the pairing, and appearing as Part B in the other half. The 153 dyads developed through this process were arranged in random order. The inclusion of a question as to whether the respondent was interested in the results of the study brought the total number of selection opportunities to 154 and completed the body of the instrument.

A cover page containing a statement of purpose and marking directions was attached to each questionnaire. A second page called "Professional Category Questions" was also included and will be explained in greater detail in this chapter. The final page of instructions contained sections on organization and points of clarification.

The criterion upon which respondents were asked to make their decision in each dyad was: Select the one item in each set which most nearly meets your professional expectations.

This standard of comparison was explained on pages 1 and 3 of the introduction and appeared at the top of pages 1, 5, 8 and 10 in the body of the questionnaire.[1]

Page two of the introduction was designed to gather information about the respondent's professional background and became the source of data analysis by variables. All scoring of answer sheets and organization of data was accomplished by data processing, consequently page two was developed to meet the specifications of an eighty column unit record card.

By classification and number, the variables to be considered were as follows:

---

[1]See Appendix B for research instrument.

1. Professional position - Two variables
2. Wage earner status - Two variables
3. Gender - Two variables
4. Years experience - Ten variables
5. Curriculum areas - Ten variables
6. Age - Seven variables

This sheet made possible the comparison of data through combinations of thirty-three professional information variables.

The further variables of schools (20) and types of schools (3) increased the possibility for data analysis by twenty-three. Each scale could also be compared on every other variable (18) as could each category of information (6), resulting in a potential of in excess of 5,000 combinations for statistical or graphic correlations and presentations.

Experimental Design

Of the possible 5000 correlations possible under the general design of this study in which all variables would be measured against all others, delimitation has limted the choices as follows:

PROFESSIONAL CATEGORY QUESTIONS

1. All scales - Principal/Teacher Groupings - 2
2. All scales - Primary/Secondary Groupings - 2
3. All scales - Sex Groupings - 2
4. Teachers by Experience Groupings - 4

   0 N = 37
   1 N = 13
   2 N = 16
   9 N = 21 (All over 8 years)

5. Teachers by Curriculum — Groupings - 5

0 N = 12 Physical Science
1 N = 13 Natural Sciences
2 N = 16 Social Science
5 N = 26 Humanities
6 N = 13 Guidance Services

6. Teachers by Age — Groupings - 4

0 N = 36 (20-25 years)
1 N = 17 (26-30 years)
5 N = 11 (46-50 years)
6 N = 14 (Over 50 years)

7. All scales by school — Groupings - 20

01	Urban District	11	Rural District
02	" "	12	" "
03	" "	13	" "
04	" "	14	" "
05	" "	15	" "
06	" "	16	" "
07	" "	17	" "
08	" "	18	" "
09	" "		
10	" "	19	Suburban District
		20	" "

Analysis of the thrity-nine selected variables will produce 741 rank order correlations from which pertinent information will be selected.

Further delineation of the categories is presented with the directions to the instrument. See Appendix B.

Precedent for Format Selections

The forced choice dyad is based upon the same organizational rationale as the Edwards Personal Preference Scale.

Pilot Test

In order to test the instrument for clarity of instructions and understanding by respondents it was administered to the principal and eighteen staff members of a large suburban high school. Post-test

interviews confirmed that, although repetition was great, the meaning was clear and the instructions adequate. An analysis by inspection of the results of the pilot test gave no indication that the instrument would not measure what it was intended to determine. Further testing of the instrument alone would constitute a complete study. Since the purposes of this study were not directed toward such a goal, need for continued instrument testing is acknowledged as a limitation of this design.

Design of Analysis Methodology

This study is addressed to two major hypotheses. Because of its complexity and reliance upon forced choices, it did not yield to a simple null hypothesis with a statistical determination of significance.

Responses to all scales of every category were analyzed by rank order correlation. Such correlations were run on an IBM 1620 computer.

Sample

The data used in this study are taken from responses made by 20 high school principals and 118 high school teachers to a research instrument. These subjects represent twenty high schools, of which ten are urban, eight rural, and two suburban, selected randomly from all high schools within a one hundred mile radius of East Lansing, Michigan.

Urban schools represent four major population centers in units of one, two, three and four.

Rural areas are represented by eight schools of varying sizes and student body composition.

The two suburban schools are from the same county and represent middle to upper middle income areas surrounding a large population center.

The questionnaires were delivered to each principal and a short orientation session was conducted in which the desired sample of school staff was explained and a commitment to cooperate was received. Two of the twenty principals are women and all are primary wage earners.

All principals in the sample for this study had served as classroom teachers prior to gaining their administrative positions. It is reasonable to assume that as teachers they were subject to the same stimuli as their peers. Their motives for entering professional education may or may not have similarities to their counterparts who remained in the classroom situation. This study does not encompass a measurement of possible value change between the teaching and administrative phases of the individual careers. It is assumed that while there will be much that is held in common, differences between teachers and principals in their perception of the school situation are a function of their respective roles each with its attendant symbolic internalization and interaction.

Teachers in each school were selected on the following criteria:

1. Female, primary wage earner who has taught three years or less.
2. Female, primary wage earner who has taught more than five years.
3. Female, supplemental wage earner who has taught three years or less.
4. Female, supplemental wage earner who has taught more than five years.
5. Male teacher who has taught less than three years.
6. Male teachers who has taught more than five years.

7. Staff member who is not in a classroom setting, i.e., counselor, librarian, et cetera.

Not all schools participating in the study had personnel in every category. This accounts for the total sample of 138 rather than the 160 which would have constituted a complete group from each school. Number of subjects in each variable category are shown in Table 1 on page 54.

CHAPTER IV

Primary Findings

In this chapter data will be presented in two parts. Part One titled Findings - Differential Perceptions in the Fulfillment of Educational Expectations will treat the premise of the first hypothesis. Data for this part will be summarized in the chapter with the predonderance of graphically displayed information placed in Appendix A.

Part Two called Findings - Principal's Role as Intermediary in Teachers' Perception Formation will treat the premise of the second hypothesis. Data for this part will be analyzed in tabular form and summarized in the chapter with the majority of graphically displayed information placed in Appendix A.

Part 1

Findings - Differential Perceptions in the Fulfillment of Educational Expectations

First General Hypothesis

High school principals and teachers have internalized symbols which proceed from different experiential backgrounds, including different reference groups and "significant others" and, therefore, perceive the same phenomena from different and dissimilar points of view.

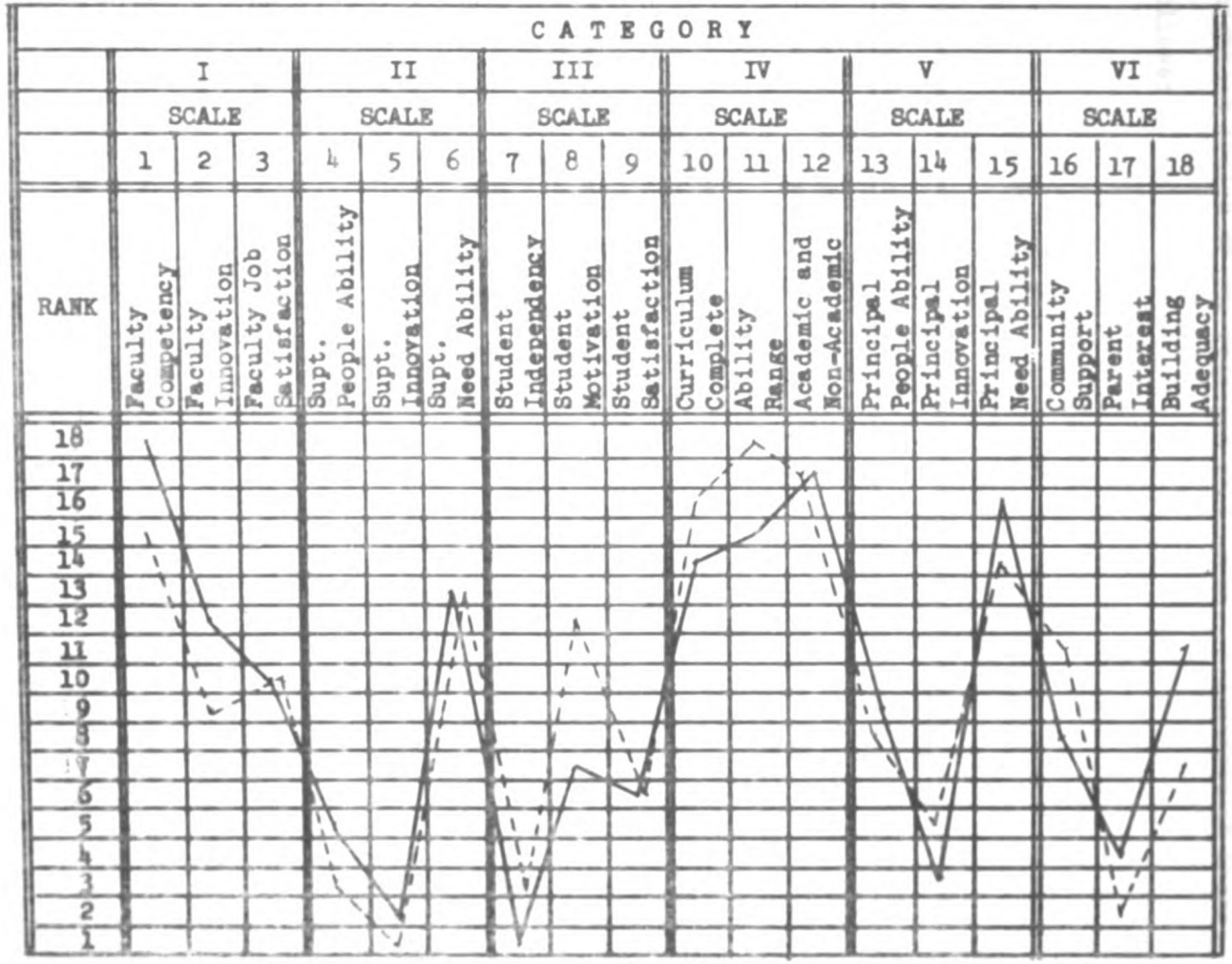
A rank order correlation of all responses made by all subjects on each of the eighteen scales of the research instrument is presented in Figure 1.

If the respondents selected a particular scale item each time it was paired with each other item it would have the highest rank of 18, meaning that of all those factors under consideration it most nearly met the professional expectation of the respondents. That scale item selected least often when paired with each other scale item would have the lowest rank of 1. If an item were ranked as 9 it would mean it was selected ninth most often of the eighteen scale items when paired with each of the other, and so on throughout each possible ranking.

Principals and teachers each ranked every scale item as paired with each other scale item. Rank order correlation of choices by teachers and principals on the total instrument was .888.

Correlations of population sub-categories compared to all principals appear as Figures 2 through 18 in Appendix A and are summarized in Table 1. Figure 1 presents a comparison and correlation of all principals and all teachers on all scales and is found on page 53.

Fig. 1. - MEAN RANKS OF ALL PRINCIPALS COMPARED WITH TEACHERS ON ALL SCALES



Summary

Figures 2 through 18 presented the perceptual choices of seventeen sub-categories of teachers as compared to the total sample of principals. Correlations were computed between those groups for the total eighteen scales of the research instrument. A synopsis of these data follows:

TABLE 1

CORRELATION OF PRINCIPALS' PERCEPTIONS WITH VARIOUS SUB-CATEGORIES OF TEACHERS

Fig.	All Principals Compared With:	Number of Subjects	RHO
2	Primary Wage Earners	75	.946
3	Secondary Wage Earners	43	.876
4	Male Teachers	45	.915
5	Female Teachers	73	.882
6	First Year Teachers	37	.770
7	Second Year Teachers	13	.781
8	Third Year Teachers	16	.851
9	Teachers with over 8 years experience	21	.915
10	Physical Science Teachers	12	.847
11	Natural Science Teachers	13	.859
12	Social Science Teachers	16	.876
13	Humanities Teachers	26	.905
14	Guidance and Counseling Personnel	13	.843
15	Teachers Aged 20-25	36	.892
16	Teachers Aged 26-30	17	.909
17	Teachers Aged 46-50	11	.779
18	Teachers Over 50 years of Age	14	.859

High rank order correlations were found between principals and teachers in all sub-categories. The perceptions most commonly held were those represented by principals and primary wage earners. Older teachers and male teachers also had perceptions very much like those of the building principals.

TABLE 2

CORRELATION OF PRINCIPALS' AND TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS BY NUMBER OF YEARS AND TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Years Experience	Rho
First Year	.770
Second Year	.781
Third Year	.851
Over Eight Years	.915

Although not significant in degree, the trend toward congruity of perception as a function of experience was also observable.

Part 2

Findings - Principal's Role as Intermediary In Teachers' Perception Formation

Second General Hypothesis

A principal represents a "significant other" for teachers. As such he becomes a mediator of their perceptions toward another, more obscure, "significant other" in the person of the superintendent of schools. High school teachers who exhibit high positive perceptions of their principal will tend to share the principal's perception of the superintendent of schools.

The data for this section of the presentation are taken from the responses of 118 teachers from 20 high schools toward their principals and superintendents. Data will be displayed for the:

1. Total population
2. Districts represented by more than one high school
3. Individual urban schools
4. Individual suburban schools
5. Individual rural schools
6. Teachers by classification

For the purpose of definition, "positive perception" is a ranking of 12 or above on the scales dealing with principal and teacher.

Total Population

In table 3 is presented a mean rank position on each of the three scales dealing with principals (Category V, Scales 13, 14, 15) as measured by teachers and the principal.

In Table 4 is presented a mean rank position on each of the three scales dealing with superintendents (Category II, Scales 4, 5, 6) as measured by teachers and principal.

TABLE 3

PERCEPTIONS HELD BY TOTAL POPULATION OF TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS ON THE THREE SCALES OF CATEGORY V - PRINCIPAL

Category V - Principal		Rank		
Scale	Scale Description[1]	Principals	Teachers	Difference
13	Principal People Ability	8	9	1
14	Principal Innovation	5	3	2
15	Principal Need Ability	14	16	2

Principals and teachers appear to perceive the three scales of the Principal Category in much the same way. The greatest mean rank difference on any scale was 2.

TABLE 4

PERCEPTIONS HELD BY TOTAL POPULATION OF TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS ON THE THREE SCALES OF CATEGORY II - SUPERINTENDENT

Category II - Superintendent		Rank		
Scale	Scale Description	Principals	Teachers	Difference
4	Superintendent People Ability	3	5	2
5	Superintendent Innovation	1	2	1
6	Superintendent Need Ability	13	13	0

[1]The concepts represented in the following have been shortened to a few key words. The complete statement of the perception being abbreviated can be found on pages 43 and 44 of Chapter Three.

Principals and teachers appear to perceive the three scales of the Teacher Category in much the same way. The greatest mean rank difference on any scale was 2.

The rank order correlation between all teachers and all principals on all scales is .888. There is less difference between teachers' and principal perception of their superintendent than in any other single category measured by the instrument.

Districts Represented by More Than One High School

In Table 5 data from four schools in the same urban school district are presented.

TABLE 5

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PERCEPTIONS BY PRINCIPALS AND SELECTED TEACHERS FROM FOUR URBAN HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE SAME DISTRICT ON THREE SCALES OF CATEGORY II - SUPERINTENDENT

School	Positive Principal Perception by Scale			Difference of Superintendent Perception by Scale			Total Difference by School
	13	14	15	4	5	6	
1	12	--	18	0	1	1	2
2	--	--	12	17	7	0	24
3	--	--	14	2	4	3	9
4	--	--	17	4	4	1	9
Total Differences by Scales				23	16	5	44

The teachers having the highest perception of their principal exhibited a pattern of superintendent perception most like those of their principal (School 1). Conversely, those having lowest perception of principal showed the greatest variance between their perception of the superintendent and the principal's perception of him (School 2).

Fig. 19. - MEAN RANKS OF PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH SELECTED TEACHERS FROM URBAN SCHOOL NO. 1 ON ALL SCALES

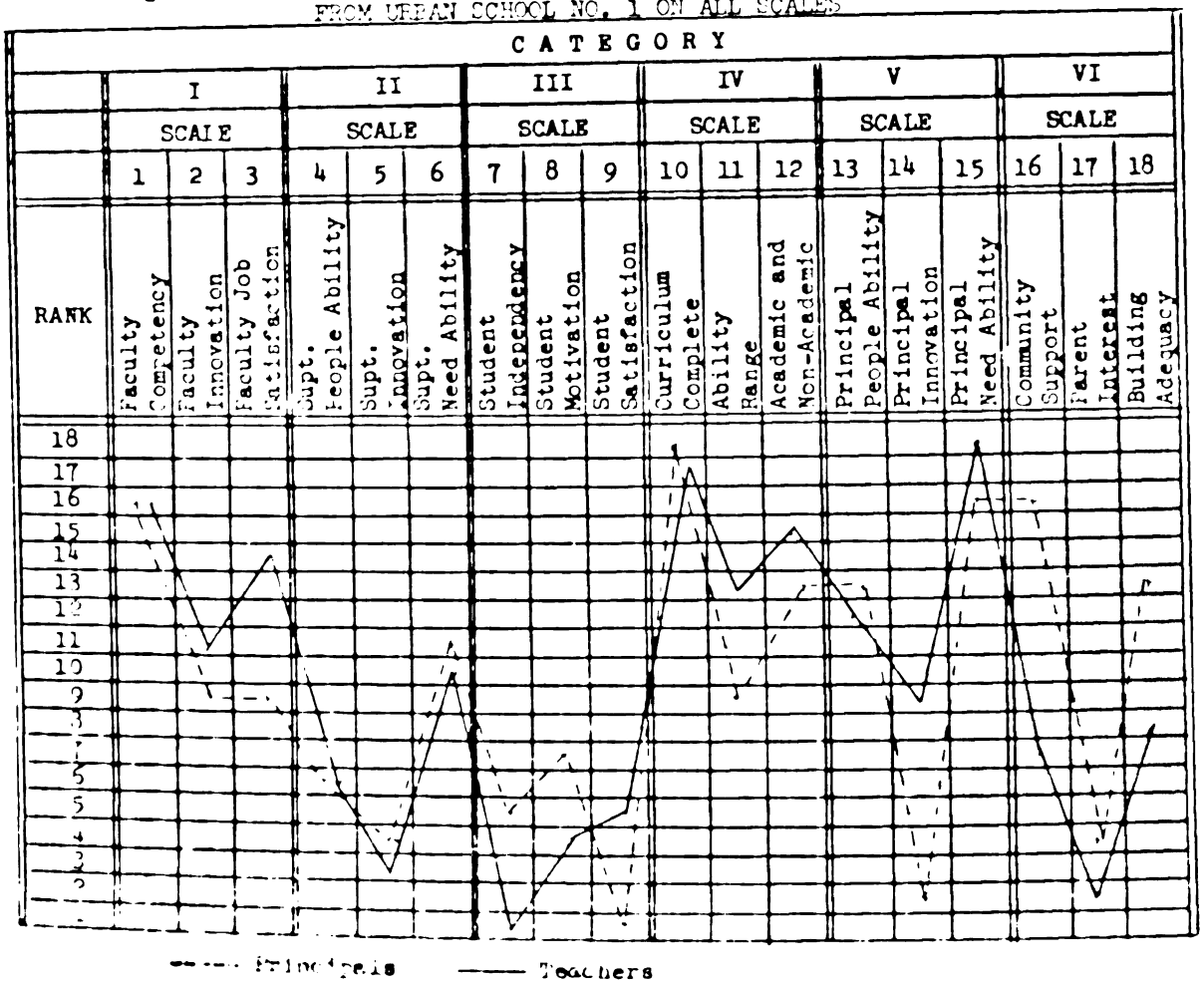


Fig. 20. - MEAN RANKS OF PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH SELECTED TEACHERS FROM URBAN SCHOOL NO. 2 ON ALL SCALES

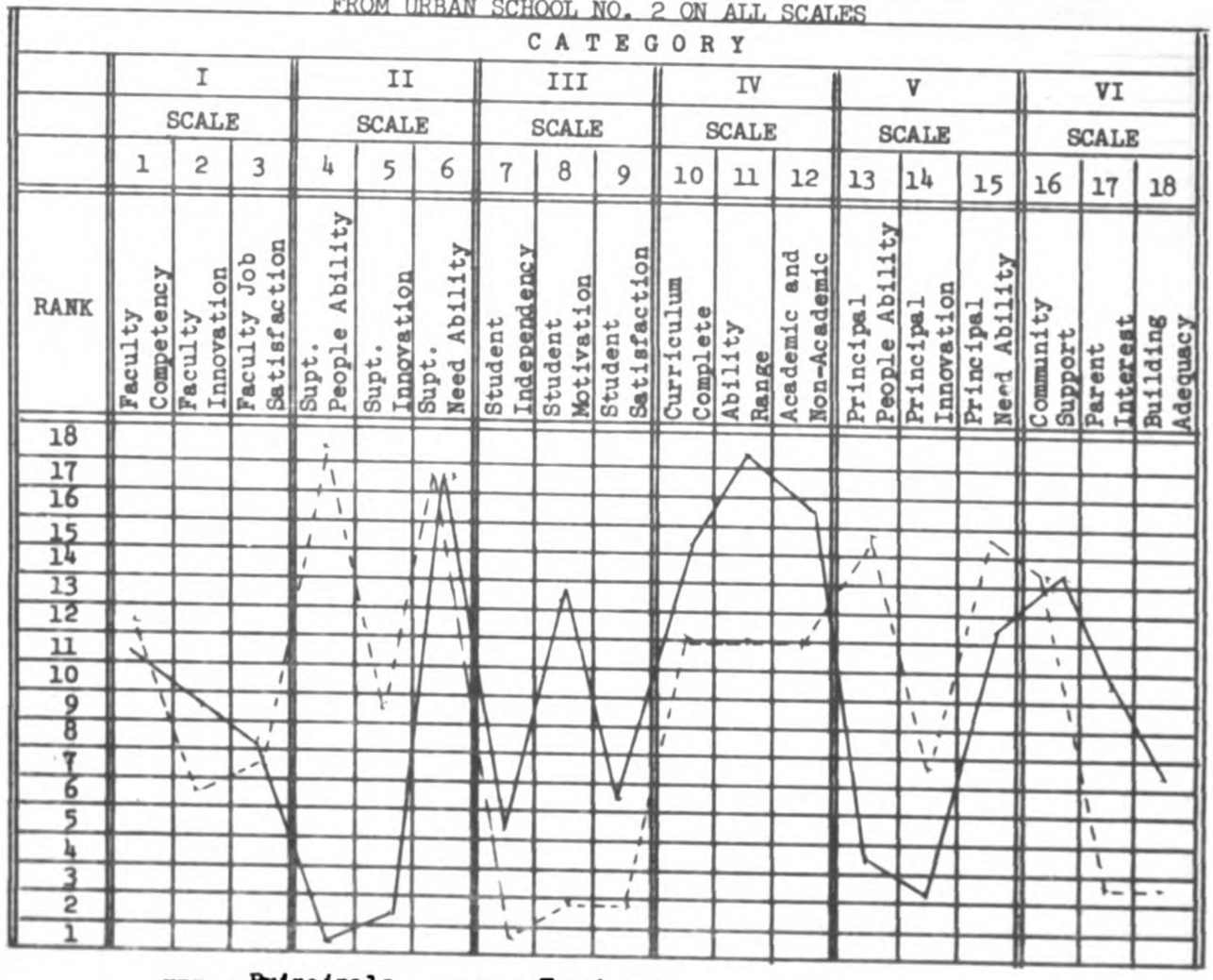


Fig. 21. - MEAN RANKS OF PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH SELECTED TEACHERS FROM URBAN SCHOOL NO. 3 ON ALL SCALES

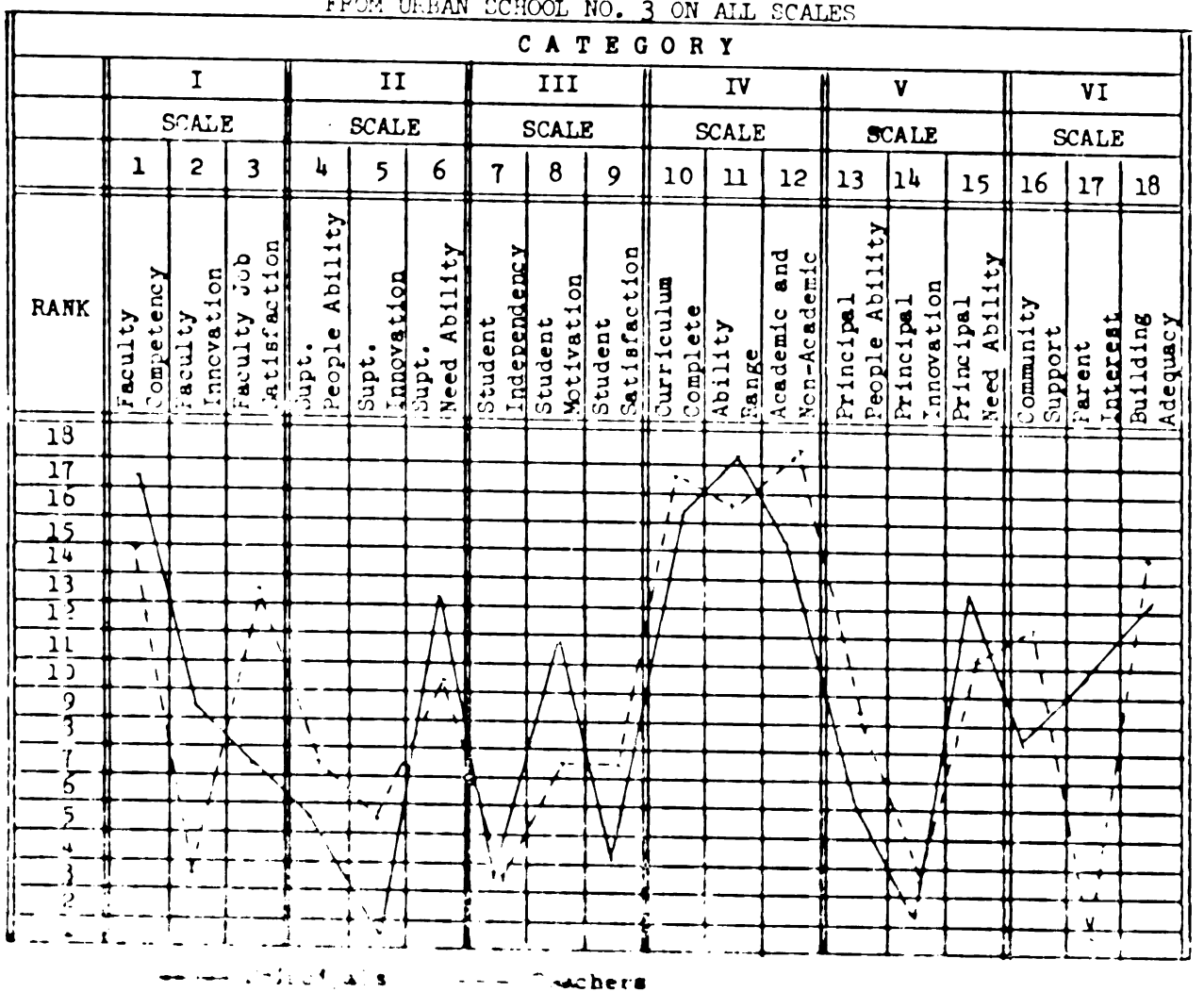
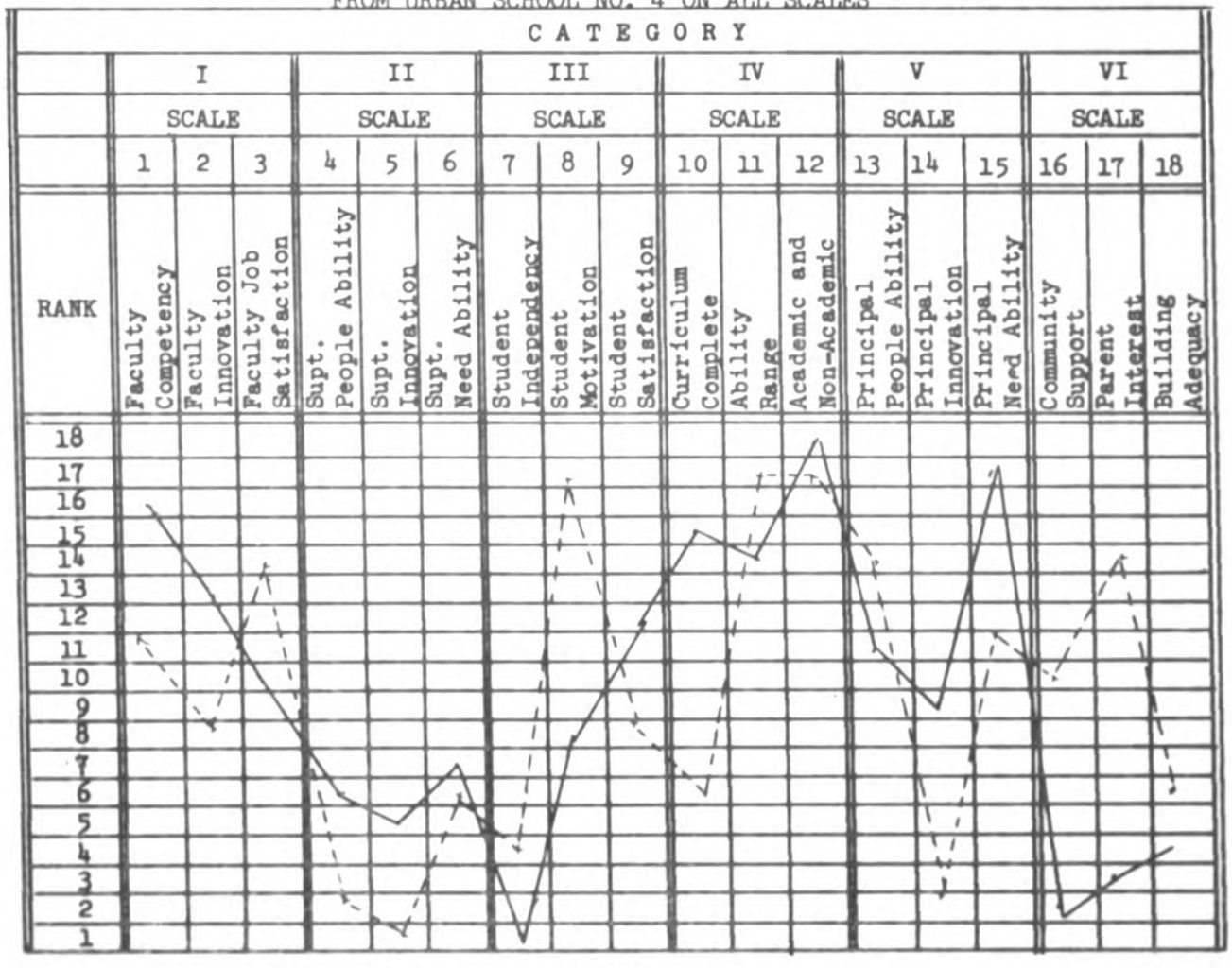


Fig. 22. - MEAN RANKS OF PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH SELECTED TEACHERS FROM URBAN SCHOOL NO. 4 ON ALL SCALES



In Table 6 data from three schools in the same urban school district are presented.

TABLE 6

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PERCEPTIONS BY PRINCIPALS AND SELECTED TEACHERS FROM THREE URBAN HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE SAME DISTRICT ON THREE SCALES OF CATEGORY II - SUPERINTENDENT

School	Positive Principal Perception by Scale			Difference of Superintendent Perception By Scale			Total Difference by School
	13	14	15	4	5	6	
6	--	--	--	11	4	1	16
7	17	12	15	2.5	4	5	11.5
8	--	--	12	0	4	5.5	9.5
Total Differences by Scales				13.5	12	11.5	37.0

The teachers having the highest perceptions of their principal (School 7) exhibited a pattern of superintendent perceptions with two ranks greater difference than between teachers and principal of the school with the second highest teacher perceptions of the principal (School 8). The teachers having the lowest perceptions of their principal (School 6) showed the greatest variance between their perception of the superintendent and the principal's perception of him.

Fig. 23. - MEAN RANKS OF PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH SELECTED TEACHERS FROM URBAN SCHOOL NO. 6 ON ALL SCALES

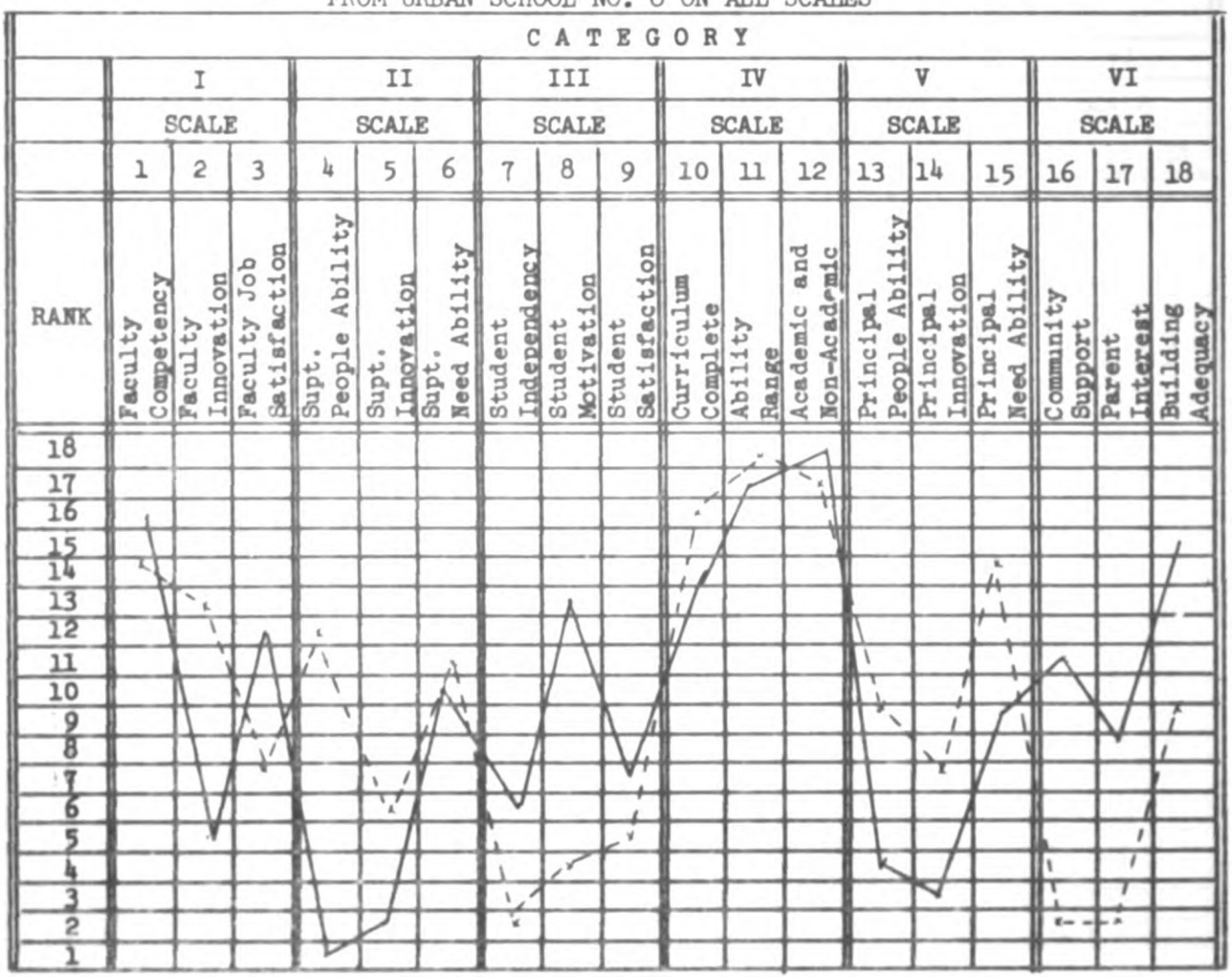


Fig. 24. - MEAN RANKS OF PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH SELECTED TEACHERS FROM URBAN SCHOOL NO. 7 ON ALL SCALES

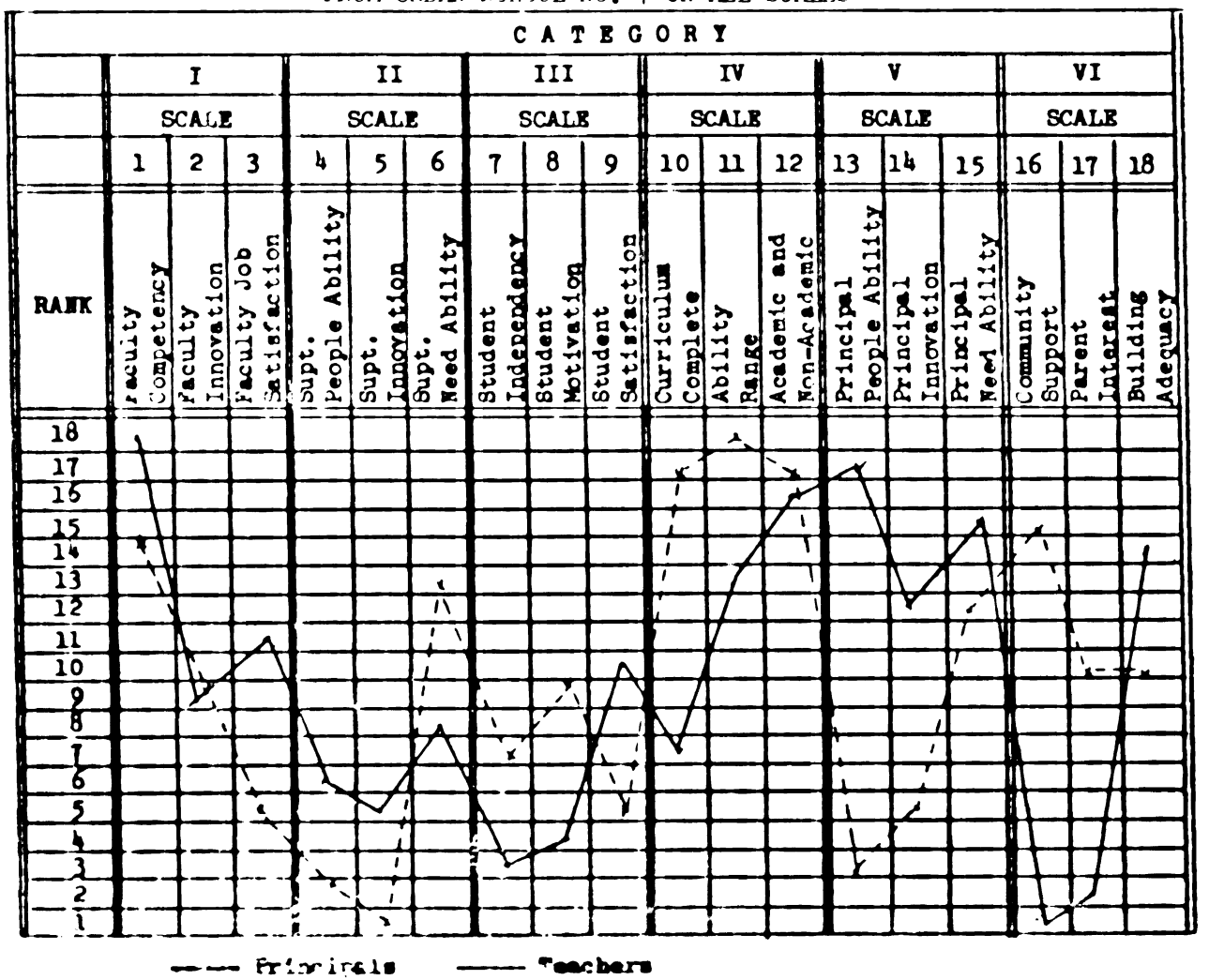
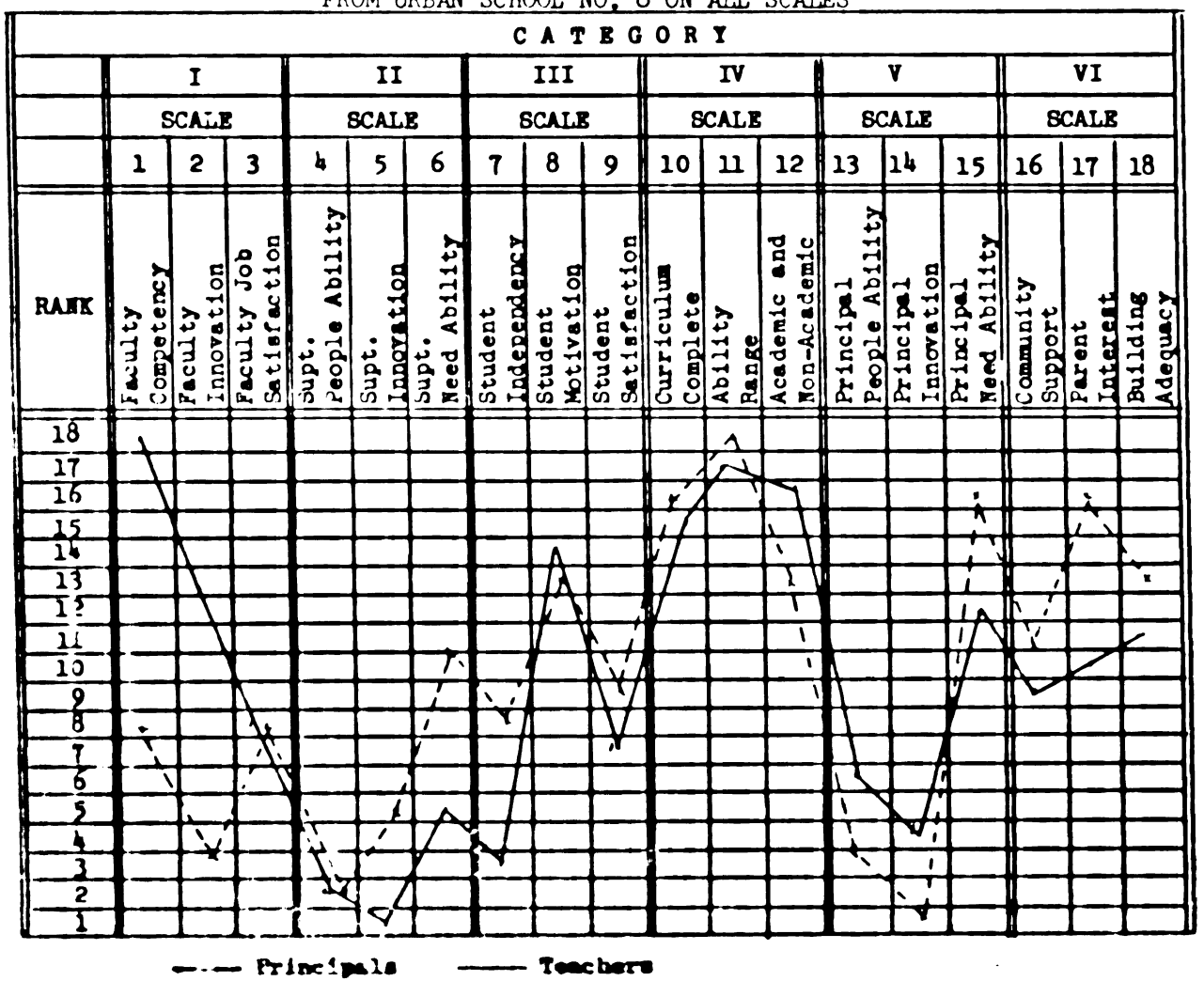


Fig. 25. - MEAN RANKS OF PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH SELECTED TEACHERS FROM URBAN SCHOOL NO. 8 ON ALL SCALES



In Table 7 data from two schools in the same urban school district are presented.

TABLE 7

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PERCEPTIONS BY PRINCIPALS AND SELECTED TEACHERS FROM TWO URBAN HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE SAME DISTRICT ON THREE SCALES OF CATEGORY II - SUPERINTENDENT

School	Positive Principal Perception by Scale			Difference of Superintendent Perception by Scale			Total Difference by School
	13	14	15	4	5	6	
9	....	--	14	1.5	2	3.5	7
10	--	--	15	1	0	5	6
Difference by Scales				2.5	2	8.5	13

Teachers having the highest perception of their principal exhibited a pattern of superintendent perception most like those of their principal (School 10). Those teachers having lower perceptions of their principal exhibited a commensurately lower agreement of perception with their principal (School 9).

Summary of data from nine urban high schools representing three school districts.

Considering the relation between positive perceptions of principal and total differences between teachers and principals there are nine incidents of measure, one for each of the schools.

The combination of highest perception of principal by teachers and lowest total differences between teachers and principals on the three scales of Category II - Superintendents, was observed seven times. One tie occurred and there was one case where the highest principal

ranking was two ranks higher than the second. Thus seven cases out of nine measures were in a direction supportive of the second hypothesis.

Individual Urban School

In Table 8 data from one urban school are presented.

TABLE 8

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PERCEPTIONS BY PRINCIPAL AND SELECTED TEACHERS FROM ONE URBAN HIGH SCHOOL ON THREE SCALES OF CATEGORY II - SUPERINTENDENT

School	Positive Principal Perception by Scale				Difference of Superintendent Perception by Scale				Total Difference by School
	13	14	15		4	5	6		
5	--	--	12		3	3.5	0		6.5

This single school represents an urban area with only one high school and, therefore, cannot be compared within the district.

The mean difference between perceptions of the superintendent held by teachers and the principal is 6.5.

Fig. 26. - MEAN RANKS OF PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH SELECTED TEACHERS FROM URBAN SCHOOL NO. 9 ON ALL SCALES

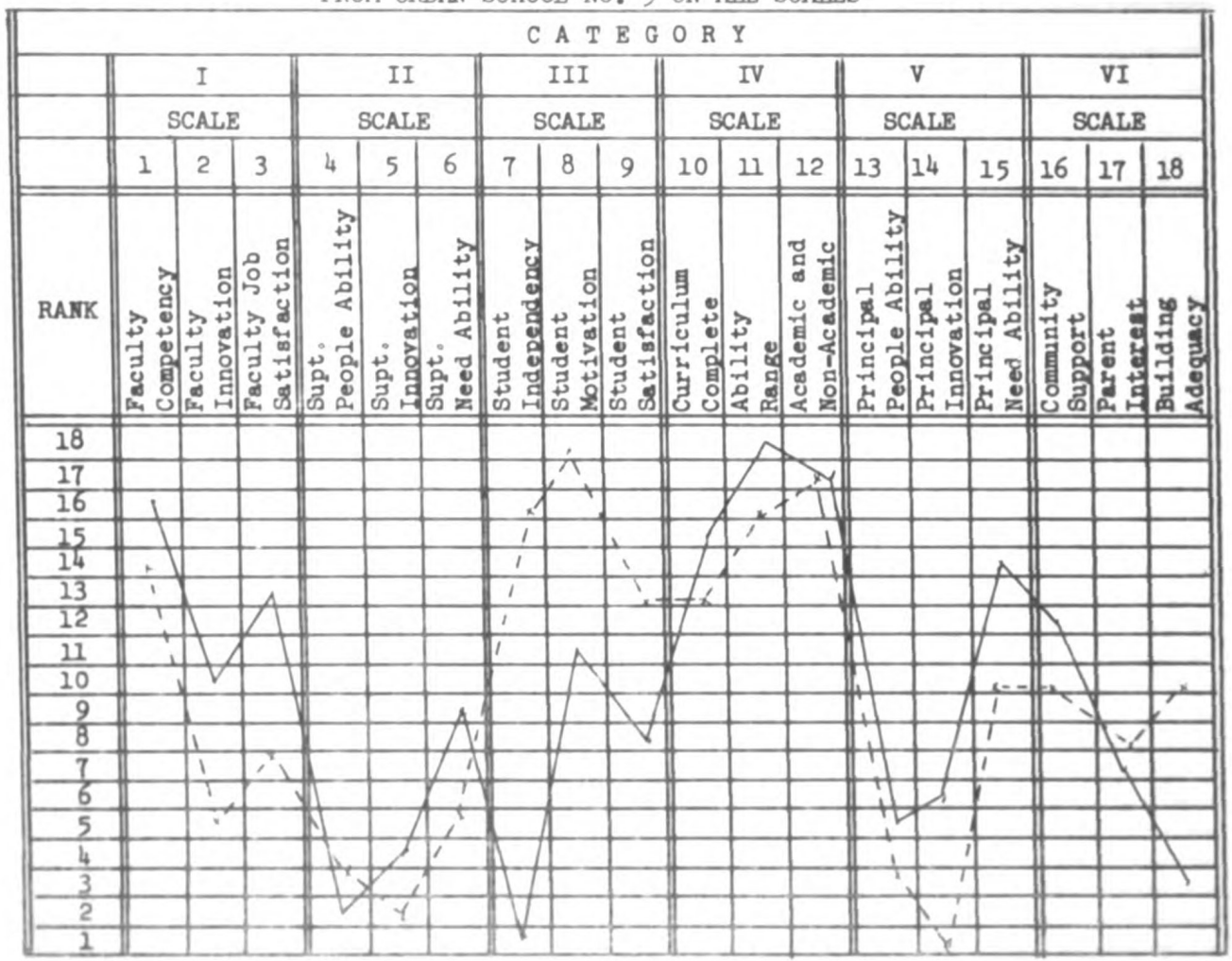


Fig. 27. - MEAN RANKS OF PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH SELECTED TEACHERS FROM URBAN SCHOOL NO. 10 ON ALL SCALES

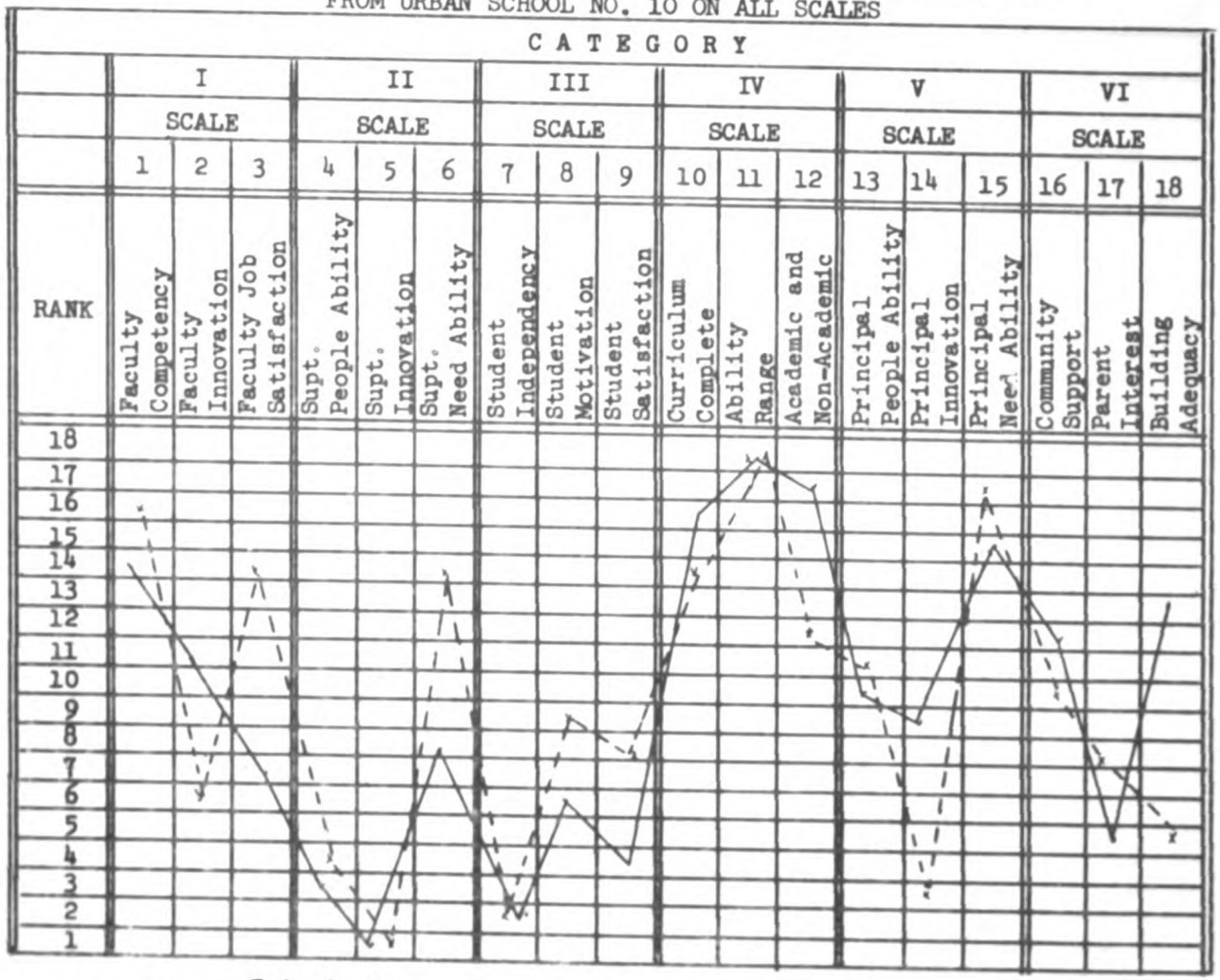
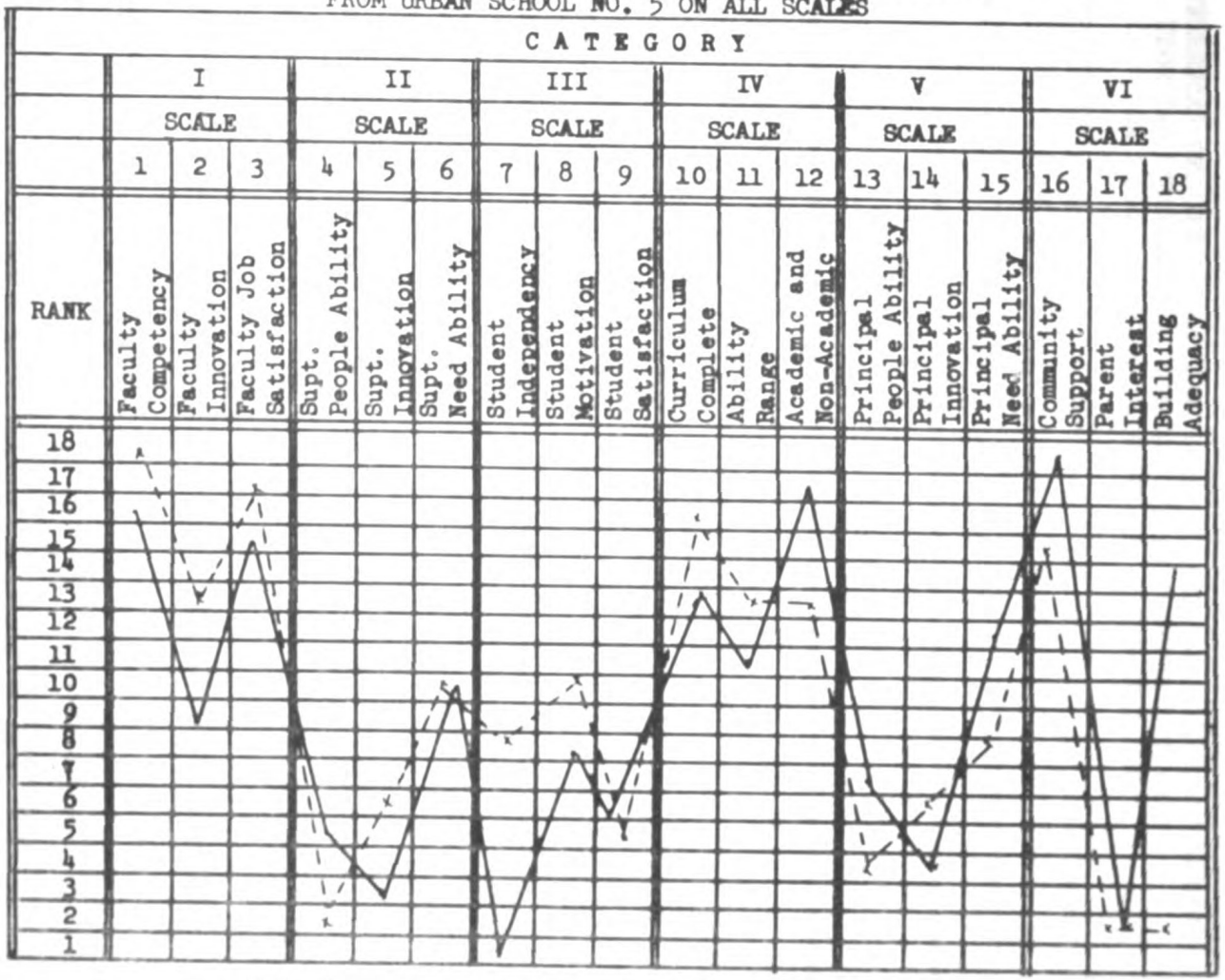


Fig. 28. - MEAN RANKS OF PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH SELECTED TEACHERS FROM URBAN SCHOOL NO. 5 ON ALL SCALES



Suburban Schools

Data from two suburban schools representing two suburban districts are presented in Table 9.

TABLE 9

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PERCEPTIONS BY PRINCIPALS AND SELECTED TEACHERS FROM TWO SUBURBAN HIGH SCHOOLS OF TWO SEPARATE DISTRICTS ON THREE SCALES OF CATEGORY II - SUPERINTENDENT

School	Positive Principal Perception by Scale			Difference of Superintendent Perception by Scale			Total Difference by School
	13	14	15	4	5	6	
19	14	--	16	0	0	2	2
20	--	--	--	1.5	4.5	1	7
Total Difference by Scales				1.5	4.5	1	9

Teachers in suburban School No. 19 ranked their principal above 12 on two of the three scales in Category V. The total difference in teacher-principal perceptions of superintendents was lowest for School No. 19.

Teachers in suburban School No. 20 ranked their principal below 12 on all scales of Category V. The total difference in teacher-principal perception of superintendents was highest for School No. 20.

Summary of data from two suburban high schools representing two school districts.

Considering the relations between positive perception of principal and total differences between teachers and principals there are two incidents of measure, one for each school.

The combination of highest perception of principal by teachers and lowest total differences between teachers and principals on the three scales of Category II - Superintendents, pertained both times.

Total rank differences for suburban schools is 4.5.

Rural Schools

The data from eight rural high schools are presented in Appendix A and displayed in Table 10.

TABLE 10

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PERCEPTIONS BY PRINCIPALS AND SELECTED TEACHERS FROM EIGHT RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS OF EIGHT SEPARATE DISTRICTS ON THREE SCALES OF CATEGORY II - SUPERINTENDENT

School	Positive Principal Perception by Scale			Difference of Superintendent Perception by Scale			Total Difference by School
	13	14	15	4	5	6	
11	--	--	16	13.5	9	0	13.5
12	18	14	16	.5	3	2	5.5
13	--	--	--	14	12	4	28.0
14	--	--	--	1	8	8.5	17.5
15	12	--	13	8	5	2	15.0
16	13	12	16	3	10	12	25.0
17	--	--	--	6	1	6	13.0
18	--	13	16	2	10	6	18.0
							135.5
						Mean Rank Difference -	16.9

Tabular Summary of Data from Eight Rural High Schools

TABLE 11

A COMPARISON OF POSITIVE PERCEPTION TOWARD PRINCIPAL AND MEAN RANK DIFFERENCE IN PERCEPTION OF SUPERINTENDENT FOR TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS OF EIGHT RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS

School by Descending Order of Positive Principal Perception	Mean Dissonance of Superintendent Perception
12	5.5
16	25.0
18	18.0
15	15.0
11	13.5
13	28.0
14 Equal	17.5
17	13.0

Although teachers in School 12 exhibited the highest perception toward their principal and the least difference with him in their perception of the superintendent, no other schools followed this pattern.

Teachers and principals of rural high schools appear to form perceptions of the superintendent independent from each other.

The mean difference of perception toward the superintendent on the three scales was 16.9.

Summary

Mean rank difference of perceptions by principals and teachers in three urban school districts represented by nine high schools was 10.3. A single urban high school measured a 6.5 rank difference between teachers and principal and two suburban schools had a mean difference of 4.5.

The eight rural districts were represented by eight high schools with a mean rank difference of 16.9.

Of the nine schools in the urban district, seven appeared to follow the predicted direction of the second general hypothesis. One school was two ranks different than positive prediction and there was one tie.

The single urban and the two suburban had rank differences below the rural or grouped urban schools.

The eight rural schools, with the exception of one extreme, showed no predictable pattern of perception on the scales in question.

For a detailed analysis and discussion of these findings, see Chapter Six.

CHAPTER V

Supplemental Findings

In this chapter data will be presented and analyzed which are supportive or critical of the two general hypotheses rather than related directly to them. These findings have research base in sociology, psychology and social-psychology and their investigation represents an implicit purpose of the design of this study.

Discussion of findings will follow a sequence similar to that of the six categories of the research instrument. Findings are not predicated upon separate operational hypotheses, but are intended to support, clarify or challenge the conclusions relevant to the general hypotheses.

Category I - Faculty

Scale 1 - Professional competence of faculty.

Scale 2 - Numbers and quality of innovations by faculty members.

The data for these are given in Figures 39 and 40.

The mean rank of all principals on Scale 1 in Category I is 15. The mean rank of all teachers is 18.

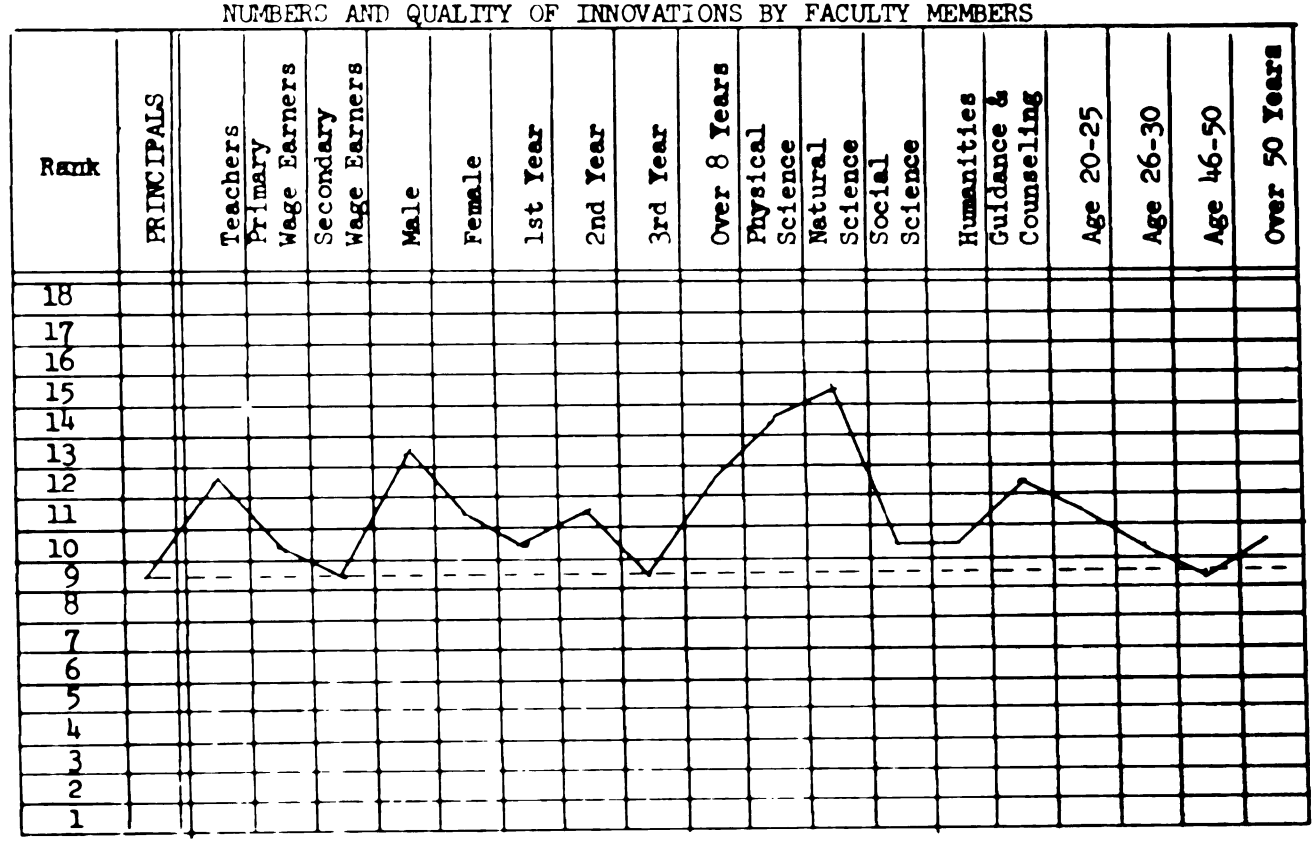
Of the eighteen classifications of teachers, seventeen rank professional competence of faculty members above 15 and one ranks it below.

The mean rank of all principals on Scale 2 in Category I is 9. The mean rank of all teachers is 12. Of the eighteen classifications of teachers, fourteen rank it above, three at 9 and none below.

Of the thirty-six total classification choices of teachers on the

Fig. 39. - MEAN RANK COMPARISONS OF PRINCIPALS WITH SUB-CATEGORIES OF TEACHERS ON PROFESSIONAL COMPETENCY OF FACULTY MEMBERS

Fig. 40. - MEAN RANK COMPARISON OF PRINCIPALS WITH SUB-CATEGORIES OF TEACHERS ON NUMBERS AND QUALITY OF INNOVATIONS BY FACULTY MEMBERS



two scales, teachers ranked teacher competence and innovation higher than did the principals thirty-two times, below principals once, and the same three times.

Remark

Teachers ranked those scales in the Faculty Category dealing with competency and innovation higher than did principals on thirty-two of a possible thirty-six occasions.

Indications appear sufficient to accept the relationships as evidence of differential perception between principals and teachers.

Category I - Faculty

Scale 3 - Job satisfaction of faculty members.

Data presented in Figure 41.

The mean rank of all principals is 10. The mean rank of all teachers is 10. Of the eighteen teacher classifications, two rank job satisfaction above 10, ten rank it below 10, and six at 10.

Remark

Principals ranked Faculty Job Satisfaction higher than did teachers on ten of a possible eighteen occasions with six ties. Indications appear sufficient to accept the relationship as evidence of differential perception between principals and teachers.

Category II - Superintendent

Scale 4 - Ability of district superintendent to deal with people.

Scale 5 - Numbers and quality of innovations by district superintendent.

Scale 6 - Superintendent's ability to see and meet present and future needs of district.

Fig. 41. - MEAN RANK COMPARISON OF PRINCIPALS WITH SUB-CATEGORIES OF TEACHERS ON JOB SATISFACTION OF FACULTY TYPES

Data for this relationship are taken from Scales 4, 5, and 6 of Category II and are displayed in Figures 42, 43, and 44.

The mean rank of all principals on Scale 4 is 3. The mean rank of all teachers is 5. Of the eighteen teacher classifications, eight rank the superintendent's ability to deal with people above 3, four rank it below 3, and five at 3.

The mean rank of all principals on Scale 5 is 1. The mean rank of all teachers is 2. Of the eighteen teacher classifications, twelve rank the superintendent's innovativeness above 1, and five at 1. There are, of course, no selections below 1.

The mean rank of all principals on Scale 6 is 13. The mean rank of all teachers is 13. Of the eighteen teacher classifications, four rank the superintendent's ability to meet needs above 13, six rank it below 13, and seven at 13.

Remark

Principals ranked those items dealing with the superintendent lower than did teachers on twenty-four of a possible fifty-four occasions. Indications appear sufficient to accept the relationships as evidence of differential perception between principal and teachers.

Category III - Students

Scale 7 - Students' ability to work without supervision.

Scale 8 - Students' motivation to learn.

Scale 9 - Students' satisfaction with school.

Data are presented in Figures 45, 46, and 47.

The mean rank of all principals on Scale 7, Category III is 4. The mean rank of all teachers on Scale 7 is 1.

Fig. 42. - MEAN RANK COMPARISON OF PRINCIPALS WITH SUB-CATEGORIES OF TEACHERS ON ABILITY OF DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENT TO DEAL WITH PEOPLE

Fig. 43. - MEAN RANK COMPARISON OF PRINCIPALS WITH SUB-CATEGORIES OF TEACHERS ON INTERESTS AND QUALITY OF INNOVATIONS BY DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENT

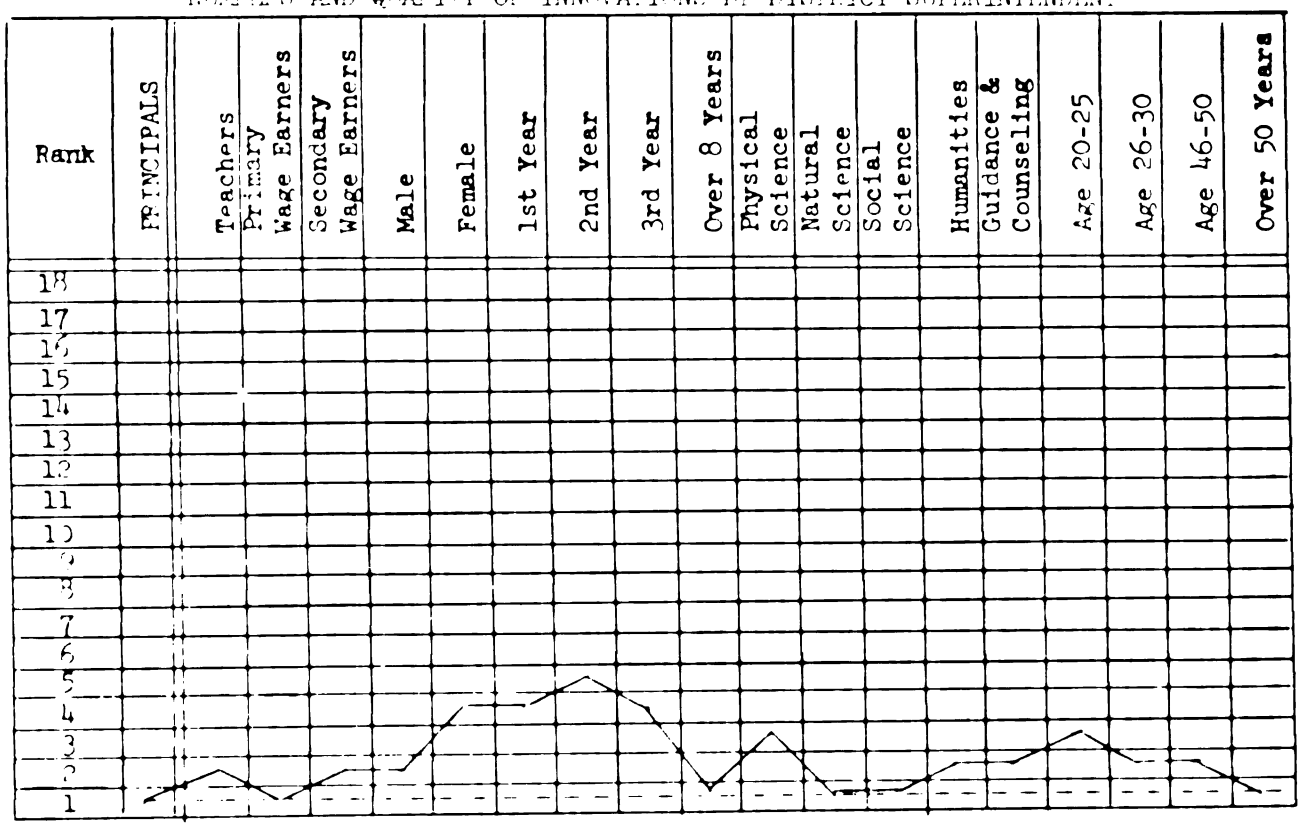


Fig. 44. - MEAN RANK COMPARISON OF PRINCIPALS WITH SUB-CATEGORIES OF TEACHERS ON SUPERINTENDENT'S ABILITY TO SEE AND MEET PRESENT AND FUTURE NEEDS OF DISTRICT

Fig. 45. - MEAN RANK COMPARISON OF PRINCIPALS WITH SUB-CATEGORIES OF TEACHERS ON STUDENTS' ABILITY TO WORK WITHOUT SUPERVISION

Fig. 46. - MEAN RANK COMPARISON OF PRINCIPALS WITH SUB-CATEGORIES OF TEACHERS ON STUDENTS' MOTIVATION TO LEARN

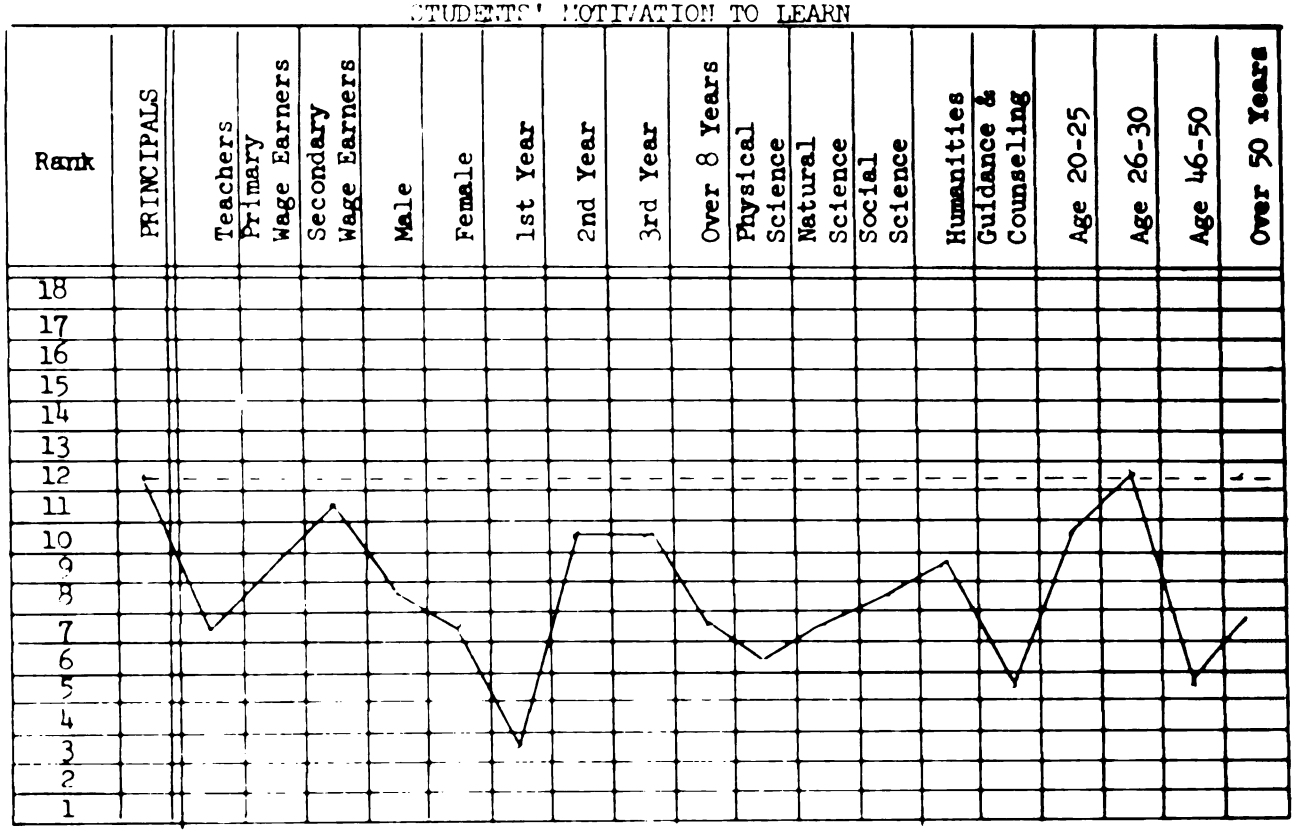
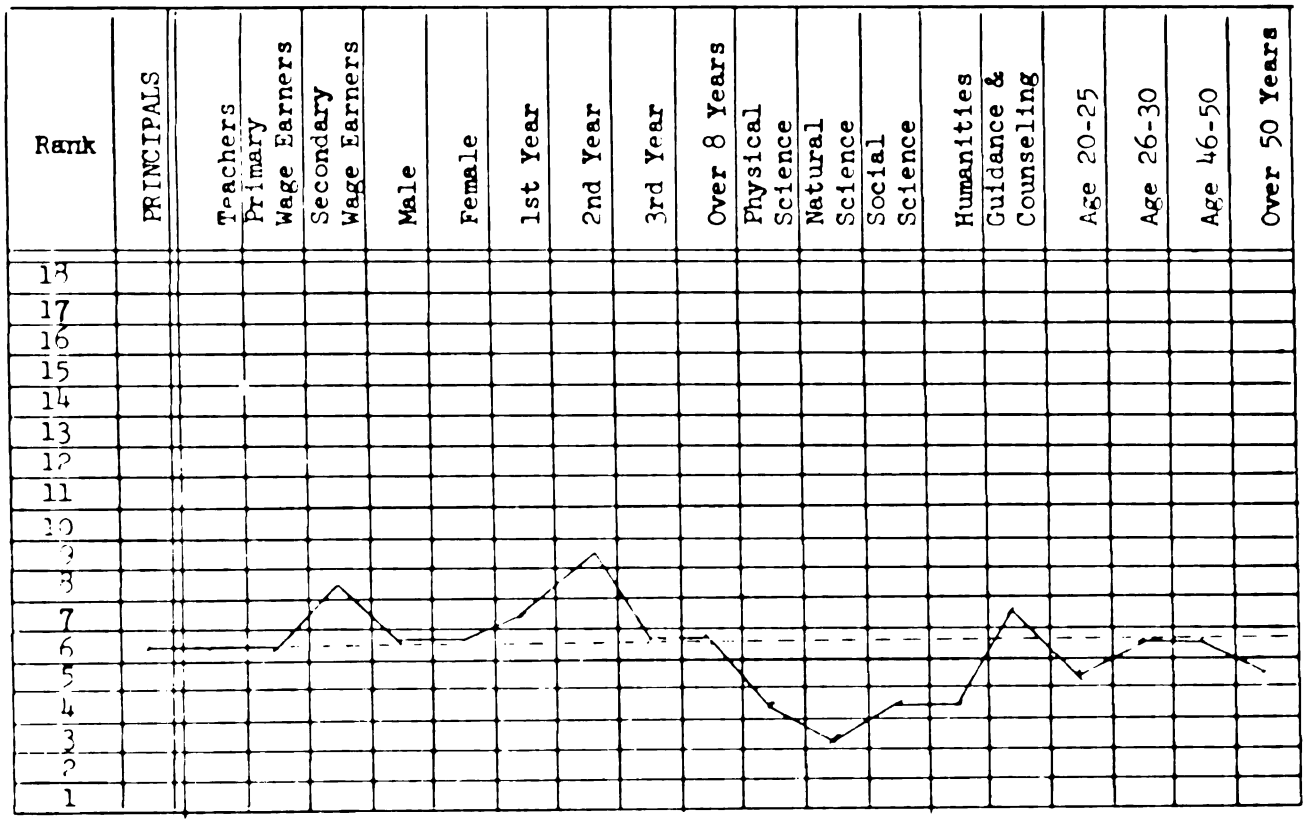


Fig. 47. - MEAN RANK COMPARISON OF PRINCIPALS WITH SUB-CATEGORIES OF TEACHERS ON STUDENTS' SATISFACTION WITH SCHOOL



Of the eighteen teacher classifications, seventeen rank Scale 7 below 4, one ranks it above 4, and there are no ties.

The mean rank of all principals on Scale 8, Category III is 12. The mean rank of all teachers on Scale 8 is 7. Of the eighteen teacher classifications, seventeen rank Scale 7 below 12, there are nine above, and one at 12.

The mean rank of all principals on Scale 9, Category III is 6. The mean rank of all teachers on Scale 9 is 6. Of the eighteen classifications, six are above 6, four are below, and eight are tied.

Remark

Principals ranked the three items dealing with students higher than did teachers on forty of a possible fifty-four occasions. Indications appear sufficient to accept the relationships as evidence of differential perception between principal and teachers.

Category IV - Curriculum

Scale 10 - Curriculum for students from the full range of academic ability.

Scale 11 - Capacity of curriculum to meet the full range of academic ability.

Scale 12 - Concern for the student in both academic and non-academic ability.

Data are presented in Figures 48, 49, and 50.

The mean rank of principals on Scale 10 is 16. The mean rank of teachers is 14. Of the eighteen teacher classifications, fourteen rank below the principals, one is above and three show no difference.

The mean rank of scale 14 is 18 (highest possible) for principals, and 15 for teachers. Of the eighteen classifications of teachers, seven-

Fig. 48. -MEAN RANK COMPARISON OF PRINCIPALS WITH SUB-CATEGORIES OF TEACHERS ON THIS SCHOOL'S CURRICULUM FOR STUDENTS FROM THE FULL RANGE OF ACADEMIC ABILITY

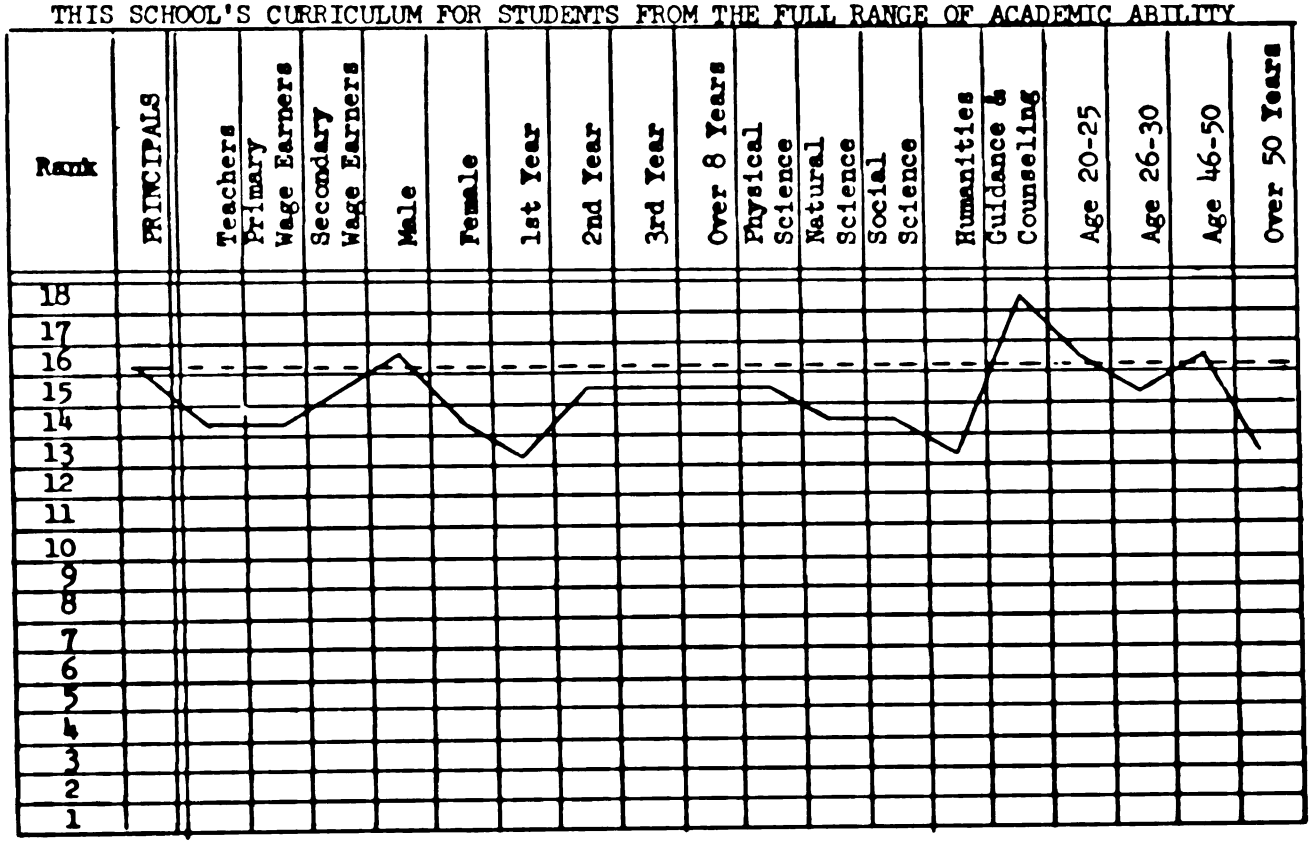


Fig. 49. - MEAN RANK COMPARISON OF PRINCIPALS WITH SUB-CATEGORIES OF TEACHERS ON CAPACITY OF THIS SCHOOL'S CURRICULUM TO MEET PRESENT AND FUTURE NEEDS OF STUDENTS

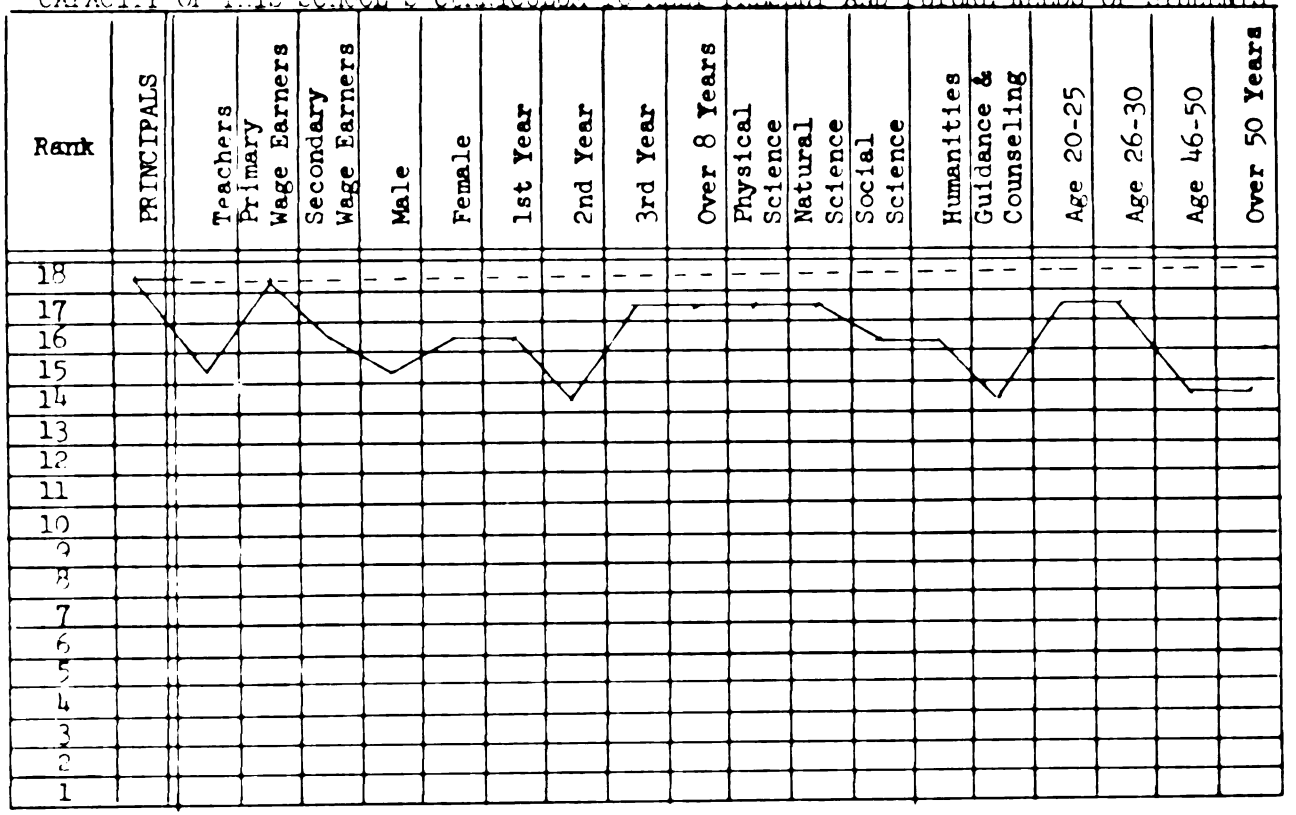


Fig. 30. - MEAN RANK COMPARISON OF PRINCIPALS WITH SUB-CATEGORIES OF TEACHERS ON THE SCHOOL'S CONCERN FOR THE STUDENT IN BOTH ACADEMIC AND NON-ACADEMIC AREAS

teen are below the principal's mean, there are nine above with no difference on one.

The mean rank of principals on Scale 12 is 17. The mean rank of teachers is also 17. Of the eighteen teacher classifications, eight are below principals, three are above, and seven show no difference.

Remark

Principals ranked items dealing with curriculum higher than did teachers on thirty-nine of a possible fifty-four occasions. Indications appear sufficient to accept the relationships as evidence of differential perception between principal and teachers.

Category V - Principal

Scale 13 - Ability of principal to deal with people.

Scale 14 - Number and quality of innovations by this school's principal.

Scale 15 - Principal's ability to see and meet present and future needs of district.

The data for this relationship are given in Figures 51, 52, and 53.

The mean rank of the principals on Scale 13 in Category V is 8. Of the eighteen classifications of teachers, five rank principals below eight, and ten rank them above eight on this scale, with no difference in three cases.

The mean rank of principals on Scale 14 in Category V is 5. Of the eighteen classifications of teachers, six rank principals below five, six rank them above five, and six are the same as principals at five.

Fig. 51. - MEAN RANK COMPARISON OF PRINCIPALS WITH SUB-CATEGORIES OF TEACHERS ON ABILITY OF THIS SCHOOL'S PRINCIPAL TO DEAL WITH PEOPLE

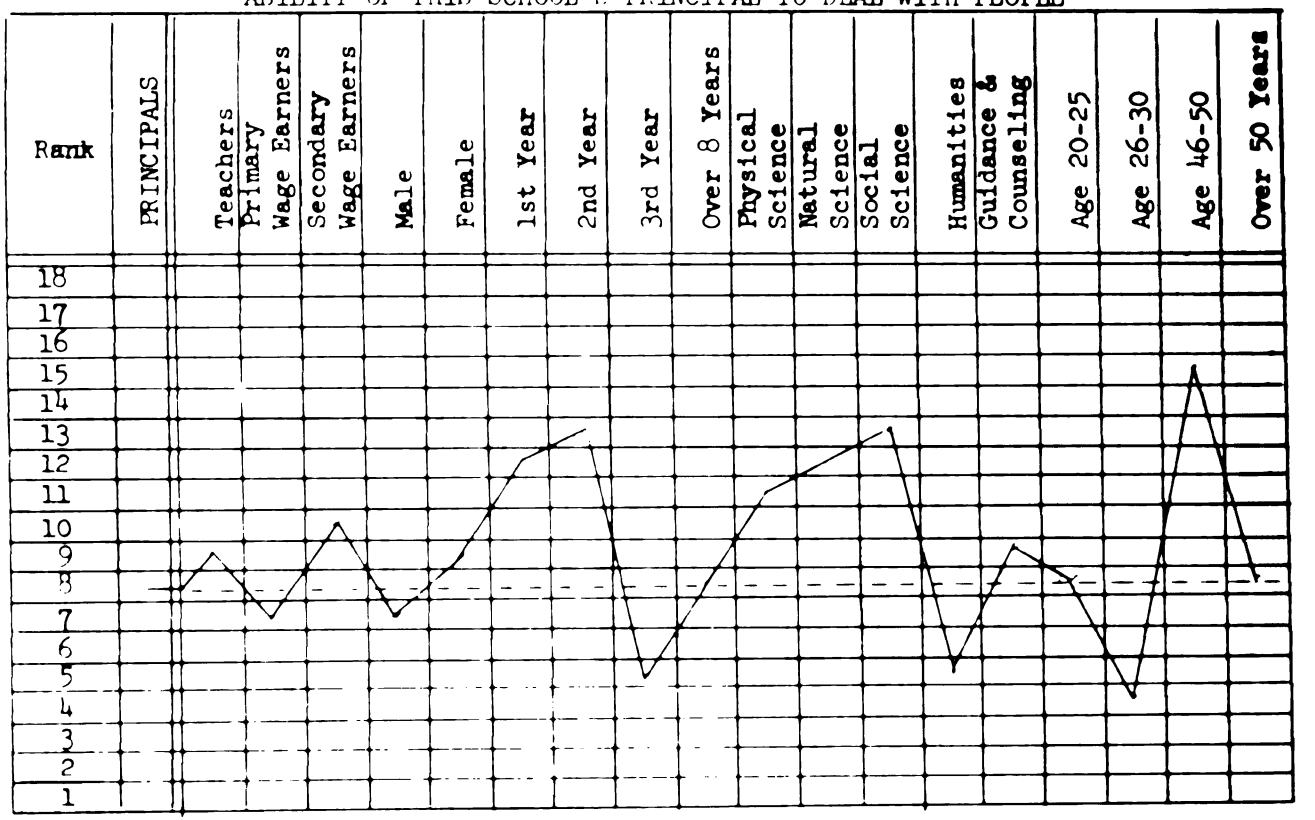


Fig. 52. - MEAN RANK COMPARISON OF PRINCIPALS WITH SUB-CATEGORIES OF TEACHERS ON NUMBER AND QUALITY OF INNOVATIONS BY THIS SCHOOL'S PRINCIPAL

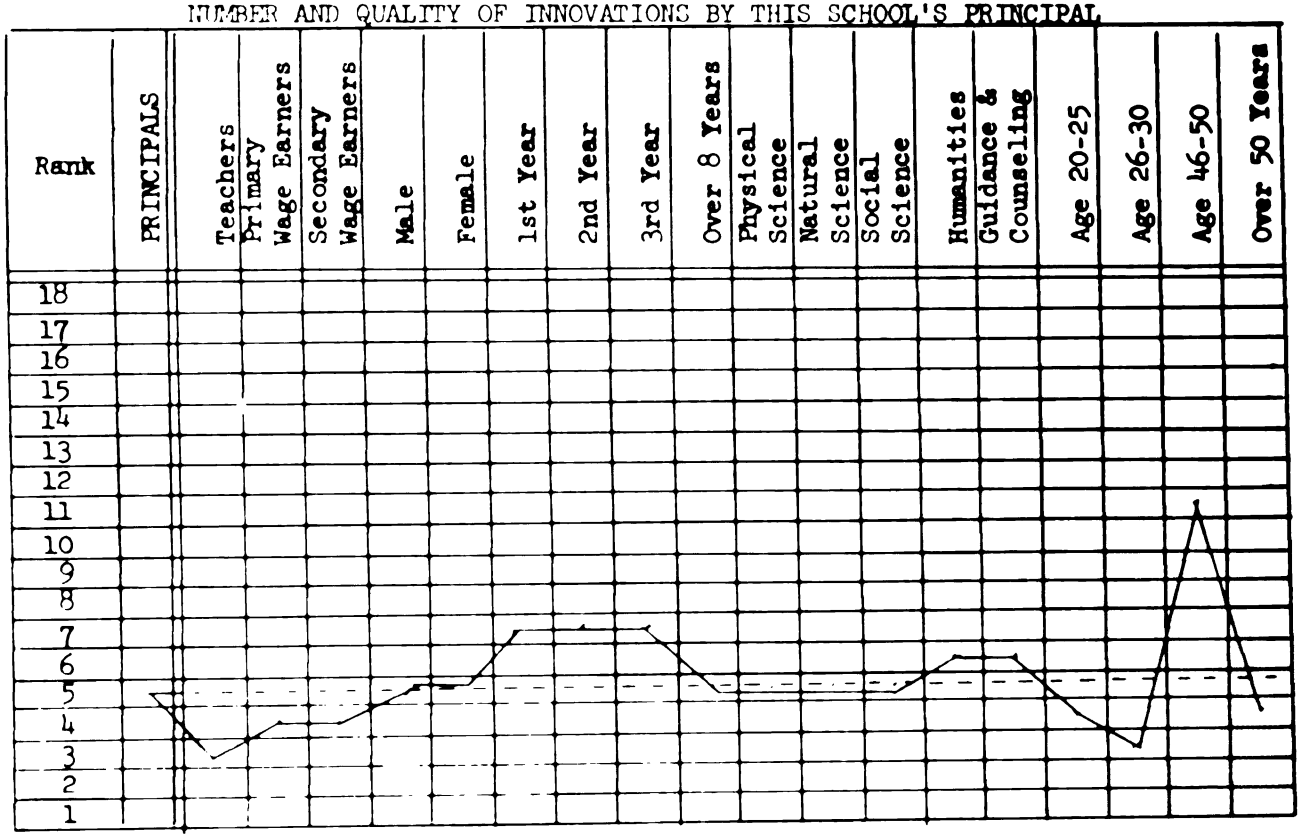
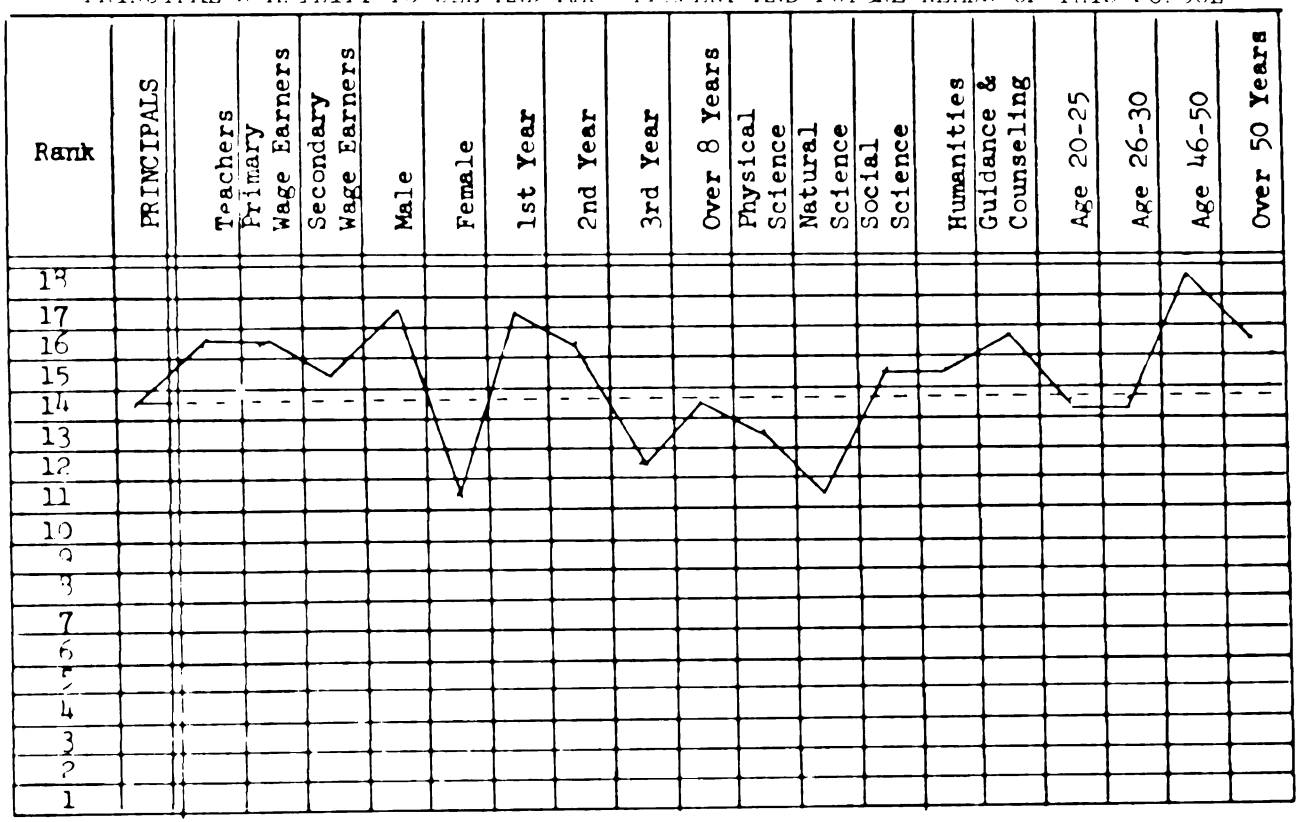


Fig. 53. - MEAN RANK COMPARISON OF PRINCIPALS WITH SUB-CATEGORIES OF TEACHERS ON PRINCIPAL'S ABILITY TO SEE AND MEET PRESENT AND FUTURE NEEDS OF THIS SCHOOL



The mean rank of principals on Scale 15 in Category V is 14. Of the eighteen classifications of teachers, four rank principals below fourteen, and three are the same as principals at fourteen.

Remark

Principals ranked those items dealing with principals lower than did teachers on twenty-seven of fifty-four occasions with no difference between the two groups in twelve instances. Indications appear sufficient to accept the relationships as evidence of differential perception between principal and teachers.

Female teachers' mean ranks of the three scales of Category V are 9, 5, and 17. Male teachers' mean ranks of the three scales of Category V are 7, 4, and 11.

Remark

Female teachers ranked the three scales dealing with the principal higher than did male teachers on three of three occasions. Indications appear to indicate a differential perception between male and female teachers on their views of the principal.

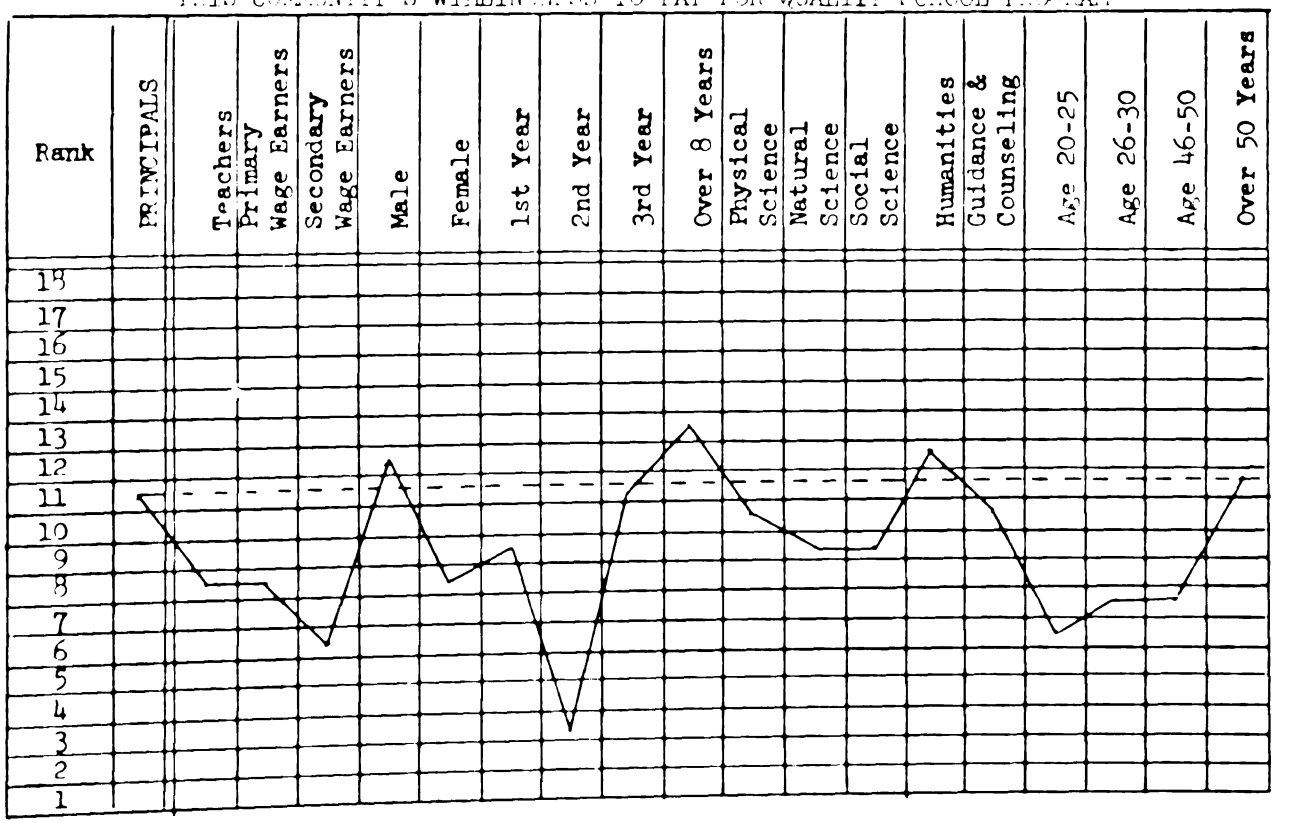
Category VI - Community - Parents - Building

Scale 16 - Community's willingness to pay for a quality school program.

Data are presented in Figure 54.

The mean score of principals on Scale 16, Category VI is 11. The mean score of teachers is 8. Of the eighteen classifications of teachers, three rank above 11, thirteen rank below 11, and two show no difference.

Fig. 54. - MEAN RANK COMPARISON OF PRINCIPALS WITH SUB-CATEGORIES OF TEACHERS ON THIS COMMUNITY'S WILLINGNESS TO PAY FOR QUALITY SCHOOL PROGRAM



Remark

Teachers ranked the community's willingness to pay for a quality school program below principals on thirteen of eighteen occasions. Indications appear sufficient to accept the relationships as evidence of differential perception between principal and teachers.

Scale 16, Category VI is ranked at 11 by principals; primary wage earners rank it at 8, and secondary wage earners at 6.

Remark

It appears that the primary wage earners perceive the community's willingness to pay for quality school programs more like principals than do secondary wage earners.

A rank order correlation of responses by all principals on all scales and all primary wage earners on all scales is .946.

A rank order correlation of responses by all principals on all scales and all secondary wage earners on all scales is .876.

Remark

There appears to be a tendency for primary wage earners to perceive the total educational enterprise in a manner more similar to that of principals than do secondary wage earners.

Teachers aged 46-50 and over 50 ranked principals higher on all three scales of the principal category than did teachers aged 20-25 and 26-30.

Remark

Older teachers appear to perceive their principals in a more positive fashion than do younger teachers.

Category VI - Community - Parents - Building

Scale 17 - Extent to which parents take an active interest in this school's program.

Data are presented in Figure 55.

The mean score of all principals on Scale 17, Category VI is 2. The mean score of all teachers is 4. Of the eighteen teacher classifications, fourteen rank above the principals, four show no difference, and there are nine below.

Remark

Teachers ranked the extent to which parents take an active interest in their schools higher than did principals on fourteen of eighteen occasions. Indications appear sufficient to accept the relationships as evidence of differential perception between principal and teachers.

Category VI - Community - Parents - Building

Scale 18 - Educational adequacy of this school's building or buildings.

Data are presented in Figure 56.

The mean score of all principals on Scale 18, Category VI is 7. The mean score of all teachers is 11. Of the eighteen teacher classifications, all eighteen rank Scale 18 above the principals.

Remark

Teachers ranked the educational adequacy of their school's building or buildings higher than did principals on eighteen of eighteen occasions. Indications appear sufficient to accept the relationships as evidence of differential perception between principal and teachers.

Fig. 55. - MEAN RANK COMPARISON OF PRINCIPALS WITH SUB-CATEGORIES OF TEACHERS ON EXTENT TO WHICH PARENTS TAKE AN ACTIVE INTEREST IN THIS SCHOOL'S PROGRAM

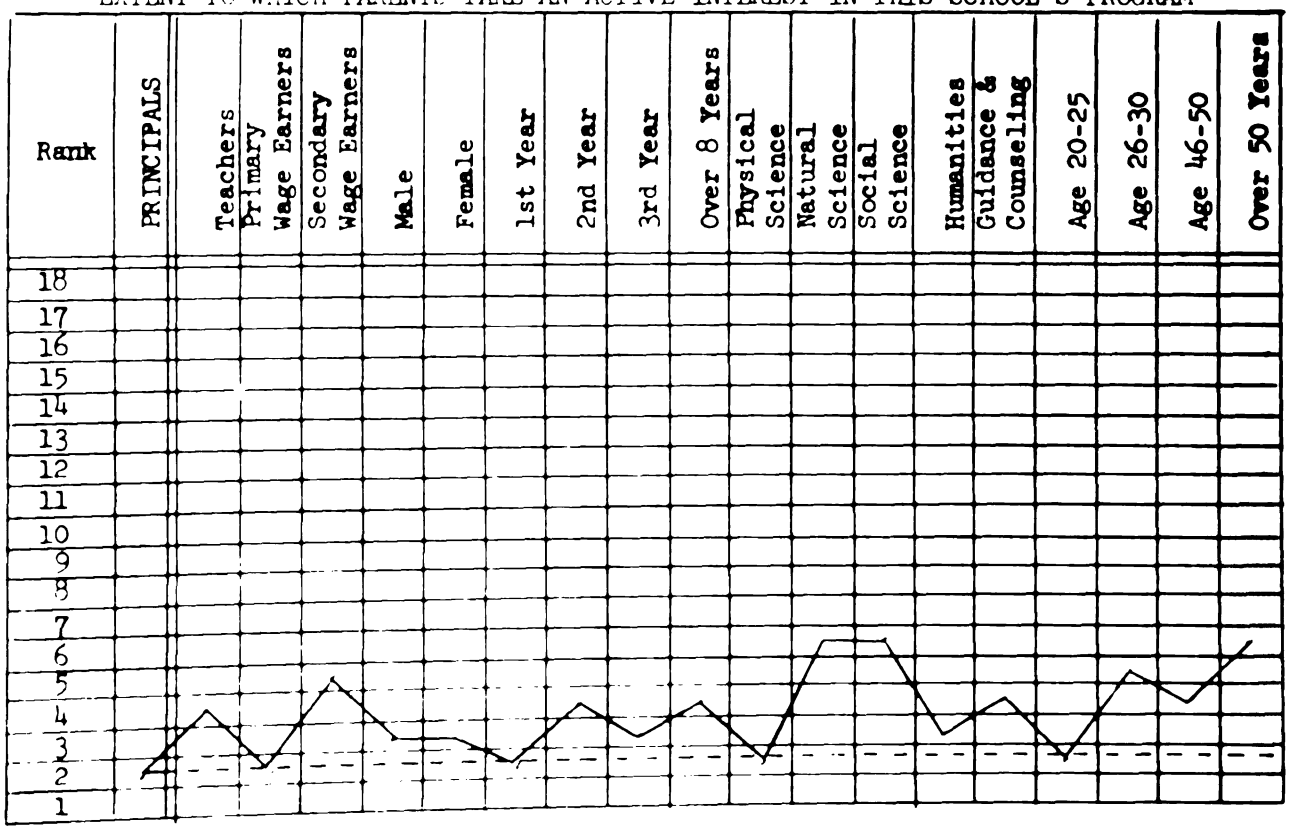


Fig. 56. - MEAN RANK COMPARISON OF PRINCIPALS WITH SUB-CATEGORIES OF TEACHERS ON THE EDUCATIONAL ADEQUACY OF THIS SCHOOL'S BUILDING OR BUILDINGS

Summary

The data presented in this chapter is supportive of findings concerning the general hypotheses in some instances, i.e., similarity of primary wage earners and principals. They appear to clarify them in some instances, i.e., detailing those sub-categories of teachers most like principals in their perceptions of some areas. But these data challenge the findings of the general hypotheses in most instances. Of the thirteen remarks made concerning perceptions of the educational enterprise, ten exhibit evidence to substantiate a differential perception between teachers and principals and three exhibit some degree of differential perception between sub-groups of teachers.

A discussion of these findings and their implication is presented in Chapter Six.

CHAPTER VI

Summary

The paucity of meaningful theory in the study of educational administration is due, in large measure, to the notion that administration in education is different from other forms of administration and must, therefore, develop and discover all new tools. Such an approach has rarely produced such instruments.

As J. W. Getzels laments,

> "To be sure, there are surveys--such things as the numeration of the length of tenure of superintendents on the educational level of school board members--but these are no more research into the nature of school administration than is the decennial census research into the nature of the American political system."[1]

The theories which seek to explain human behavior in other areas of interaction offer essential implications for the development of a general theory of behavior in education. It has been an explicit intention of this paper to present a synthesis of two; "Symbolic Interaction" from the disciplines of philosophy and social-psychology, and "Reference Group" from sociology and psychology.

The articulation of an under-riding synthesis of theory is important to this study for three reasons.

1. Without a framework of theory from which to draw assumptions and develop hypotheses, conclusions are, at best, valuable

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[1] J. W. Getzels, A Psycho-Sociological Framework for the Study of Educational Administration (Harvard Educational Review, Vol. 22, No. 4), p. 235.

only for post factum analysis.

2. Without a basic theoretical model, findings are bits of information in isolation.

3. There is too much emphasis placed upon the etiology of studies in administration and insufficient effort on the generic aspects of people administration. Whether teachers and principals, workers and management, parent and child, husband and wife, or whatever dyad of human organization, the universals of human interaction are common to all. If the study is based upon theory, the findings are of worth in all fields.

The application of this theoretical orientation has been directed toward the testing of two general hypotheses having to do with perceptions of the educational enterprise by a sample group of 20 high school principals and 118 teachers.

First General Hypothesis

High school principals and teachers have internalized symbols which proceed from different experiential backgrounds, including different reference groups and "significant others" and, therefore, perceive the same educational phenomena from different and dissimilar points of view.

Second General Hypothesis

A principal represents a "significant other" for teachers. As such he becomes a mediator of their perceptions toward another, more obscure, "significant other" in the person of the superintendent of schools. High school teachers who exhibit high positive perceptions

of their principals will tend to share that principal's perception of the superintendent of schools.

The approach has been to administer a research instrument which elicits responses by teachers and principals to eighteen items in six categories:

1. Faculty
2. Superintendent
3. Students
4. Curriculum
5. Principal
6. Community, parents and building

Each of the eighteen items were paired with every other forming a forced choice matrix of 154 dyads. The criterion of selection was "Select the one item in each set which most nearly meets your professional expectation."

Responses were recorded on a machine-testable answer sheet and all data were analyzed through use of an IBM 1620 computer. Rank order correlations were run between every possible combination of variables.

First General Hypothesis

The results of the study relative to the first general hypothesis are presented in Chapter Four and summarized here.

A rank order correlation between the perceptions of all principals and all teachers on all scales of the research instrument was .888. The strength of this correlation refutes the hypothesis that there is significant differential perception between principals and teachers when considering the total educational enterprise. Further, high rank order correlations between principals and eighteen sub-

classifications of teachers indicate that no significant difference exists between principals and teachers grouped by age, sex, academic discipline, years experience, or wage earning classifications.

In no area of comparison was the correlation below .7. These findings appear to be conclusive evidence for the repudiation of the hypothesis that teachers and principals are significantly different in their perceptions of the on-going operation of high schools.

The theoretical base for assuming differences of perception because of difference in symbolic interaction, reference groups, and "significant others" is not impaired. However, the similarity of experiential backgrounds among teachers and principals transcends any expectation assumed in this study.

It must be concluded that high school principals and teachers have internalized symbols which proceed from experiential backgrounds, including reference groups and "significant others", which are so alike that they perceive the same educational phenomena from nearly identical points of view.

Second General Hypothesis

The results of the study relative to the second general hypothesis are presented in Chapter Four and are summarized here.

When responses by teachers of individual schools were studied to determine the relationship between high perception of principal and agreement with principal perception of the superintendent, the following results were obtained.

Of the nine urban schools, representing three urban school districts, the combinations of highest perception of principal by teachers and lowest total difference between teachers and principals

on the three scales of Category II - Superintendent, occurred seven times. One tie appeared and there was one case where the highest principal ranking showed two ranks greater dissonance on the Superintendent Scales than did the school which ranked the principal second.

Mean difference between teachers and principal perceptions on the three scales dealing with the superintendent was 10.6 for the nine urban schools. A single urban school recorded a difference of 6.5 and two suburban schools had a mean difference of 4.5.

Among the eight rural schools, only one demonstrated the assumption of the second hypothesis. The other seven displayed a random pattern with extreme variation and a mean difference of 16.9.

It is concluded that teachers in large urban and suburban districts rely upon their principals' role as mediator and mitigator of perception toward the superintendent in a manner more observable and predictable than do rural school teachers. A discussion of these findings is presented in Part 2 of this chapter.

Supplemental Findings

Chapter Five contains presentation and analysis of data relevant to the study in ways both supportive and challenging to the general hypotheses.

Thirteen items of data were observed and produced the following results.

Evidence is given in tangential support and/or clarification of the findings concerning the First General Hypothesis in three instances.

1. Primary wage earners were most similar to principals in their total perceptions as measured by the research instrument.

2. Female teachers ranked principals higher than did male teachers on all three scales of the principal category.

3. Older teachers were more positive in their perception of the principal than were younger teachers.

There are ten examples in which the findings show evidence of differential perception between teachers and principals.

1. Teachers ranked those scales dealing with faculty competency and innovation higher than did principals on thirty-two of thirty-six occasions.

2. Principals ranked faculty job satisfaction higher than did teachers on ten of eighteen occasions.

3. Principals ranked those scales relating to the superintendent lower than did teachers twenty-four of fifty-four occasions with no difference twenty times.

4. Principals ranked scales dealing with students higher than did teachers forty out of fifty-four times.

5. Principals ranked scales dealing with curriculum higher than did teachers in thirty-nine of fifty-four cases.

6. Principals ranked those items concerning the principal lower than did teachers in twenty-seven of fifty-four cases with no difference twelve times.

7. Principals ranked the community's willingness to pay for quality school programs higher than did teachers on thirteen of eighteen occasions.

8. Teachers ranked the extent to which parents take an active interest in their school's program higher than did principals on fourteen of eighteen occasions.

9. Teachers ranked the educational adequacy of their school's building or buildings higher than did principals on eighteen of eighteen instances.

10. Primary wage earners tended to rank the community support scale more similar to principals' perception than did secondary wage earners.

The preceding findings precipitate the conclusion that although there is no significant difference in the perception held by teachers and principals toward the total school functions, there are some

observable differences in selected areas of perception.

Discussion

In this section attention will be paid to those findings representing the most significant defense or refutation of the assumptions put forth in this study.

1. First General Hypothesis

An analysis of data related to the relationship of teachers--as a whole or in sub-groupings--exposed this hypothesis as invalid.

It is consonant with the theoretical basis for the hypothesis that teachers and principals would experience similar backgrounds with all the implications of sameness in reference groups, generalized others, "significant others", and internalizations of symbols. Principals most often become principals by first being teachers. It was an implicit assumption that the role differences between principals and teachers would result in a mitigation of former orientations on the part of the principals. Such an assumption was unwarranted.

The conclusion that teachers and principals--as groups--are very similar in their perceptions of the school setting and educational enterprise might be applauded as a factor providing for relatively effective communication and shared expectations, implicit as well as explicit.

An investigation of particulars shows a trend toward increased consonance with principal perceptions from the first year on, and the propensity toward congruity exhibited by primary wage earners gives increased indication of a uniformity of perceptions. Whether such unanimity is a function of mutual agreement on what

is, or represents a capitulation to the comforts of agreement is possibly an empirical question and certainly worth pursuit.

Even though teachers and principals were much alike in their assessment of the educational operation they did exhibit different priorities in their perception of these categories most nearly meeting professional expectations.

TABLE 12

RANK ORDER OF PROFESSIONAL EXPECTATION FULFILLMENT BY CATEGORY AS PERCEIVED BY PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS

Relative Ranking by Category	
PRINCIPAL	TEACHER
Curriculum	Curriculum
Faculty	Faculty
Principal	Principal
Students	Community
Community	Superintendent
Superintendent	Students

It is a matter of note that principals perceive the category dealing with the superintendent as farthest from meeting their professional expectations. (See Table 12)

It is also noteworthy to observe that teachers consider those scales dealing with students as farthest from meeting their professional expectations. (See Table 12)

Table 13 presents rank order selections of all scales by teachers and principals. A rank of 1 designates that scale which most nearly met the professional expectation of the respondent with descending order of expectation fulfillment down to number 18.

TABLE 13

RANK ORDER OF PROFESSIONAL EXPECTATION FULFILLMENT BY SCALES AS PERCEIVED BY PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS

Rank	Scale	PRINCIPALS	Rank	Scale	TEACHERS
1	10	Curriculum Complete	1	1	Faculty Competency
2	12	Academic and Non-Academic	2	12	Academic and Non-Academic
3	11	Ability Range	3	15	Principal Need Ability
4	1	Faculty Competence	4	11	Ability Range
5	15	Principal Need Ability	5	10	Curriculum Complete
6	6	Superintendent Need Ability	6	6	Superintendent Need Ability
7	8	Student Motivation	7	2	Faculty Innovation
8	16	Community Support	8	18	Building Adequacy
9	3	Faculty Job Satisfaction	9	3	Faculty Job Satisfaction
10	2	Faculty Innovation	10	13	Principal People Ability
11	13	Principal People Ability	11	16	Community Support
12	18	Building Adequacy	12	8	Student Motivation
13	9	Student Satisfaction	13	9	Student Satisfaction
14	14	Principal Innovation	14	4	Superintendent People Ability
15	7	Student Independency	15	17	Parent Interest
16	4	Superintendent People Ability	16	14	Principal Innovation
17	7	Parent Interest	17	5	Superintendent Innovation
18	5	Superintendent Innovation	18	7	Student Independency

With the emphasis upon educational innovation already strong and increasing, it is interesting to observe that principals consider faculty innovation as ranking tenth, principal innovation ranking fourteenth, and superintendent innovation, the lowest possible at eighteenth.

Teachers see themselves somewhat more innovative than do principals at a ranking of seventh, but place principal innovation sixteenth, and superintendent innovation at seventeenth.

Remark

> Neither principals nor teachers perceive themselves, each other, or the superintendent as approximating their professional expectations in the area of innovation.

Teachers place the three scales concerned with students at rankings of twelfth, thirteenth, and eighteenth. Of the lowest seven scales, teachers place students in three, the superintendent in two, and principal and parents each in one.

Remark

> It appears that teachers perceive students as falling farther short of their professional expectations than any other aspect of the educational enterprise measured in this study.

Principals place scales dealing with curriculum items as first, second, and third on the table of ranks.

Teachers place curriculum items in second, fourth, and fifth positions. Only their perceptions of their own ability and that of the principal are higher.

Remark

> Principals and teachers concur that the area most nearly meeting their professional expectations is that of curriculum.

The placement of scale items is informative in most instances. It is alarming in a few.

That teachers would place curriculum, faculty, and principal competence at the top of the scale, and students at the bottom appears symptomatic of a possible reason education does not meet the needs of students as well as it should. An incongruous condition is developed. Educational philosophy and practitioners speak of student independence as a goal of education. They perceive themselves as competent and yet their goal is as far from realization as this scale can measure.

Principals and teachers see the ability of the principal and superintendent to meet the needs of the school and district in the upper third of each scale. Teachers see the ability of the principal to innovate as ranking fifteenth and the superintendent at sixteenth. The principals see themselves as being innovative in the fourteenth position of a possible eighteen, and eighteenth is where they put the superintendent's ability to innovate.

The conclusion that teachers and principals believe administrators can meet the needs of education in a very positive way and yet be extremely low in innovation seems defensible from the data. This finding raises a serious question as to the overt and covert assumptions of educators.

Conclusion - First General Hypothesis

The first general hypothesis is refuted when the total educational picture is considered. Teachers and principals do perceive the educational enterprise in very much the same way.

When specific areas of perception are considered, there is evidence that there are important instances where teachers and principals see the same things differently from each other or differently

from what is purported to be the case.

2. Second General Hypothesis

An analysis of the data concerning this hypothesis shows evidence that the principal is an important person in determining or representing teachers' perception of the superintendent in urban settings.

The key variable in how significant the principal is in this regard is the perceptions his teachers have of his or her ability to meet the needs of the school. This appears to be a far more important variable than principals' innovations or ability to deal with people, at least in this one context.

An interesting conclusion, although not entirely unsuspected, is the failure of the rural school principal to influence teacher perceptions of the superintendent.

At least two conditions may contribute to this finding.

a. Many of the superintendents of rural districts are housed in the same building as the high school principal and are seen by high school faculty almost as often as they see their own principal. In this setting there is no need for the principal to mediate, nor can he effectively mitigate, their perception of a remote "significant other."

b. In a rural setting the population is sparse, and the normal social interaction of the community makes it impossible for the superintendent to maintain the anonymity possible--perhaps inescapable--for an urban area superintendent.

Conclusion - Second General Hypothesis

The fact that there is such a divergence of perception toward the rural superintendent and such a predictably valid relationship of perception in the urban setting would seem to add credence to the second general hypothesis.

Implications for Future Research

This study represents a small step. The implications for future research are not from the length of that step, but the direction it has taken.

I. The analysis of school systems from the approach of perception measurement has implications in at least the following areas.

A. The research instrument used in this study appears to have produced data in a usable, valid form. This particular instrument could be replicated or modified to measure conditions in other settings.

B. The approach of perception measurement lends itself to pre-test, post-test conditions and the same instrument is appropriate for all segments of the educational environment.

C. The measurement of perception by specific scale items provides grounds for specific program determination, development, and evaluation.

II. Specific ways and areas in which information or techniques of this study might be used:

A. In the further synthesis of a theoretical base from which to study differential perception.

B. In the replication of this study in elementary and junior high school settings.

C. In the conduct of a longitudinal study of principals' perception, before and after they become administrators.

D. In the measurement of perception held by students and their parents as well as teachers and principals.

E. In the measurement of perception by each echelon of a particular school system, i.e., superintendent, central office administrators, principals, teachers, and students.

Recommendations for Future Research

In the present state of the art in education no single piece of research can be expected to redirect the course of this branch of the social sciences. What can be predicted with certainty is that unless there is a union of theory and educational research whenever possible, those single pieces of research will have a less important influence and even that will be transitory.

The format of this thesis resulted in the generation of more data than could be prudently considered. A strong recommendation for any future research contemplating this attack would be to limit the parameters and go into greater depth and more extensive analysis of the data which are produced.

APPENDIX A

Illustrations Relevant to

First and Second General Hypotheses

Fig. 2. - MEAN RANKS OF ALL PRINCIPALS COMPARED WITH PRIMARY WAGE EARNER TEACHERS ON ALL SCALES

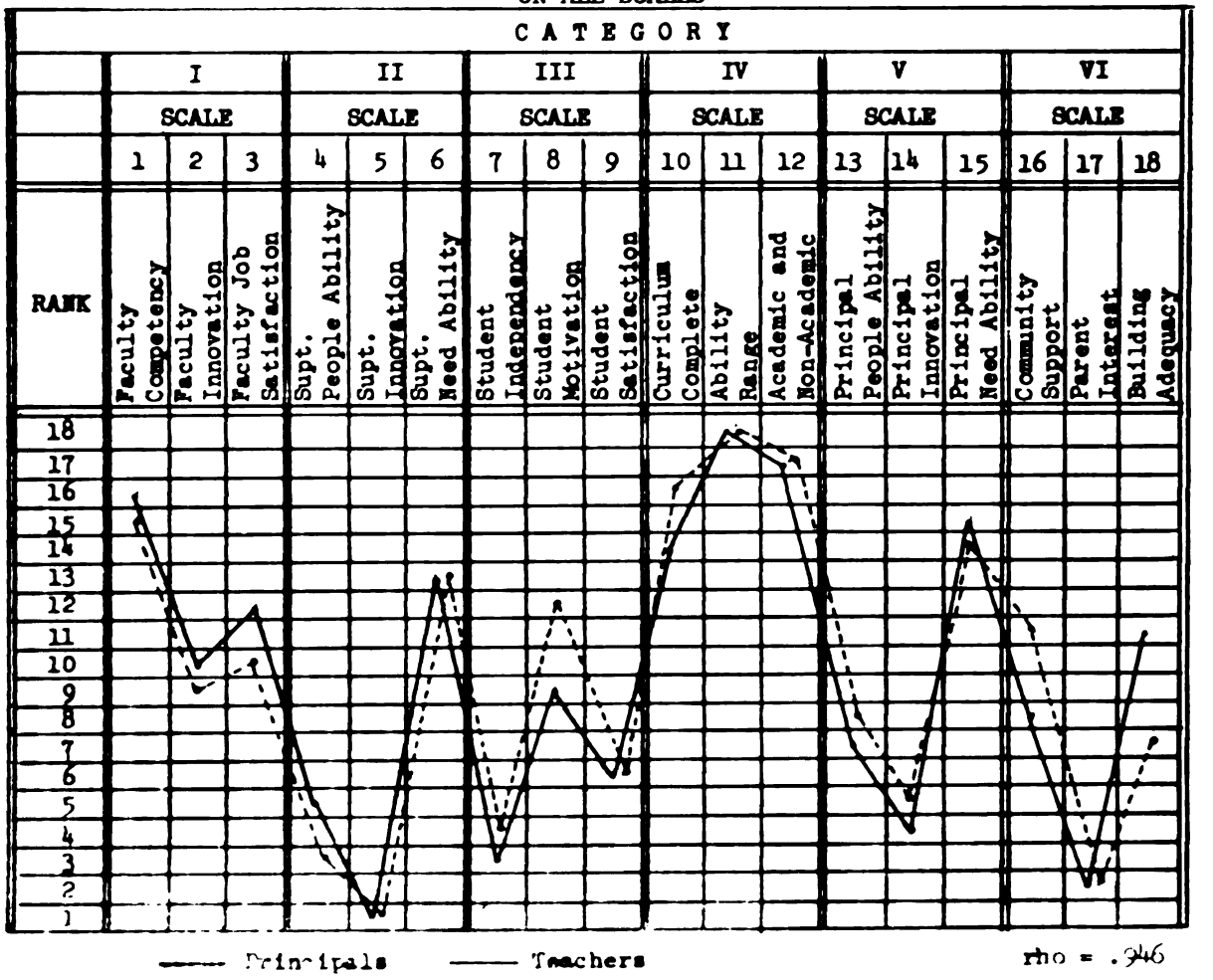


Fig. 3. - MEAN RANKS OF ALL PRINCIPALS COMPARED WITH SECONDARY WAGE EARNER TEACHERS ON ALL SCALES

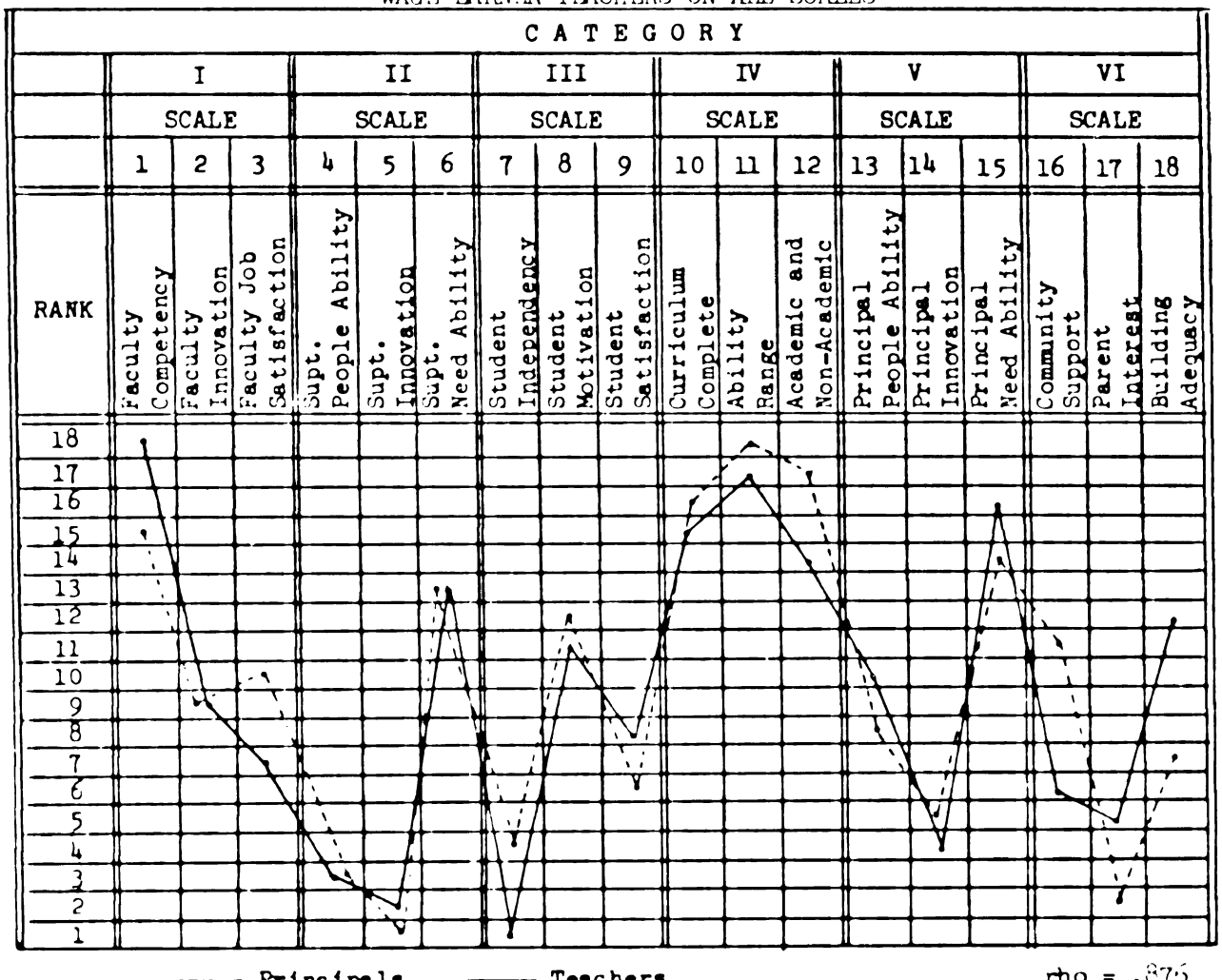


Fig. 4. - MEAN RANKS OF ALL PRINCIPALS COMPARED WITH MALE TEACHERS ON ALL SCALES

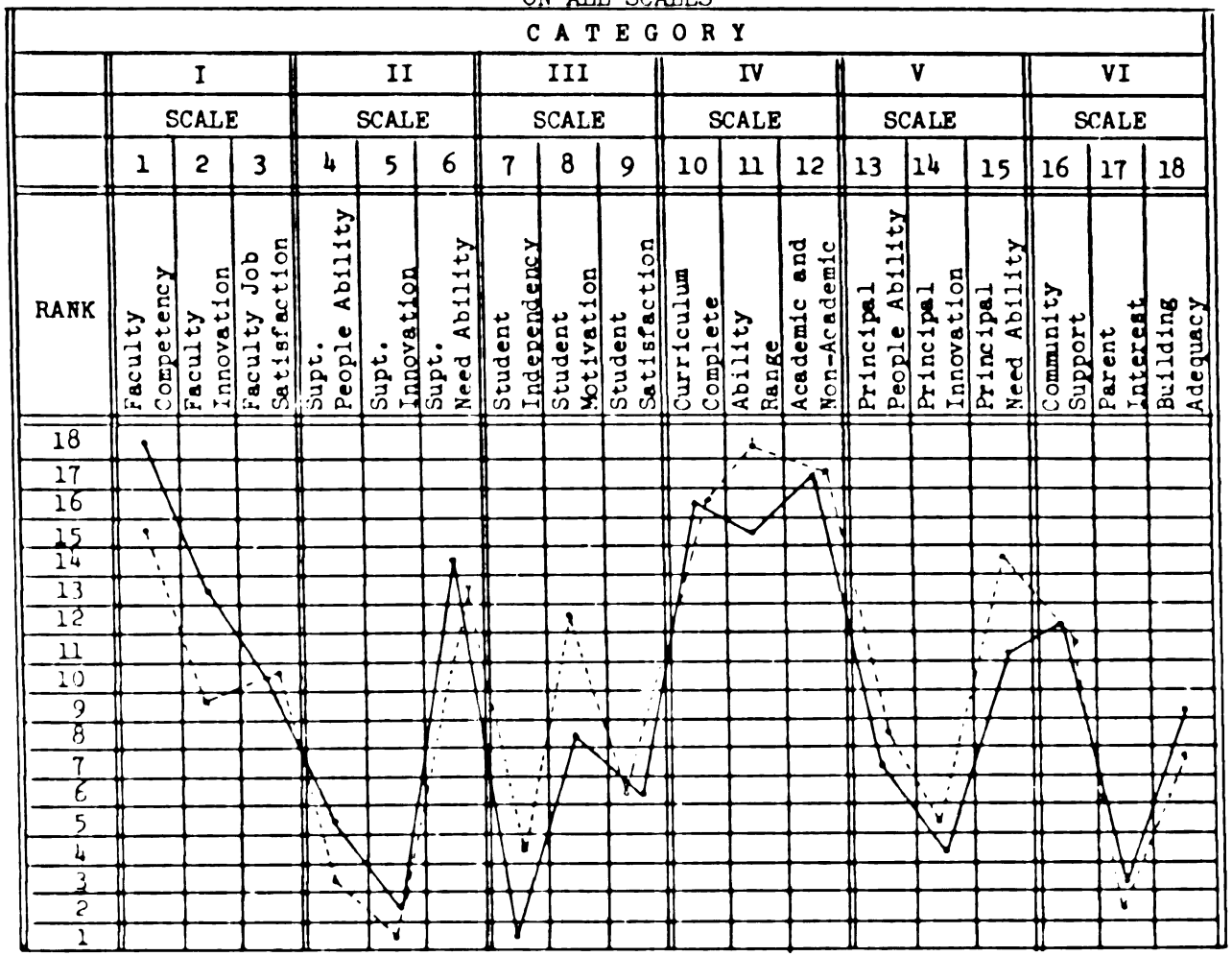


Fig. 5. - MEAN RANKS OF ALL PRINCIPALS COMPARED WITH FEMALE TEACHERS ON ALL SCALES

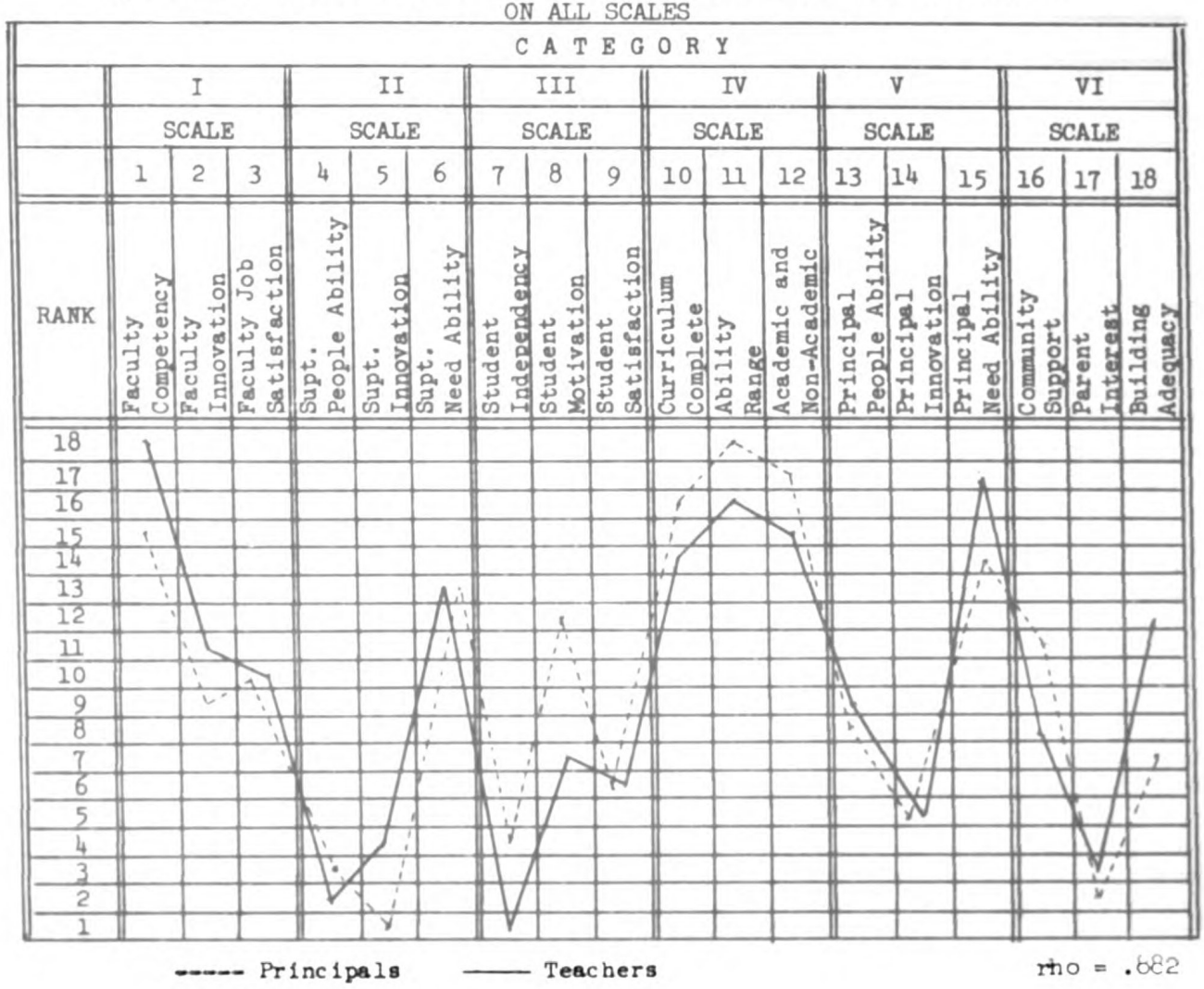


Fig. 6. - MEAN RANKS OF ALL PRINCIPALS COMPARED WITH FIRST YEAR TEACHERS ON ALL SCALES

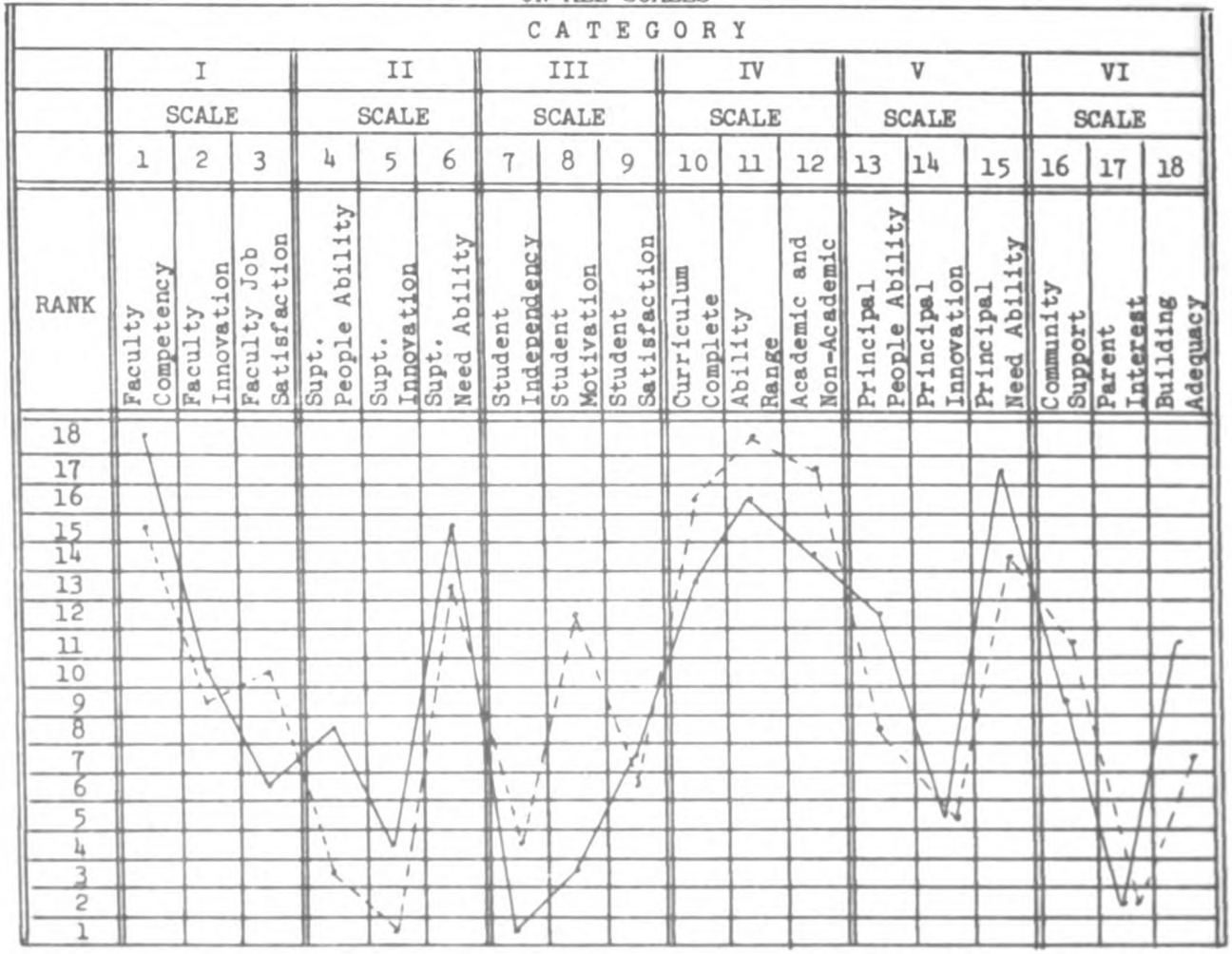


Fig. 7. - MEAN RANKS OF ALL PRINCIPALS COMPARED WITH SECOND YEAR TEACHERS ON ALL SCALES

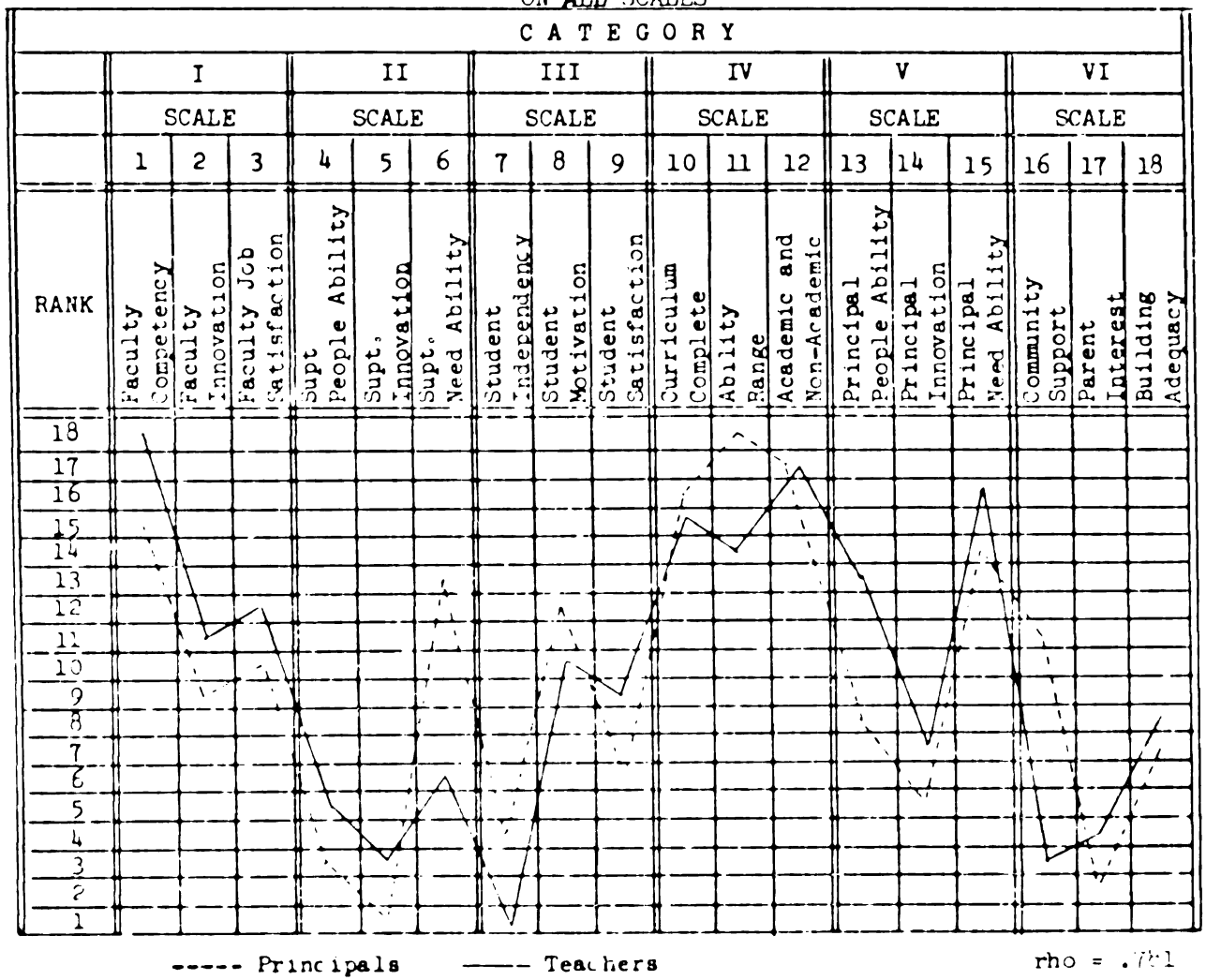


Fig. 8. - MEAN RANKS OF ALL PRINCIPALS COMPARED WITH THIRD YEAR TEACHERS ON ALL SCALES

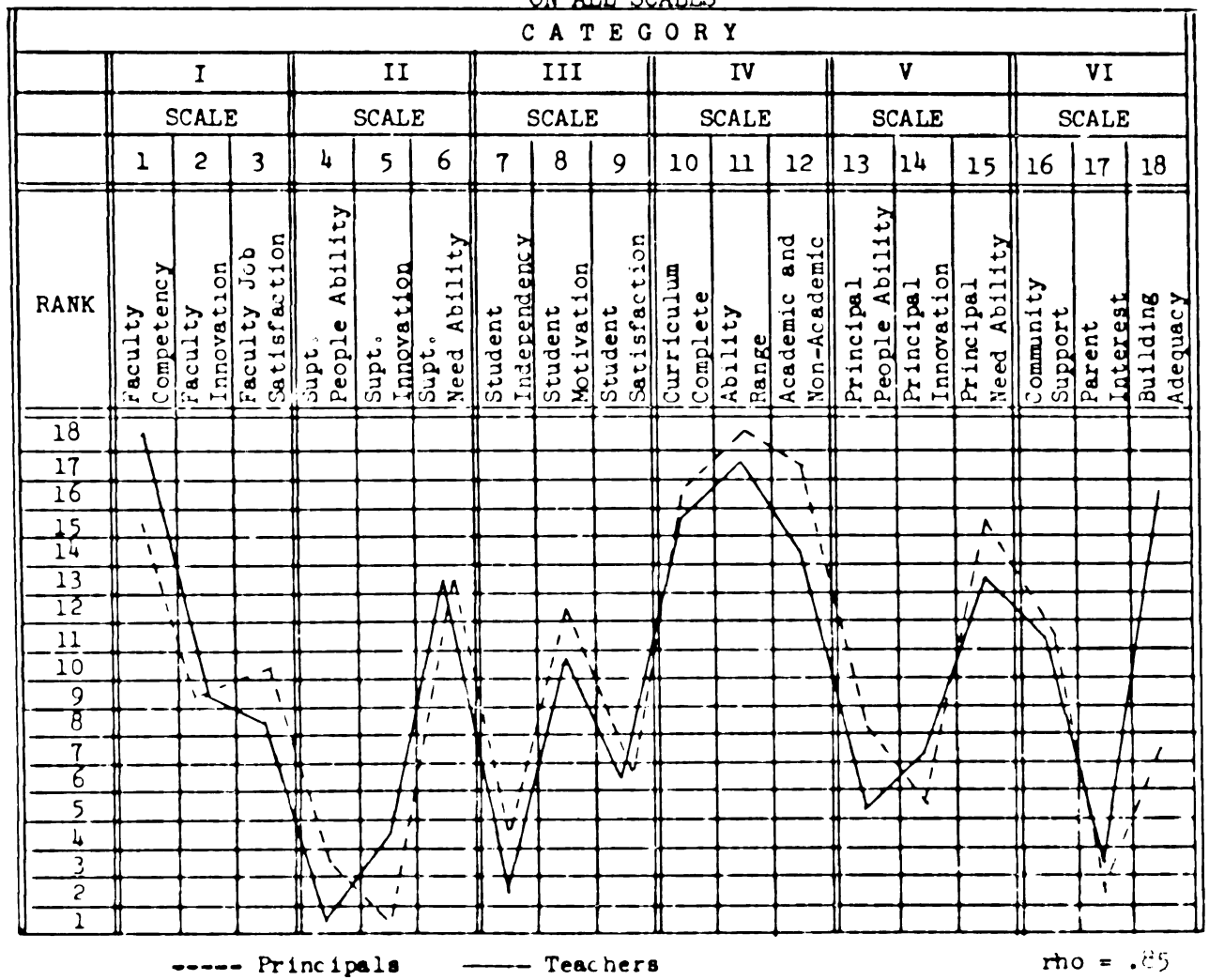


Fig. 9. - MEAN RANKS OF ALL PRINCIPALS COMPARED WITH TEACHERS WITH OVER EIGHT YEARS ON ALL SCALES

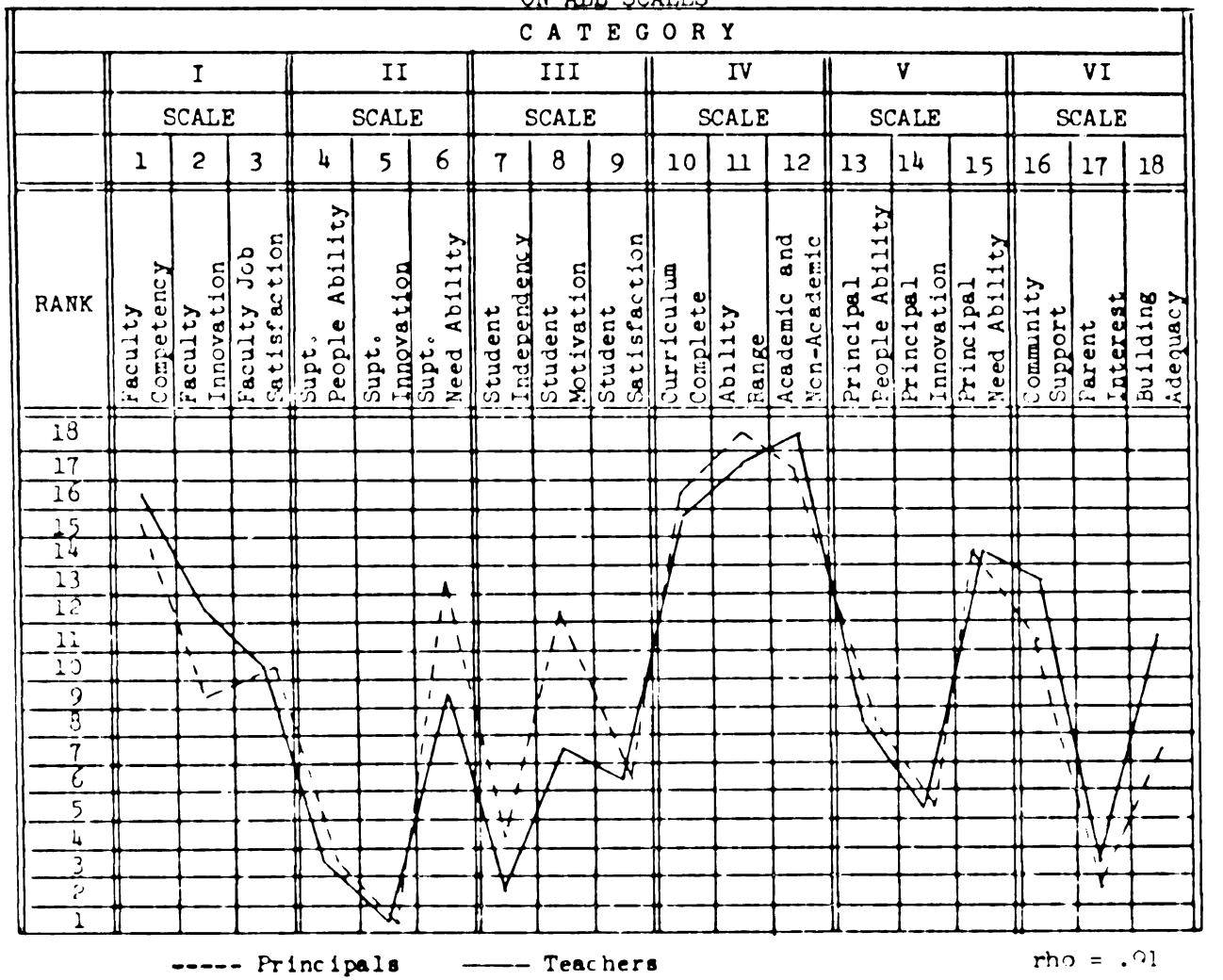
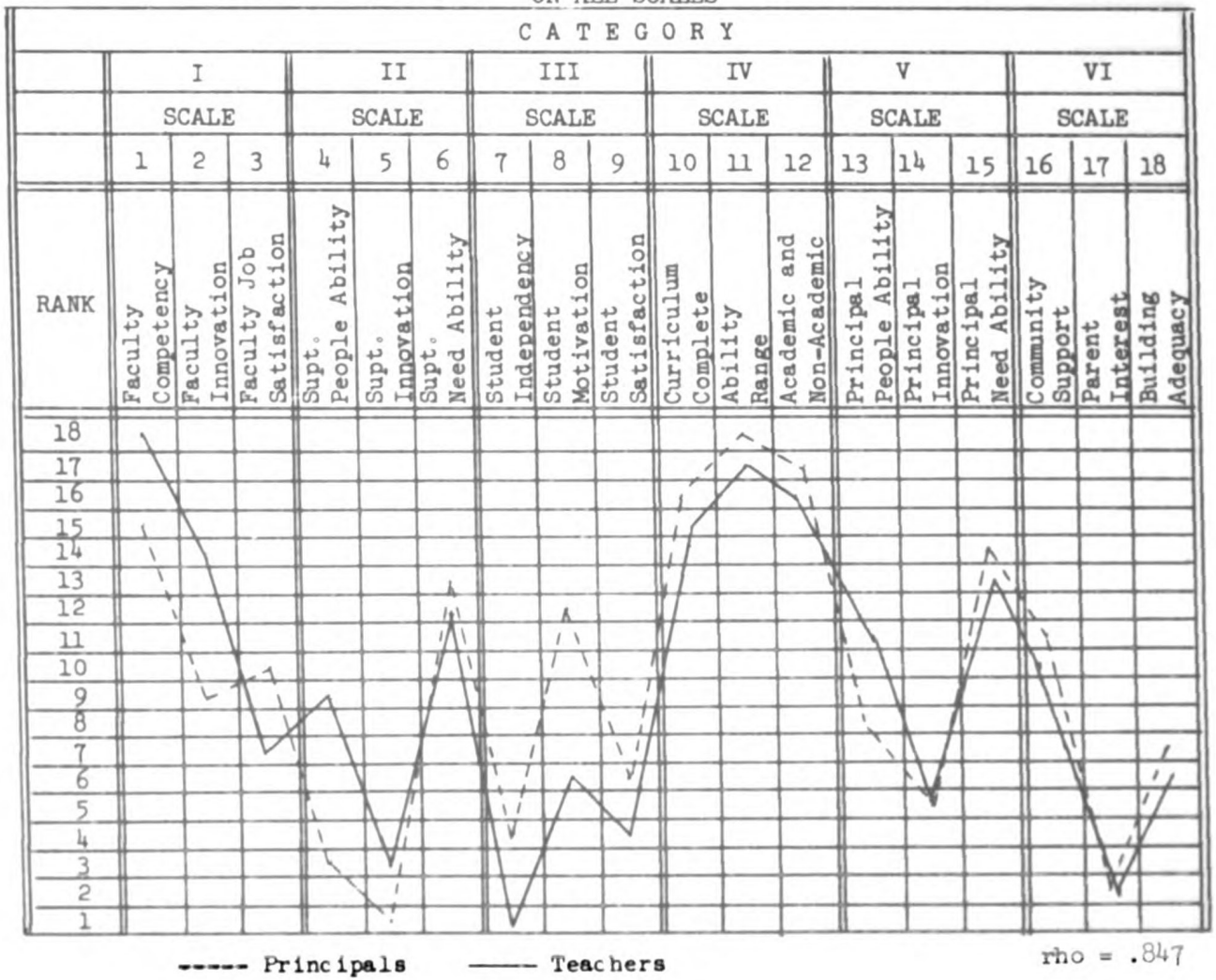


Fig. 10. - MEAN RANKS OF ALL PRINCIPALS COMPARED WITH PHYSICAL SCIENCE TEACHERS ON ALL SCALES



rho = .847

Fig. 11. - MEAN RANKS OF ALL PRINCIPALS COMPARED WITH NATURAL SCIENCE TEACHERS ON ALL SCALES

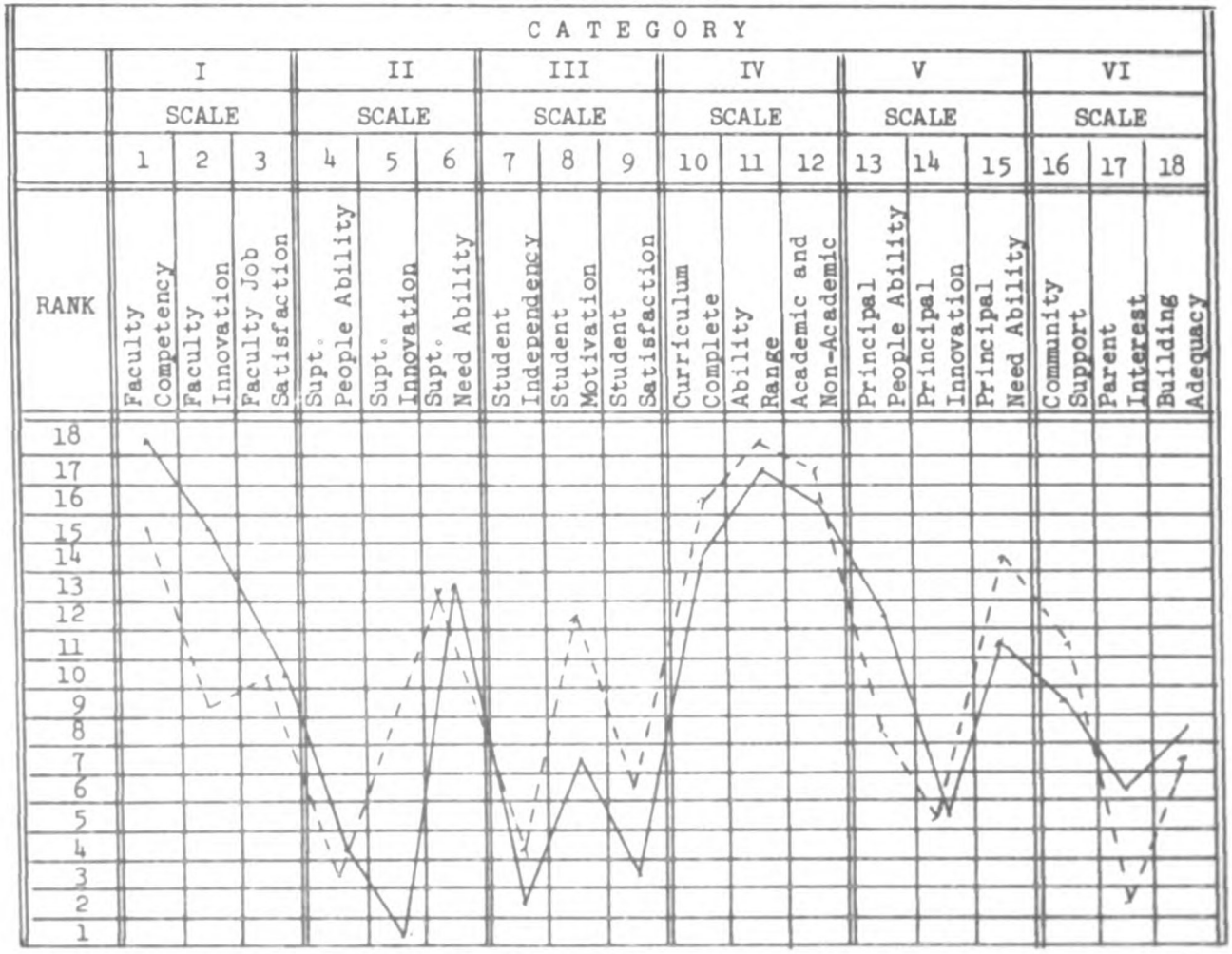


Fig. 12. - MEAN RANKS OF ALL PRINCIPALS COMPARED WITH SOCIAL SCIENCE TEACHERS ON ALL SCALES

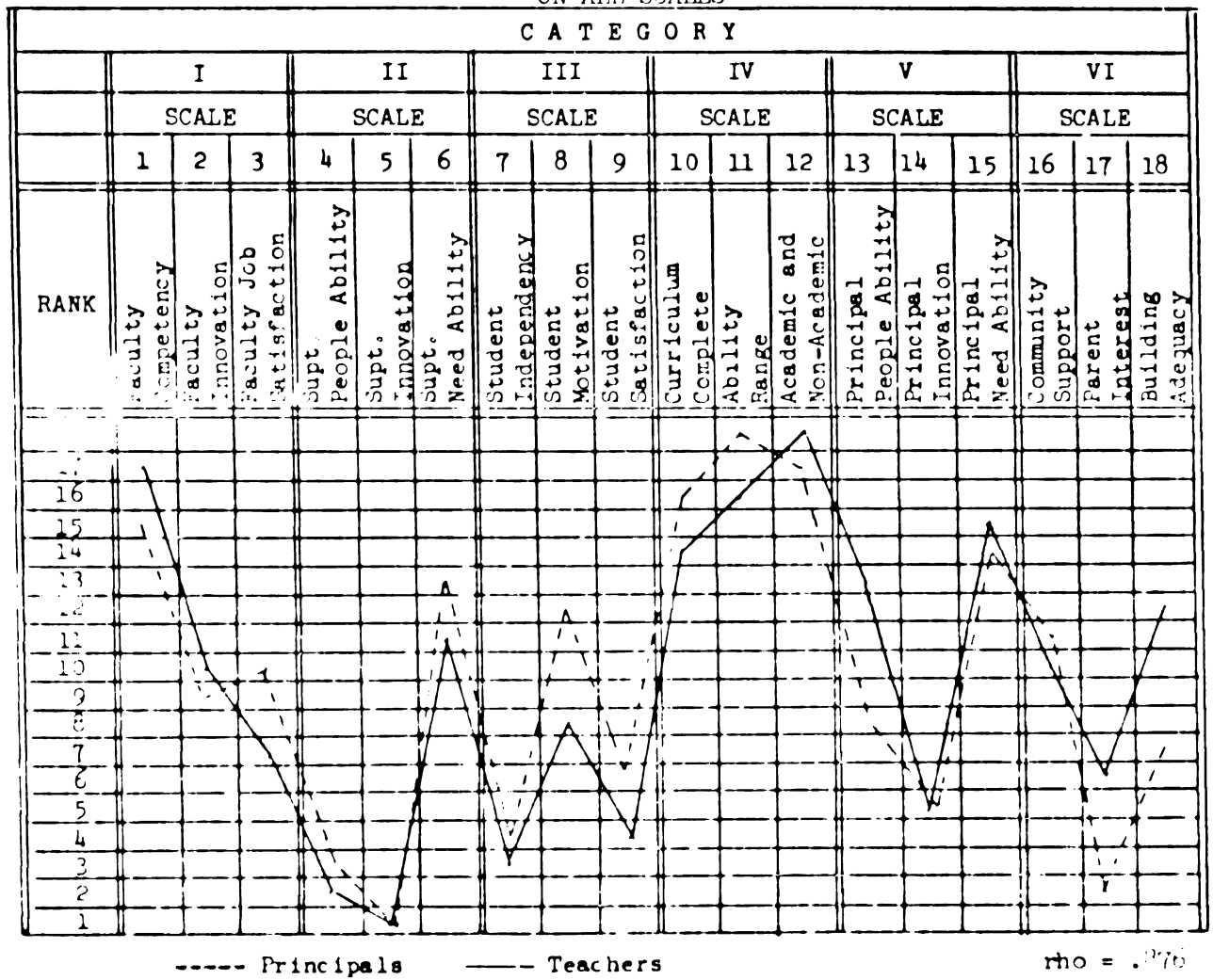


Fig. 13. - MEAN RANKS OF ALL PRINCIPALS COMPARED WITH HUMANITIES TEACHERS ON ALL SCALES

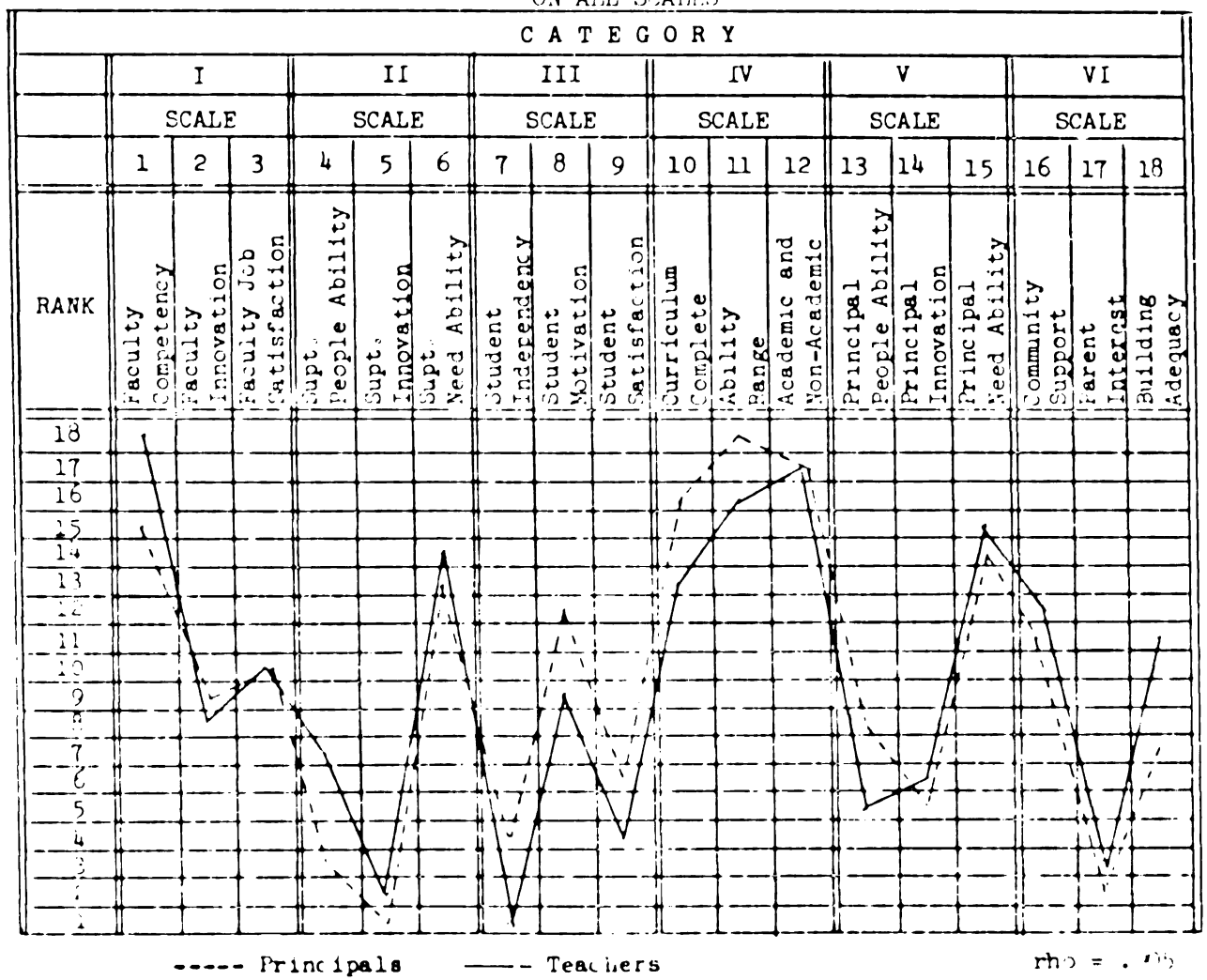


Fig. 14. - MEAN RANKS OF ALL PRINCIPALS COMPARED WITH GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING TEACHERS ON ALL SCALES

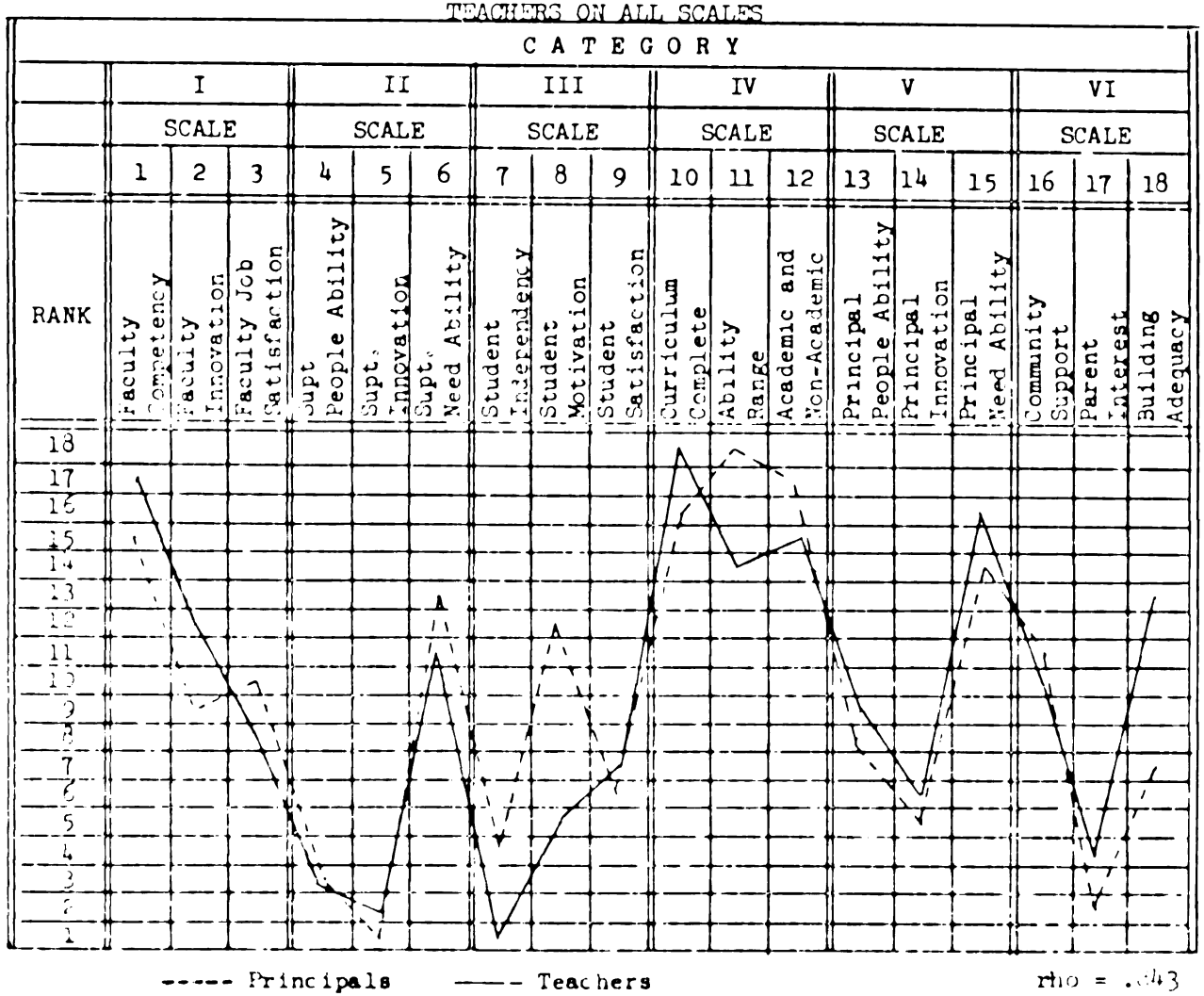


Fig. 15. - MEAN RANKS OF ALL PRINCIPALS COMPARED WITH TEACHERS AGE 46-50 ON ALL SCALES

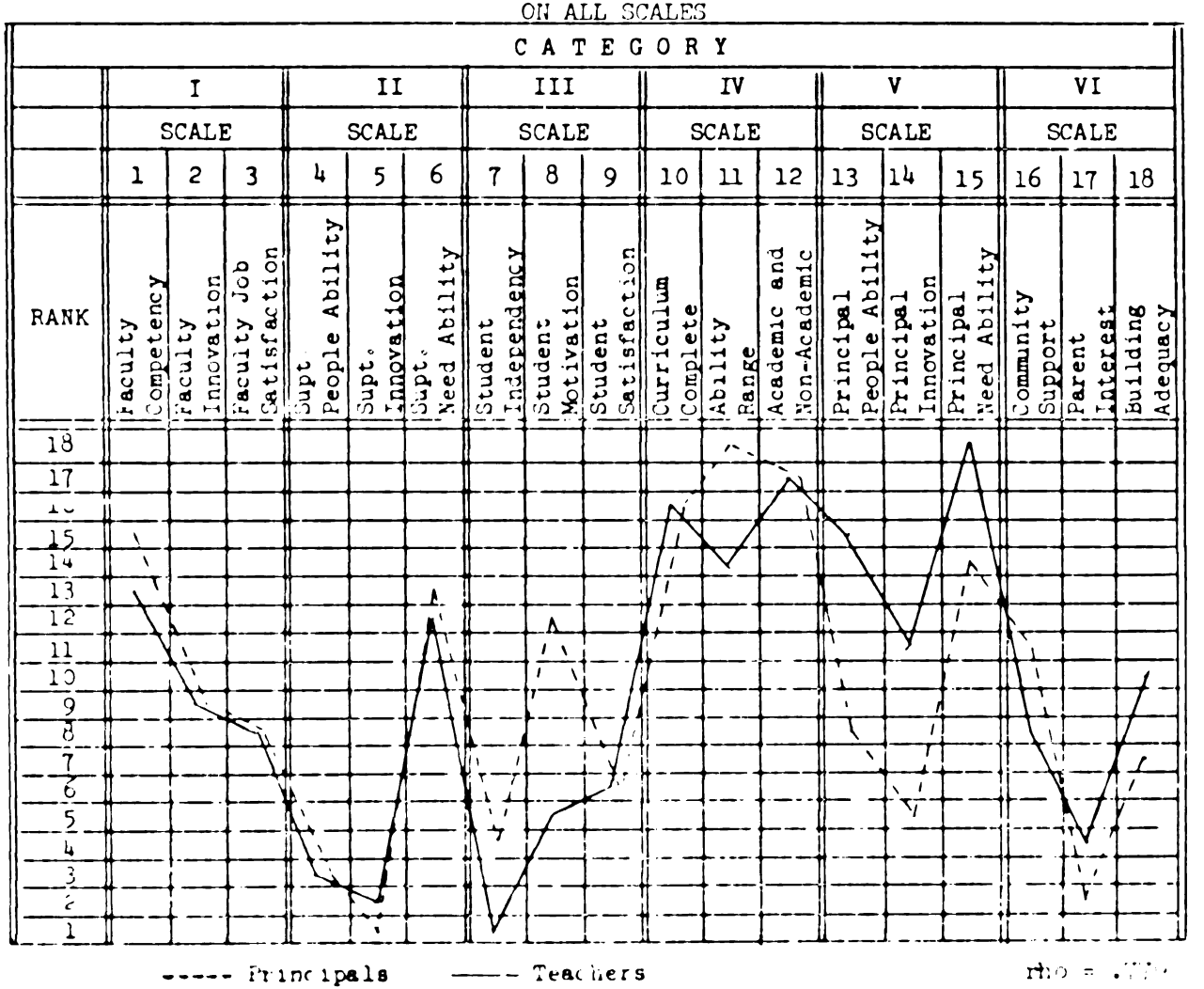


Fig. 16. - MEAN RANKS OF ALL PRINCIPALS COMPARED WITH TEACHERS AGE 26-30 ON ALL SCALES

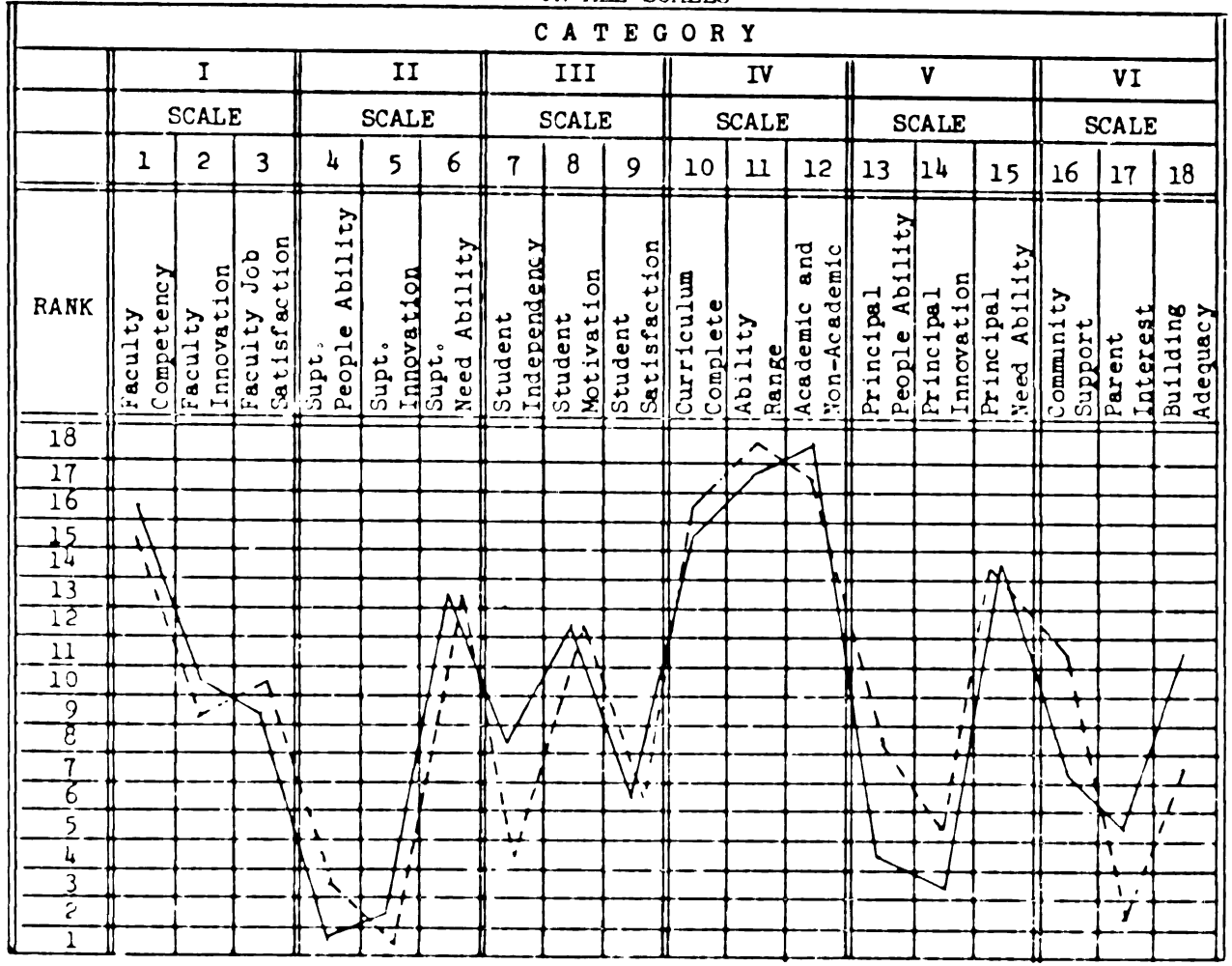


Fig. 17. - MEAN RANKS OF ALL PRINCIPALS COMPARED WITH TEACHERS AGE 20-25 ON ALL SCALES

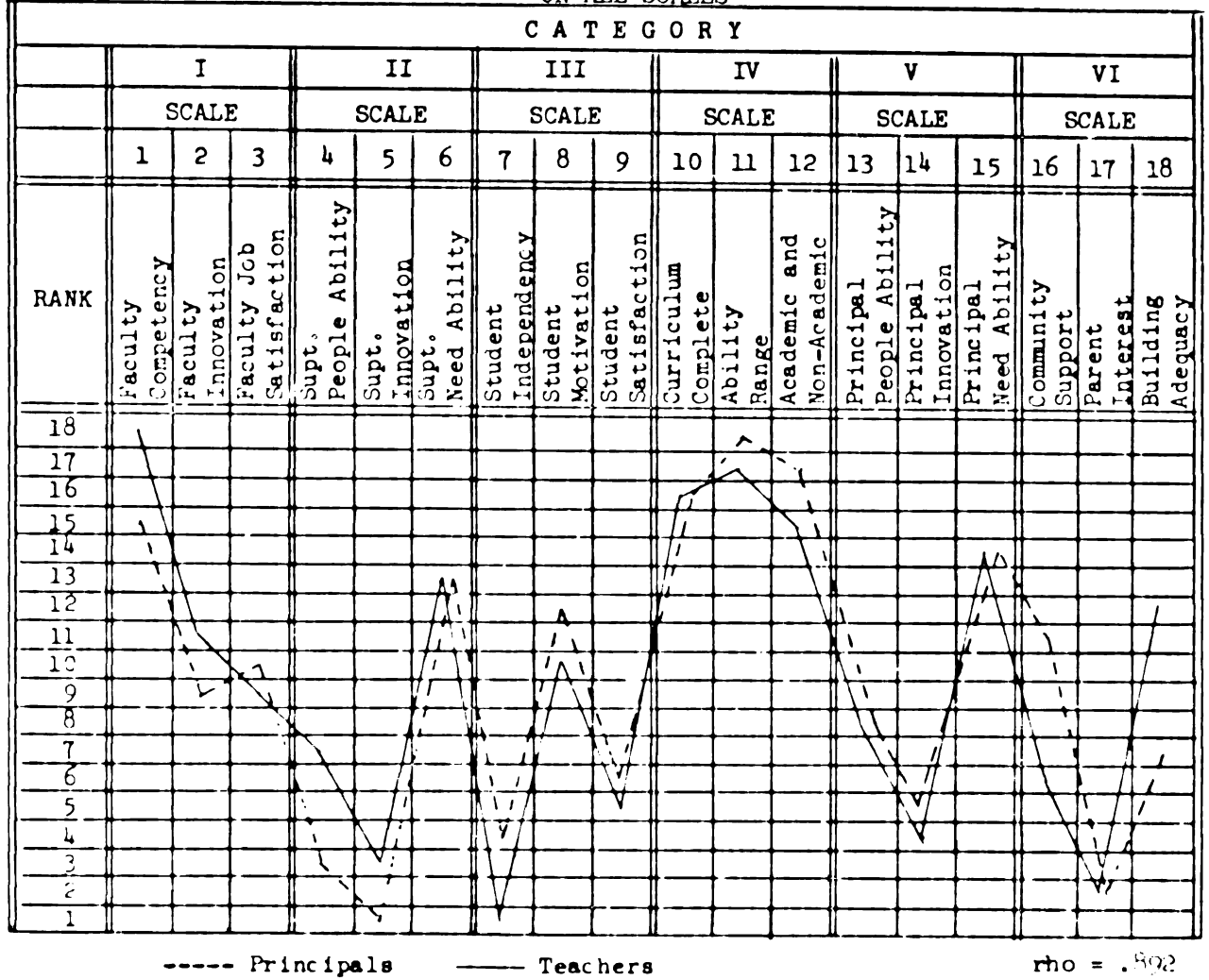


Fig. 18. - MEAN RANKS OF ALL PRINCIPALS COMPARED WITH TEACHERS OVER 50 YEARS OF AGE ON ALL SCALES

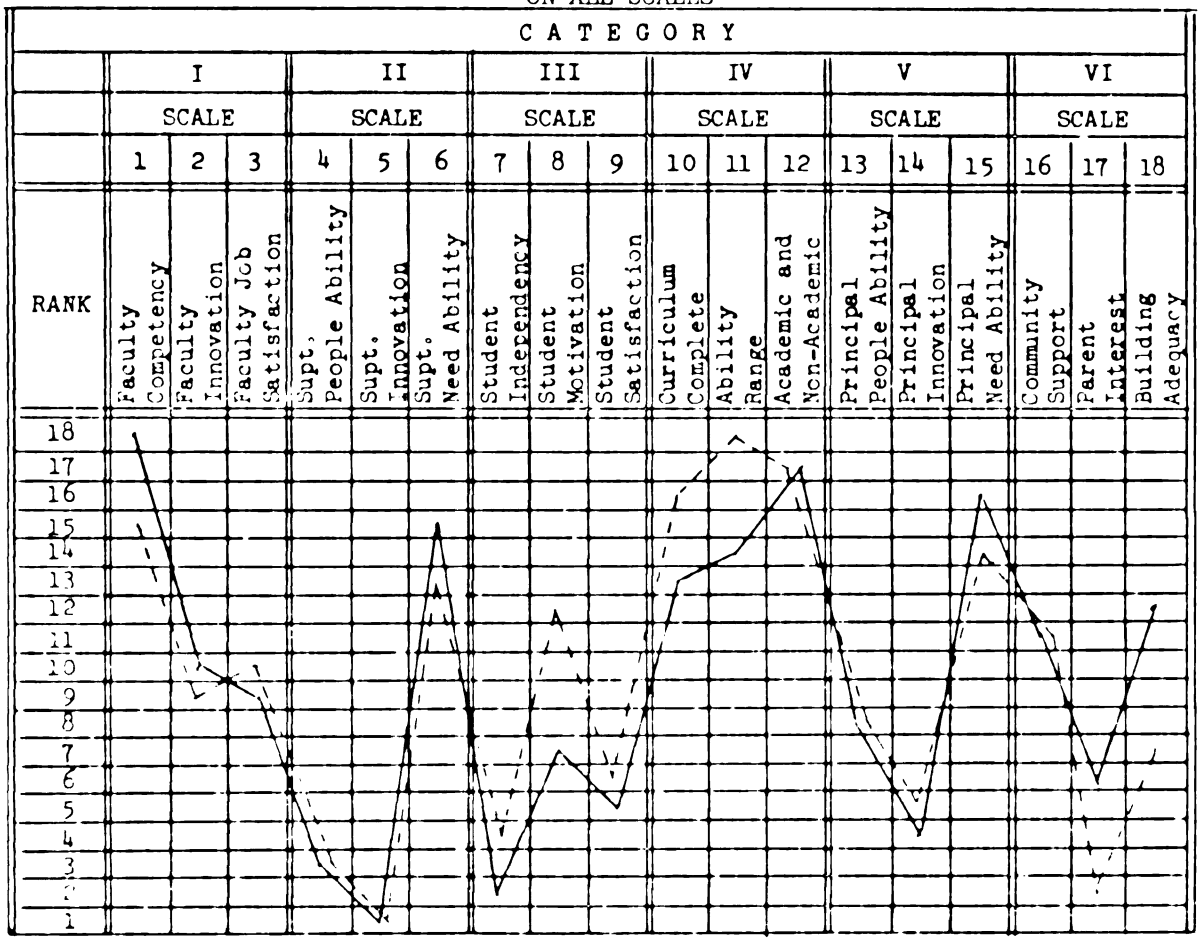


Fig. 29. - MEAN RANKS OF PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH SELECTED TEACHERS FROM RURAL SCHOOL NO. 11 ON ALL SCALES

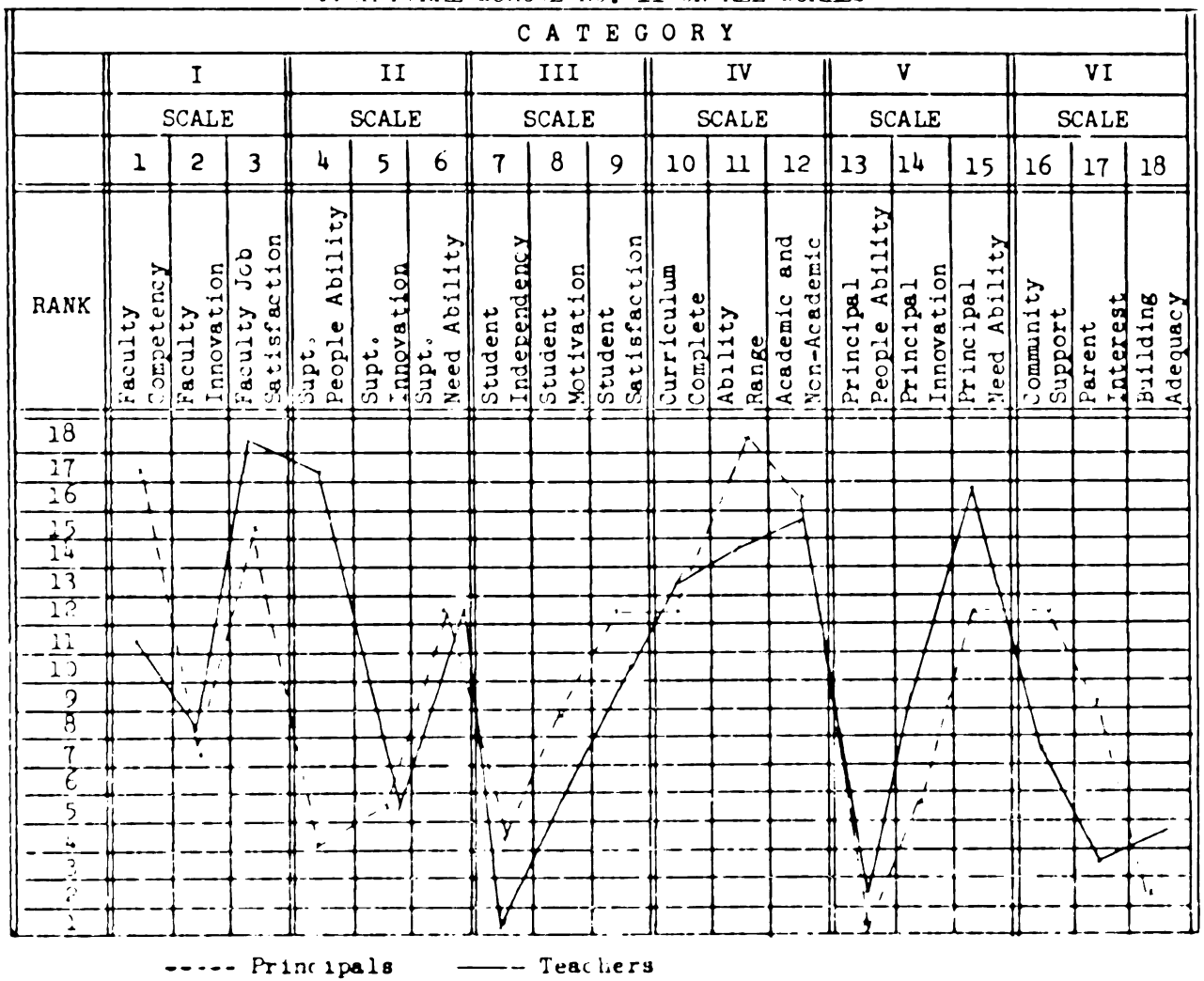


Fig. 30. - MEAN RANKS OF PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH SELECTED TEACHERS FROM RURAL SCHOOL NO. 12 ON ALL SCALES

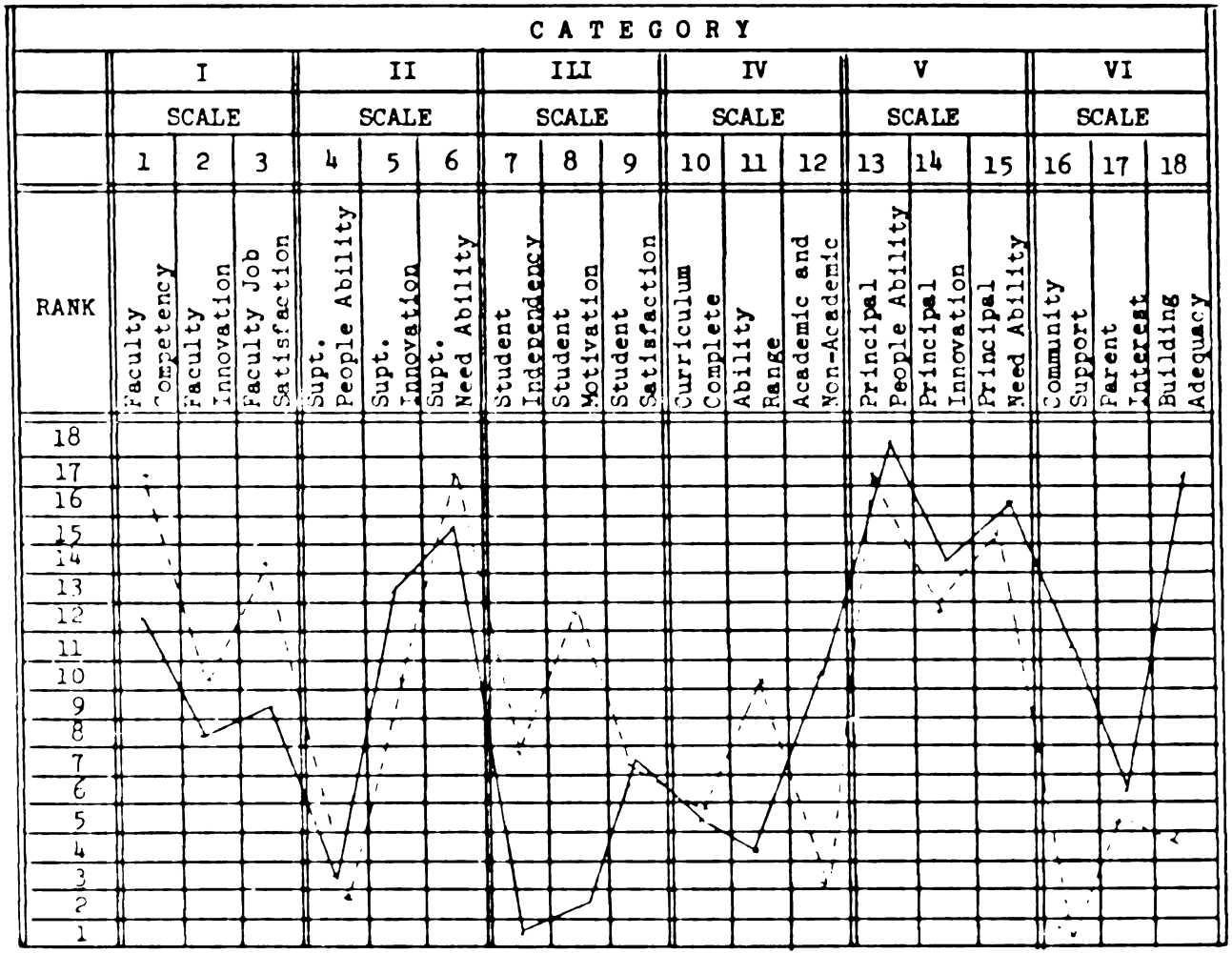


Fig. 31. - MEAN RANKS OF PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH SELECTED TEACHERS FROM RURAL SCHOOL NO. 13 ON ALL SCALES

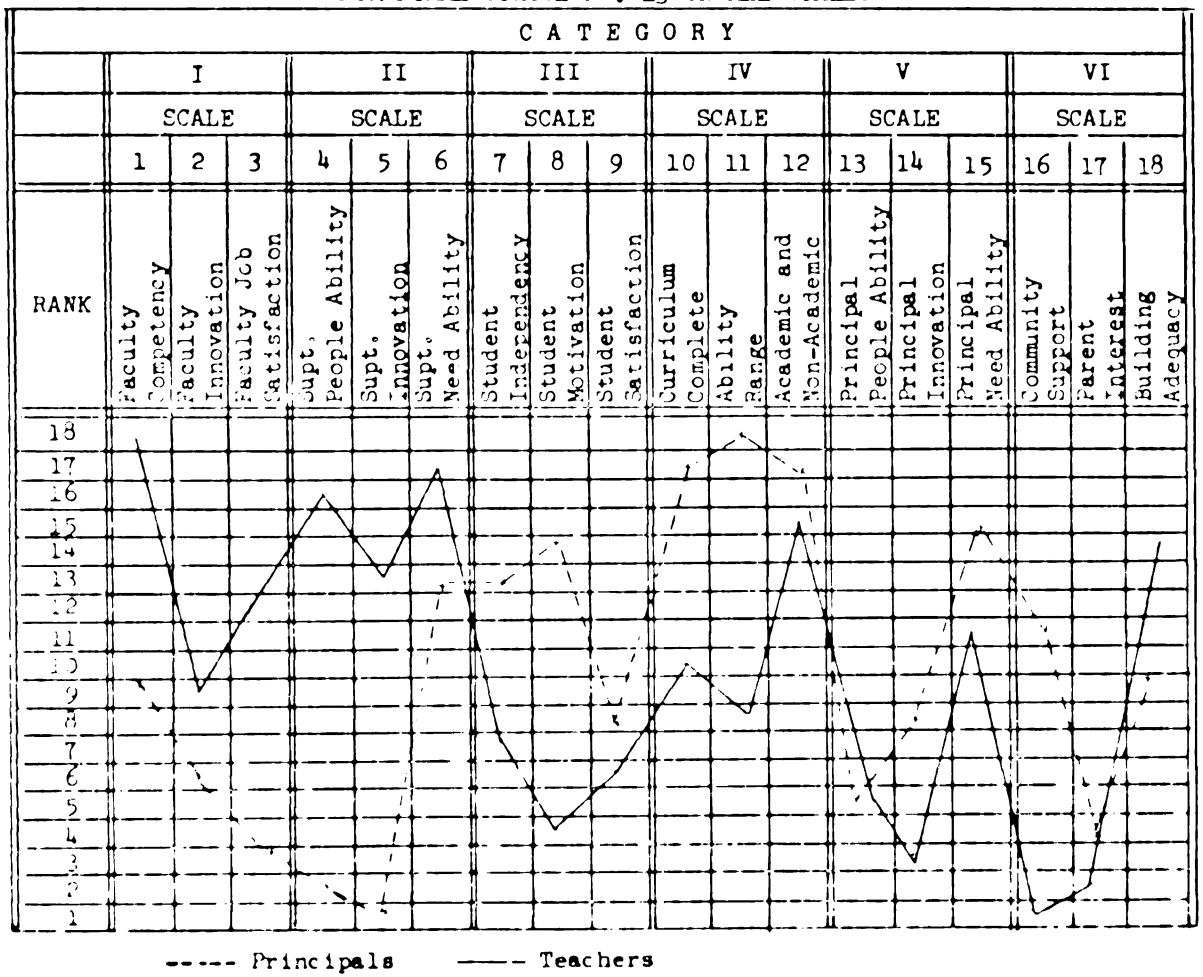


Fig. 32. - MEAN RANKS OF PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH SELECTED TEACHERS FROM RURAL SCHOOL NO. 14 ON ALL SCALES

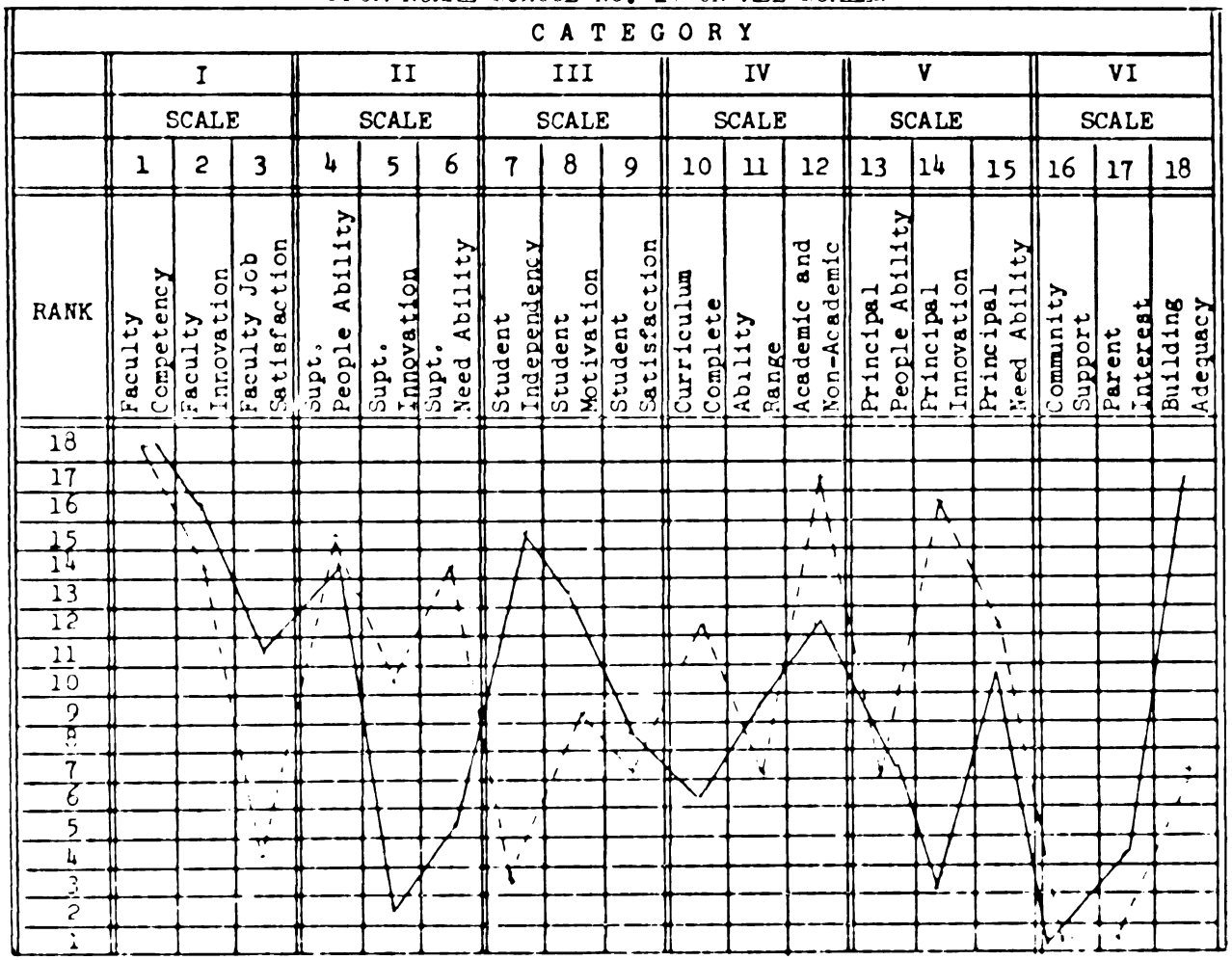


Fig. 33. - MEAN RANKS OF PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH SELECTED TEACHERS FROM RURAL SCHOOL NO. 15 ON ALL SCALES

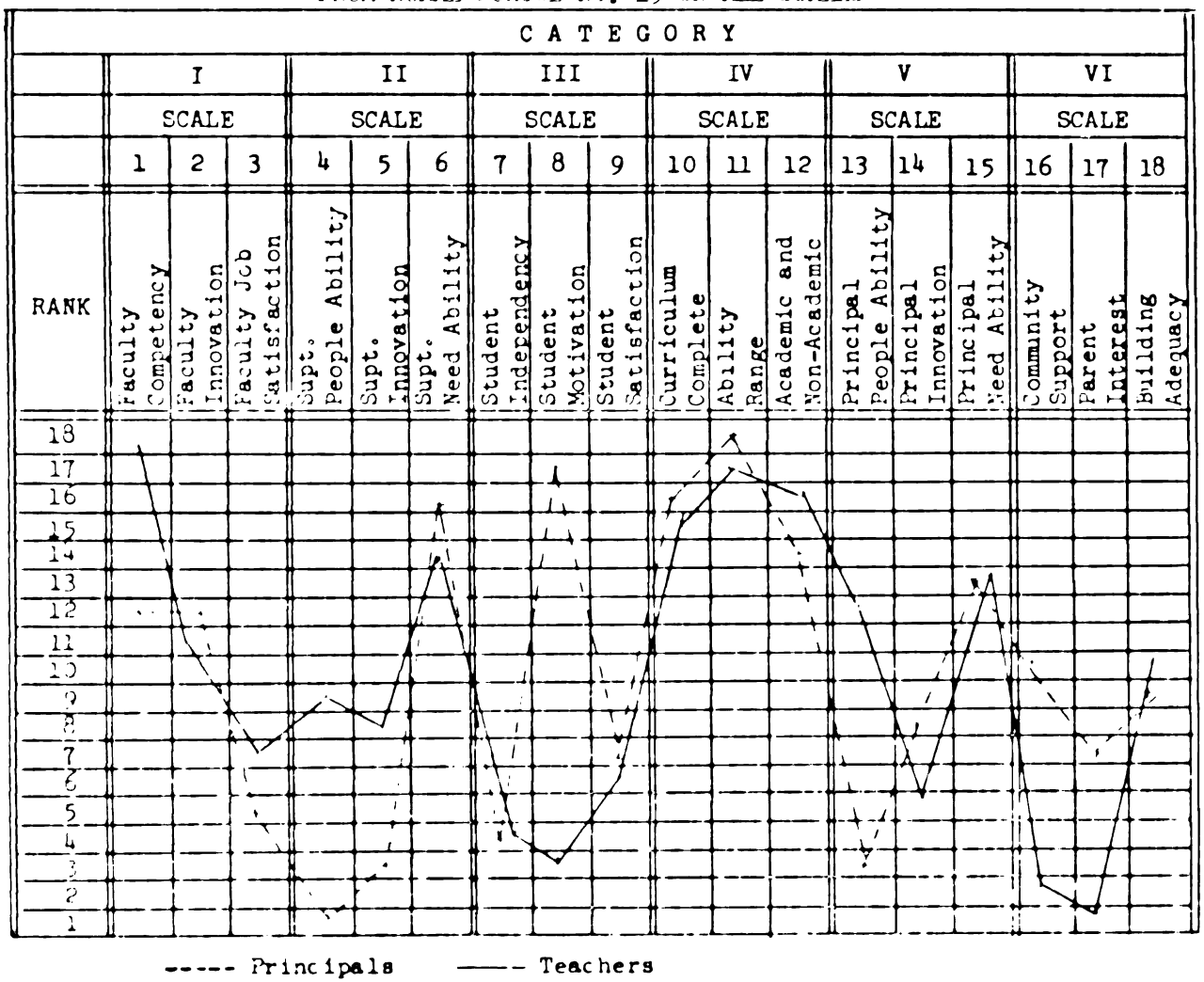


Fig. 34. - MEAN RANKS OF PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH SELECTED TEACHERS FROM RURAL SCHOOL NO. 16 ON ALL SCALES

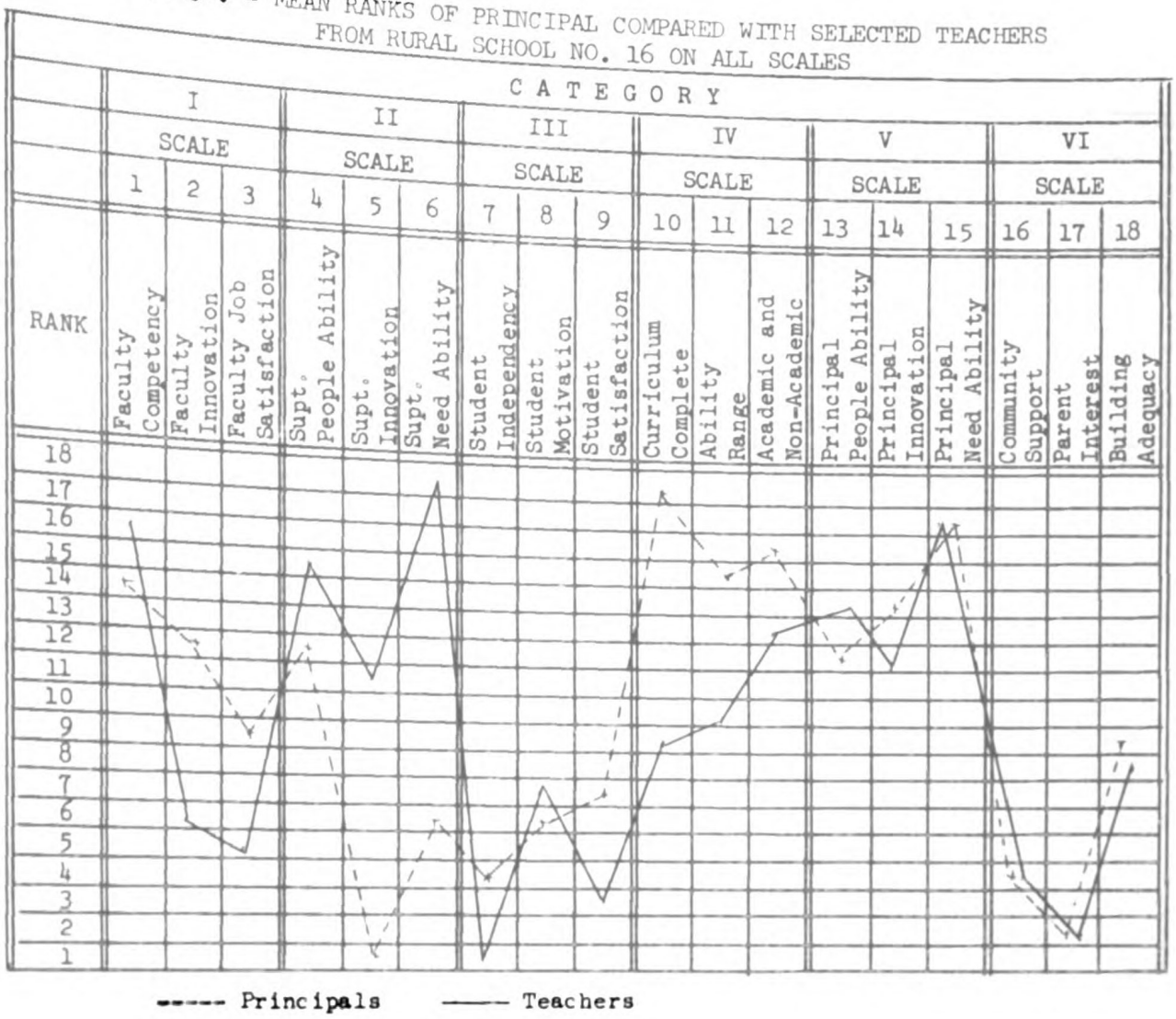
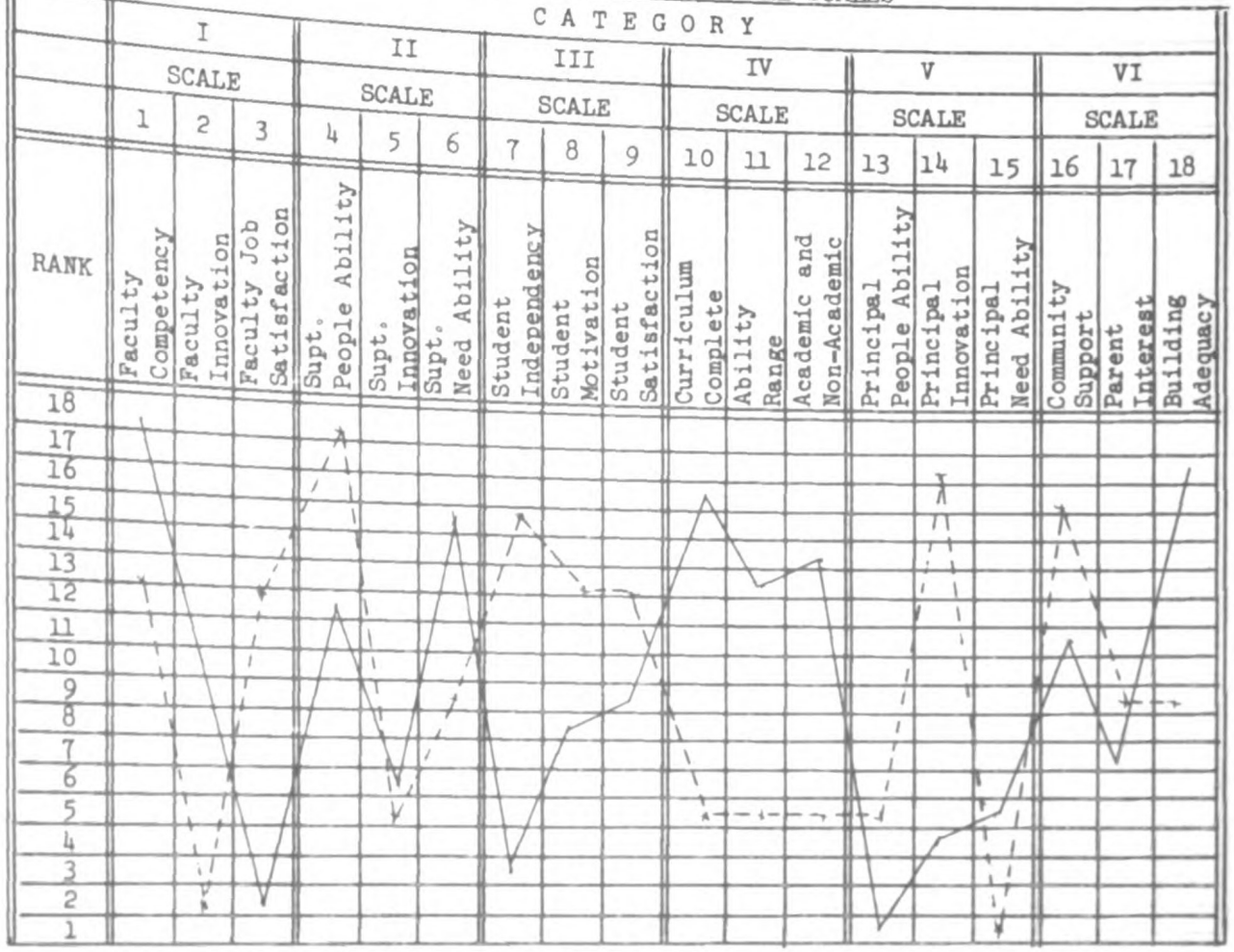
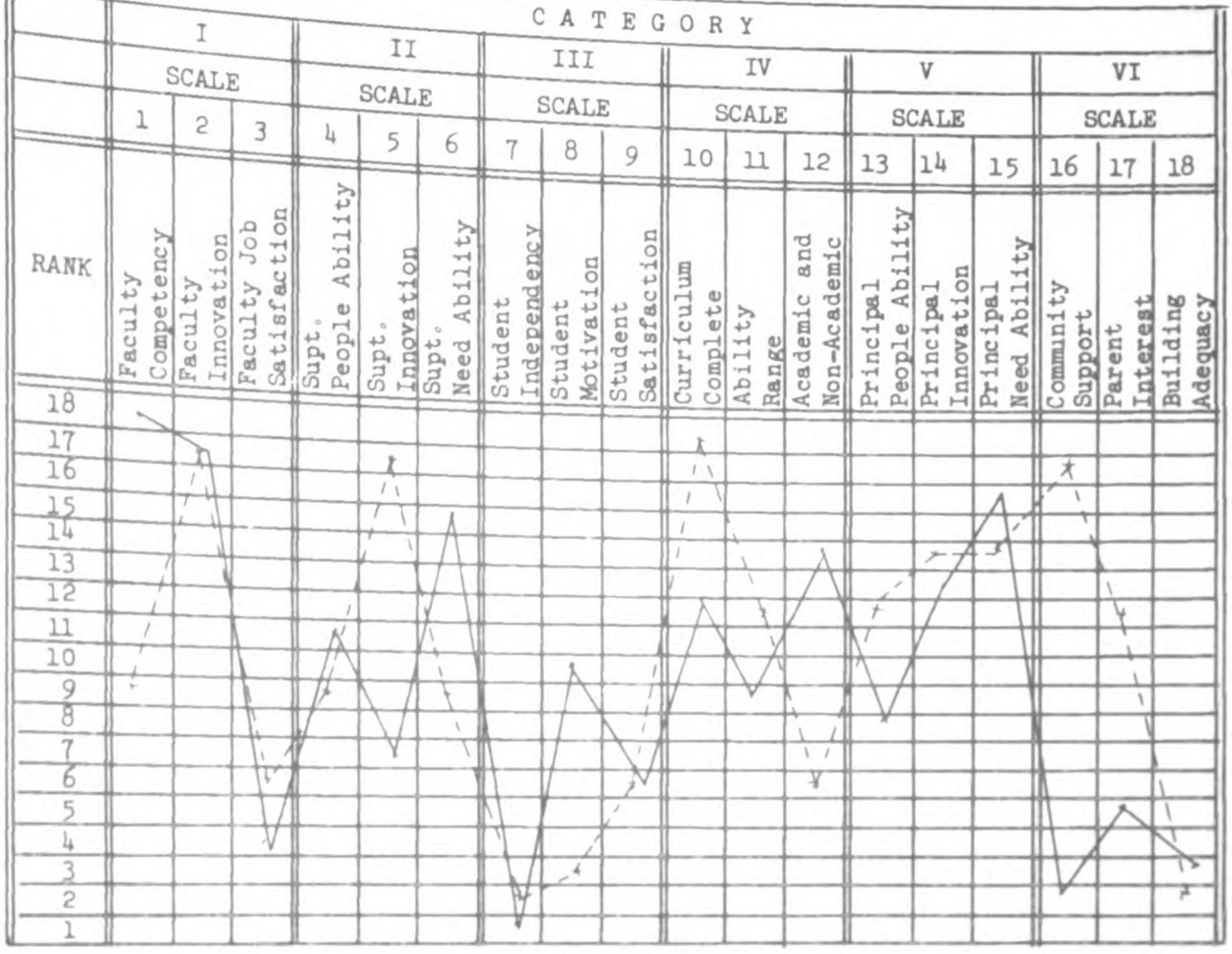


Fig. 35. - MEAN RANKS OF PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH SELECTED TEACHERS FROM RURAL SCHOOL NO. 17 ON ALL SCALES



----- Principals —— Teachers

Fig. 36. - MEAN RANKS OF PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH SELECTED TEACHERS FROM RURAL SCHOOL NO. 18 ON ALL SCALES



----- Principals —— Teachers

Fig. 37. - MEAN RANKS OF PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH SELECTED TEACHERS FROM SUBURBAN SCHOOL NO. 19 ON ALL SCALES

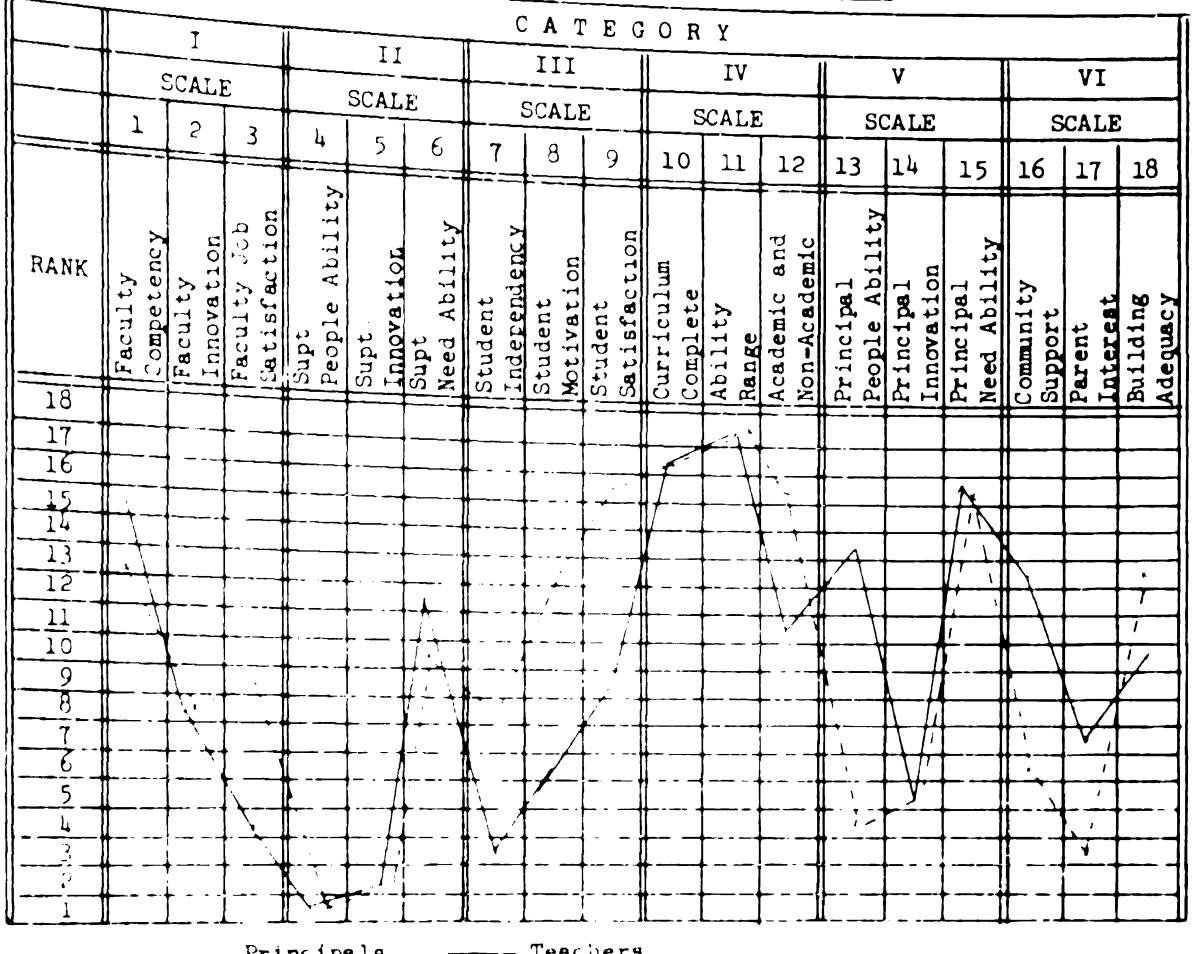
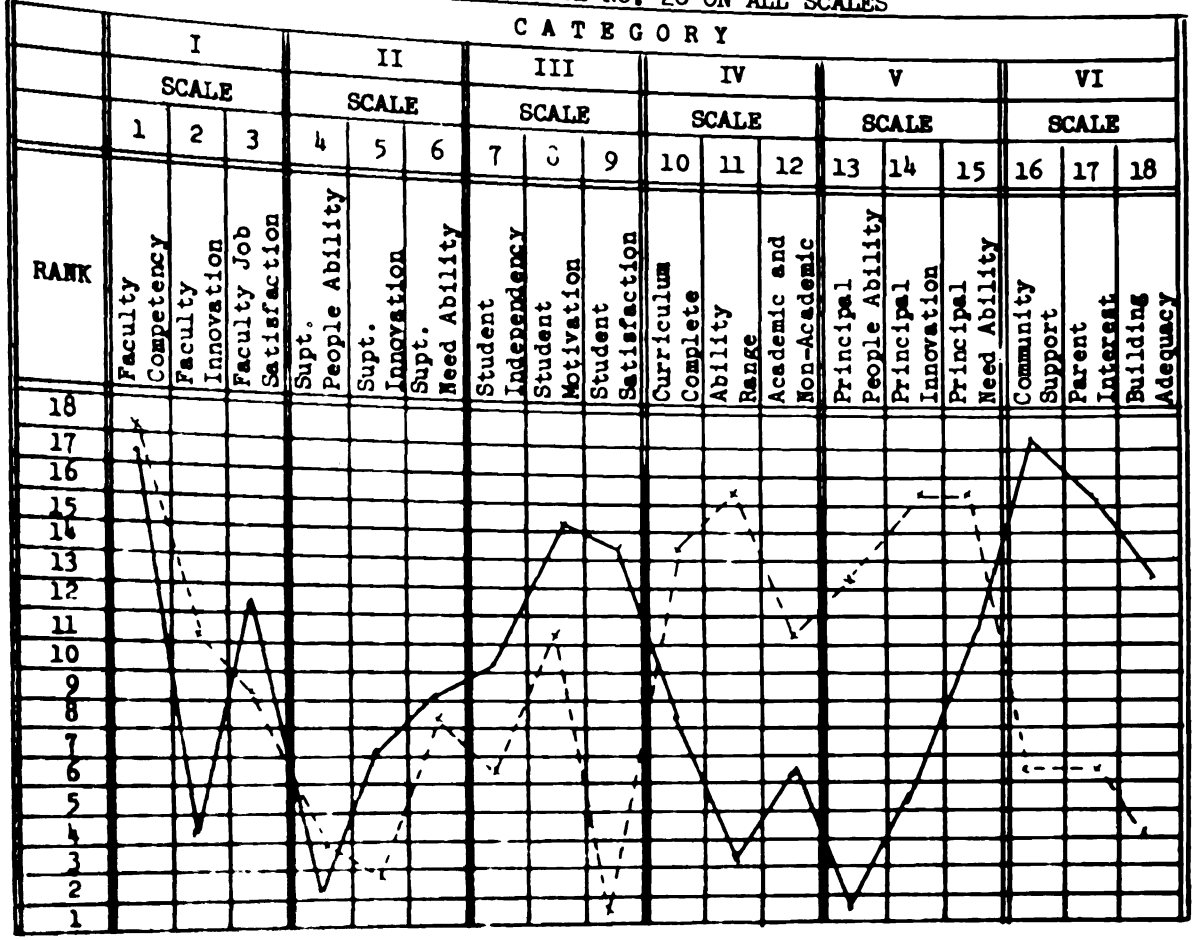


Fig. 38. - MEAN RANKS OF PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH SELECTED TEACHERS FROM SUBURBAN SCHOOL NO. 20 ON ALL SCALES



APPENDIX B

Research Instrument

EXPLANATION OF QUESTIONNAIRE AND MARKING DIRECTIONS

I. Purpose of this questionnaire

As an educator you have professional standards and expectations of what a school system should be like.

This questionnaire is designed to measure your perceptions of how the various educational areas of this school and district meet those expectations.

You may have complete confidence that there will be no individual identification of responses. When you have completed the questionnaire, please dispose of the booklet and enclose the answer sheet in the attached envelope, seal and turn in at the school office. All responses from your school will be collected and sent in one large envelope. They will not be opened until received by Michigan State University.

If you are interested in the total findings of this research, please indicate in question 154 (last question) and the cumulative findings of all schools measured will be sent to your school for faculty review.

II. The following questions are asked in order that findings may be compared by various professional categories. These questions are not asked to determine individual identifications.

Use number 2 lead pencil only (not special marking lead). If any changes are made, please erase completely.

Do not write your name on the answer sheet.

Please answer the questions in the small Student Number box on the answer sheet.

Instructions for filling out the Student Number Box are on the next page.

Professional Category Questions

1. **Principal (Mark 0)**
   Teacher (Mark 1)

2. **Primary Wage Earner (Mark 0)**
   Supplemental Family Wage Earner (Mark 1)

3. **Male (Mark 0)**
   Female (Mark 1)

SAMPLE STUDENT NUMBER BOX

1	0___	1___	2___	3___	4___	5___	6___	7___	8___	9___
2	0___	1___	2___	3___	4___	5___	6___	7___	8___	9___
3	0___	1___	2___	3___	4___	5___	6___	7___	8___	9___
4	0___	1___	2___	3___	4___	5___	6___	7___	8___	9___
5	0___	1___	2___	3___	4___	5___	6___	7___	8___	9___
6	0___	1___	2___	3___	4___	5___	6___	7___	8___	9___

4. Years teaching with this principal or years as a principal in this school. If in first year, mark 0; everything over 8 years, mark 9.

5. Curriculum area - by training. Specific areas are given as examples and are not meant to be complete - check area most appropriate to your training.

0 - Physical Science: Math, Physics, Chemistry

1 - Natural Sciences: Biology, Physiology, Botony, Zoology, Horticulture

2 - Social Science: Sociology, Psychology, History

3 - Physical Education

4 - Home or Vocational Education: Business, Agriculture, Industrial Arts

5 - Humanities: Philosophy, Music, English, Art, Drama, Speech

6 - Guidance Services

7 - Languages

8 - Library Service

9 - Other

6. Age -- (0) 20-25; (1) 26-30; (2) 31-35; (3) 36-40; (4) 41-45; (5) 46-50; (6) Over 50

III. Organization of Questionnaire

On the following pages you will find 153 sets of items, each dealing with some aspect of education. These items may concern individuals, groups, or programs in this school or district. Will you please select the one item in each set which most nearly meets what you feel you have a professional right to expect.

Examples:

155 - (a) Salaries paid to teachers in this district.
(b) Quality of lighting in the classrooms of this district.

If items (a) more nearly met what you considered you had a professional right to expect than did item (b), you would mark (a) for question 155 on the answer sheet.
If (b) more nearly met your professional expectations you would select (b) for question 155 on the answer sheet.

Note: The Answer Sheet has items A through E. Use only A or B. Answer Sheet presents items across the page.

IV. Points of Clarification

A. You will notice duplication of items and may find such repetition somewhat boring. It may well be, however, no set of items will ever appear more than once and your thoughtful consideration of each set will determine the value of this research.

B. This questionnaire has no time limit but can be completed in less than half an hour.

C. One item in each set is to be selected even when the choice is difficult.

D. Each set is to be considered as it pertains to this school or district or community.

E. Select the one item in each set which most nearly meets your professional expectations.

Thank you, please begin.

Questionnaire - Page 1

NOTE: Select the one item in each set which most nearly meets your professional expectations.

1 - (a) Principal's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of the school.
(b) Student's motivation to learn.

2 - (a) Professional competence of faculty members.
(b) This school's concern for the student in both academic and non-academic areas.

3 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by this district's superintendent.
(b) Students' satisfaction with school.

4 - (a) Students' motivation to learn.
(b) Ability of this school's principal to deal with people.

5 - (a) Students' ability to work without supervision.
(b) Job satisfaction of faculty members.

6 - (a) Ability of this district's superintendent to deal with people.
(b) Extent to which parents take an active interest in this school's program.

7 - (a) Ability of this district's superintendent to deal with people.
(b) Students' motivation to learn.

8 - (a) Professional competence of faculty members.
(b) Capacity of this school's curriculum to meet the present and future needs of students.

9 - (a) Students' satisfaction with school.
(b) This community's willingness to pay for quality school programs.

10 - (a) This school's concern for the student in both academic and non-academic areas.
(b) Number and quality of innovations by faculty members.

11 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by this district's superintendent.
(b) Job satisfaction of faculty members.

12 - (a) This school's curriculum for students from the full range of academic ability.
(b) Number and quality of innovations by this district's superintendent.

13 - (a) Students' ability to work without supervision.
(b) Ability of this district's superintendent to deal with people.

Questionnaire - Page 2

14 - (a) Professional competence of faculty members.
(b) Students' satisfaction with school.

15 - (a) The educational adequacy of this school's building or buildings.
(b) Ability of this district's superintendent to deal with people.

16 - (a) Superintendent's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this district.
(b) This school's curriculum for students from the full range of academic ability.

17 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by this school's principal.
(b) This community's willingness to pay for quality school programs.

18 - (a) Capacity of this school's curriculum to meet the present and future needs of students.
(b) Students' satisfaction with school.

19 - (a) Students' ability to work without supervision.
(b) Professional competence of faculty members.

20 - (a) This school's curriculum for students from the full range of academic ability.
(b) Number and quality of innovations by this school's principal.

21 - (a) Ability of this school's principal to deal with people.
(b) Ability of this district's superintendent to deal with people.

22 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by this district's superintendent.
(b) Ability of this school's principal to deal with people.

23 - (a) Extent to which parents take an active interest in this school's program.
(b) This school's concern for the student in both academic and non-academic areas.

24 - (a) Superintendent's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this district.
(b) This school's concern for the student in both the academic and non-academic areas.

25 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by this school's principal.
(b) The educational adequacy of this school's building or buildings.

26 - (a) Ability of this district's superintendent to deal with people.
(b) Number and quality of innovations by faculty members.

Questionnaire - Page 3

NOTE: The answer sheet has items A through E. Use only A or B. Answer sheet presents items across the page.

27 - (a) Students' satisfaction with school.
(b) Students' ability to work without supervision.

28 - (a) Principal's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of the school.
(b) Extent to which parents take an active interest in this school's program.

29 - (a) Students' motivation to learn.
(b) Students' satisfaction with school.

30 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by this district's superintendent.
(b) Ability of this district's superintendent to deal with people.

31 - (a) Superintendent's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this district.
(b) This community's willingness to pay for quality school programs.

32 - (a) Ability of this district's superintendent to deal with people.
(b) This community's willingness to pay for quality school programs.

33 - (a) Principal's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this school.
(b) Ability of this school's principal to deal with people.

34 - (a) The educational adequacy of this school's building or buildings.
(b) This school's concern for the student in both academic and non-academic areas.

35 - (a) Ability of this school's principal to deal with people.
(b) Number and quality of innovations by faculty members.

36 - (a) Ability of this school's principal to deal with people.
(b) Number and quality of innovations by this school's principal.

37 - (a) This school's curriculum for students from the full range of academic ability.
(b) The educational adequacy of this school's building or buildings.

38 - (a) This community's willingness to pay for quality school programs.
(b) Professional competency of faculty members.

39 - (a) Extent to which parents take an active interest in this school's program.
(b) Ability of this school's principal to deal with people.

Questionnaire - Page 4

40 - (a) Superintendent's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this district.
(b) Number and quality of innovations by this school's principal.

41 - (a) Students' motivation to learn.
(b) Capacity of this school's curriculum to meet the present and future needs of students.

42 - (a) Professional competence of faculty members.
(b) Ability of this school's principal to deal with people.

43 - (a) Job satisfaction of faculty members.
(b) Superintendent's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this district.

44 - (a) Job satisfaction of faculty members.
(b) Student satisfaction with school.

45 - (a) This community's willingness to pay for quality school programs.
(b) This school's curriculum for students from the full range of academic ability.

46 - (a) Superintendent's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this district.
(b) Students' motivation to learn.

47 - (a) Professional competence of faculty members.
(b) Job satisfaction of faculty members.

48 - (a) Students' motivation to learn.
(b) Number and quality of innovations by this district's superintendent.

49 - (a) Capacity of this school's curriculum to meet the present and future needs of students.
(b) Extent to which parents take an active interest in this school's program.

50 - (a) Superintendent's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this district.
(b) The educational adequacy of this school's building or buildings.

51 - (a) This school's concern for the student in both academic and non-academic areas.
(b) Students' motivation to learn.

52 - (a) Students' ability to work without supervision.
(b) Ability of this school's principal to deal with people.

53 - (a) Principal's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this school.
(b) Students' satisfaction with school.

Questionnaire - Page 5

NOTE: Select the one item in each set which most nearly meets your professional expectations.

54 - (a) Superintendent's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this district.
(b) Number and quality of innovations by this district's superintendent.

55 - (a) Capacity of this school's curriculum to meet the present and future needs of students.
(b) This school's concern for the student in both academic and non-academic areas.

56 - (a) Students' motivation to learn.
(b) Number and quality of innovations by this school's principal.

57 - (a) Students' satisfaction with school.
(b) Ability of this school's principal to deal with people.

58 - (a) Ability of this district's superintendent to deal with people.
(b) Students' satisfaction with school.

59 - (a) Professional competence of faculty members.
(b) Superintendent's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this district.

60 - (a) This school's curriculum for students from the full range of academic ability.
(b) Extent to which parents take an active interest in this school's program.

61 - (a) Principal's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this school.
(b) This school's concern for the student in both academic and non-academic areas.

62 - (a) Professional competence of faculty members.
(b) The educational adequacy of this school's building or buildings.

63 - (a) This school's concern for the student in both academic and non-academic areas.
(b) This school's curriculum for students from the full range of academic ability.

64 - (a) This community's willingness to pay for quality school programs.
(b) Job satisfaction of faculty members.

65 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by faculty members.
(b) Professional competence of faculty members.

66 - (a) Students' ability to work without supervision.
(b) Number and quality of innovations by this district's superintendent.

Questionnaire - Page 6

NOTE: The answer sheet has items A through E. Use only A or B. Answer sheet presents items across the page.

67 - (a) The educational adequacy of this school's building or buildings.
(b) Job satisfaction of faculty members.

68 - (a) Principal's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this school.
(b) Professional competence of faculty members.

69 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by faculty members.
(b) Job satisfaction of faculty members.

70 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by faculty members.
(b) Superintendent's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this district.

71 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by this school's principal.
(b) Extent to which parents take an active interest in this school's program.

72 - (a) The educational adequacy of this school's building or buildings.
(b) Students' satisfaction with school.

73 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by this district's superintendent.
(b) Number and quality of innovations by faculty members.

74 - (a) This school's curriculum for students from the full range of academic ability.
(b) Students' satisfaction with school.

75 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by this school's principal.
(b) Principal's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this school.

76 - (a) Capacity of this school's curriculum to meet the present and future needs of students.
(b) Superintendent's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this district.

77 - (a) Extent to which parents take an active interest in this school's program.
(b) Superintendent's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this district.

78 - (a) Capacity of this school's curriculum to meet the present and future needs of students.
(b) Ability of this district's superintendent to deal with people.

79 - (a) Extent to which parents take an active interest in this school's programs.
(b) Number and quality of innovations by this district's superintendent.

80 - (a) Job satisfaction of faculty members.
(b) Ability of this school's principal to deal with people.

81 - (a) Ability of this school's principal to deal with people.
(b) Superintendent's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this district.

82 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by this school's principal.
(b) Students' ability to work without supervision.

83 - (a) This school's curriculum for students from the full range of academic ability.
(b) Job satisfaction of faculty members.

84 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by this school's principal.
(b) This school's concern for the student in both academic and non-academic areas.

85 - (a) Students' satisfaction with school.
(b) This school's concern for the student in both academic and non-academic areas.

86 - (a) Ability of this district's superintendent to deal with people.
(b) Number and quality of innovations by this school's principal.

87 - (a) Ability of this school's principal to deal with people.
(b) This school's concern for the student in both academic and non-academic areas.

88 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by faculty members.
(b) Students' motivation to learn.

89 - (a) The educational adequacy of this school's building or buildings.
(b) Ability of this school's principal to deal with people.

90 - (a) Ability of this district's superintendent to deal with people.
(b) This school's curriculum for students from the full range of academic ability.

91 - (a) Capacity of this school's curriculum to meet the present and future needs of students.
(b) The educational adequacy of this school's building or buildings.

Questionnaire - Page 8

NOTE: Select the one item in each set which most nearly meets your professional expectations.

92 - (a) Principal's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this school.
(b) The educational adequacy of this school's building or buildings.

93 - (a) This school's concern for the student in both academic and non-academic areas.
(b) Ability of this district's superintendent to deal with people.

94 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by this district's superintendent.
(b) Professional competence of faculty members.

95 - (a) Students' ability to work without supervision.
(b) Number and quality of innovations by faculty members.

96 - (a) Ability of this school's principal to deal with people.
(b) Capacity of this school's curriculum to meet the present and future needs of students.

97 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by this school's principal.
(b) Capacity of this school's curriculum to meet the present and future needs of students.

98 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by this district's superintendent.
(b) The educational adequacy of this school's building or buildings.

99 - (a) This community's willingness to pay for quality school programs.
(b) Principal's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this school.

100 - (a) Students' satisfaction with school.
(b) Superintendent's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this district.

101 - (a) This school's curriculum for students from the full range of academic ability.
(b) Students' ability to work without supervision.

102 - (a) Extent to which parents take an active interest in this school's program.
(b) Students' ability to work without supervision.

103 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by faculty members.
(b) Principal's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this school.

104 - (a) Extent to which parents take an active interest in this school's program.
(b) Number and quality of innovations by faculty members.

Questionnaire - Page 9

NOTE: The answer sheet has items A through E. Use only A or B. Answer sheet presents items across the page.

105 - (a) Capacity of this school's curriculum to meet the present and future needs of students.
(b) Students' ability to work without supervision.

106 - (a) Students' motivation to learn.
(b) Job satisfaction of faculty members.

107 - (a) Ability of this school's principal to deal with people.
(b) This community's willingness to pay for quality school programs.

108 - (a) Principal's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this school.
(b) Superintendent's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this district.

109 - (a) Job satisfaction of faculty members.
(b) Number and quality of innovations by this school's principal.

110 - (a) Professional competence of faculty members.
(b) Students' motivation to learn.

111 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by faculty members.
(b) Number and quality of innovations by this school's principal.

112 - (a) Principal's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this school.
(b) Job satisfaction of faculty members.

113 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by faculty members.
(b) Students' satisfaction with school.

114 - (a) Job satisfaction of faculty members.
(b) Capacity of this school's curriculum to meet the present and future needs of students.

115 - (a) Job satisfaction of faculty members.
(b) Extent to which parents take an active interest in this school's program.

116 - (a) Extent to which parents take an active interest in this school's program.
(b) Professional competence of faculty members.

117 - (a) Capacity of this school's curriculum to meet the present and future needs of students.
(b) Principal's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this school.

Questionnaire - Page 10

NOTE: Select the one item in each set which most nearly meets your professional expectations.

118 - (a) This school's curriculum for students from the full range of academic ability.
(b) Ability of this school's principal to deal with people.

119 - (a) This school's curriculum for students from the full range of academic ability.
(b) Professional competence of faculty members.

120 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by this school's principal.
(b) Number and quality of innovations by this district's superintendent.

121 - (a) This community's willingness to pay for quality school programs.
(b) Extent to which parents take an active interest in this school's program.

122 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by this school's principal.
(b) Professional competence of faculty members.

123 - (a) This school's curriculum for students from the full range of academic ability.
(b) Capacity of this school's curriculum to meet the present and future needs of students.

124 - (a) Job satisfaction of faculty members.
(b) Ability of this district's superintendent to deal with people.

125 - (a) Students' ability to work without supervision.
(b) This community's willingness to pay for quality school programs.

126 - (a) Extent to which parents take an active interest in this school's program.
(b) Students' motivation to learn.

127 - (a) Students' motivation to learn.
(b) This community's willingness to pay for quality school programs.

128 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by this district's superintendent.
(b) Principal's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this school.

129 - (a) Principal's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this school.
(b) Ability of this district's superintendent to deal with people.

130 - (a) Students' ability to work without supervision.
(b) This school's concern for the student in both academic and non-academic areas.

Questionnaire - Page 11

131 - (a) This school's concern for the student in both academic and non-academic areas.
(b) This community's willingness to pay for quality school programs.

132 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by this school's principal.
(b) Students' satisfaction with school.

133 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by this district's superintendent.
(b) Capacity of this school's curriculum to meet the present and future needs of students.

134 - (a) This school's curriculum for students from the full range of academic ability.
(b) Principal's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this school.

135 - (a) Extent to which parents take an active interest in this school's program.
(b) The educational adequacy of this school's building or buildings.

136 - (a) Job satisfaction of faculty members.
(b) This school's concern for the student in both academic and non-academic areas.

137 - (a) Superintendent's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this district.
(b) Students' ability to work without supervision.

138 - (a) Ability of this district's superintendent to deal with people.
(b) Superintendent's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this district.

139 - (a) Students' ability to work without supervision.
(b) Students' motivation to learn.

140 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by faculty members.
(b) The educational adequacy of this school's building or buildings.

141 - (a) This community's willingness to pay for quality school programs.
(b) Capacity of this school's curriculum to meet the present and future needs of students.

142 - (a) Students' motivation to learn.
(b) The educational adequacy of this school's building or buildings.

143 - (a) The educational adequacy of this school's building or buildings.
(b) This community's willingness to pay for quality school programs.

Questionnaire - Page 12

144 - (a) Capacity of this school's curriculum to meet the present and future needs of students.
(b) Number and quality of innovations by faculty members.

145 - (a) This community's willingness to pay for quality school programs.
(b) Number and quality of innovations by faculty members.

146 - (a) Students' ability to work without supervision.
(b) The educational adequacy of this school's building or buildings.

147 - (a) Professional competence of faculty members.
(b) Ability of this district's superintendent to deal with people.

148 - (a) Principal's ability to see and meet the present and future needs of this school.
(b) Students' ability to work without supervision.

149 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by this district's superintendent.
(b) This community's willingness to pay for quality school programs.

150 - (a) Number and quality of innovations by faculty members.
(b) This school's curriculum for students from the full range of academic ability.

151 - (a) This school's concern for the student in both academic and non-academic areas.
(b) Number and quality of innovations by this district's superintendent.

152 - (a) Students' motivation to learn.
(b) This school's curriculum for students from the full range of academic ability.

153 - (a) Students' satisfaction with school.
(b) Extent to which parents take an active interest in this school's program.

154 - (a) I would be interested in the results of this research.
(b) I am not particularly interested in the results of this research.

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