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A STUDY OF TEACHERS' FULFILLMENT OF STUDENT EXPECTATIONS
AS RELATED TO SCHOOL ORGANIZATION BUREAUCRACY

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1968

A STUDY OF TEACHERS' FULFILLMENT OF STUDENT EXPECTATIONS
AS RELATED TO SCHOOL ORGANIZATION BUREAUCRACY

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM: IT'S BACKGROUND AND SCOPE

Introduction

According to Katz and Kahn, "...an organization is a special device for efficiently accomplishing through group means some stated purpose."¹ The public secondary schools in America are no exception. Even though, in many cases, the stated purposes of secondary school organizations are seemingly a collection of educational jargon and philosophical generalities, one salient purpose seems to emerge. That purpose is teaching the youth, for whom they are responsible, something. What pupils are taught, according to the philosophy of American education, is a matter to be decided upon by the local school districts. However, the effectiveness of teaching them, what they are to be taught, is a concern of the student of education and the professional educator.

¹David Katz and Robert L. Kahn, The Social Psychology of Organizations (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1966), p. 16.

A study by Bush² indicated that no single factor can be the cause of successful teaching, but he maintained, on the basis of his findings, that the student-teacher relationship is one of the most important. The effective teacher then, among other things, must establish and maintain a productive relationship between himself and his student. However, the fact that this inter-personal relationship occurs within the confines of an organization presents some problems that need careful consideration.

Bidwell³ emphasized the difficulty involved when he pointed out that the role structure of a school system contains a fundamental dichotomy between student and staff roles. In Nadel's terms, the student's role is a recruitment role; staff roles are achievement roles. Consider first the student's role as stated by Nadel:

Young persons are compelled to enter school systems as students simply because of their placement in certain age-grades, without reference to specific performance. Furthermore, since students are to be socialized to adult life, the central activities of this role are not directly relevant to the immediate interests or lives of the incumbents. From the point of view of the student, participation in these activities is likely to be foreign to his own preferences, yet he cannot opt for or against participation...educational services more often than not must be provided to student clients

²Robert N. Bush, "A Study of Student-Teacher Relationships," Journal of Educational Research, XXV (1942), pp. 645-56.

³Charles E. Bidwell, "The School as a Formal Organization," Handbook of Organizations, ed. James G. March (Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1965), p. 973.

who do not desire them and may not be able to profit from them.⁴

In view of the dilemma faced by the student, the complexity of the student-teacher relationship begins to emerge.

How the student perceives the student-teacher relationship must be considered. Kimball Wiles observed, "Recent studies in the field of perception indicate that each person perceives in terms of his background, his purposes, and his needs."⁵ In support of this observation, Combs and Snygg stated, "People do not behave according to facts as others see them."⁶ A considerable amount of research has been done with regard to student perceptions of their teachers. Wingo states, "One technique which has been used extensively is that of sampling the opinions and attitudes of students."⁷ Separate studies by Baxter⁸, Hart⁹, and Hopkins¹⁰ are in substantial

⁴S. F. Nadel, The Theory of Social Structure (Glencoe, Illinois: Free Press, 1957), p. 37.

⁵Kimball Wiles, The Changing Curriculum of the American High School (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1963, p. 14.

⁶Arthur W. Combs and Donald Snygg, Individual Behavior (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1959), p. 17.

⁷G. Max Wingo, "Methods of Teaching," in Chester W. Harris, Encyclopedia of Educational Research. 3rd ed. New York: MacMillan, 1960), p. 848.

⁸Bernice Baxter, Teacher-Pupil Relationships (New York: The MacMillan Co., 1941), p. 166.

⁹Frank W. Hart, Teachers and Teaching (New York: The MacMillan Co., 1934), p. 285.

¹⁰Levi T. Hopkins, Interaction: The Democratic Process (New York: D. C. Heath & Co., 1941), p. 490.

agreement on the attitudes and professional qualities that they (the students) desire in teachers. A study by Witty¹¹ reinforced these findings. His study showed that there was a great consistency as to traits most admired. Teachers with the ability to display a warm, friendly, and well adjusted personality seemed to rank highest with students. Teaching competence was an item of frequent notation, but it ranked well below various personal qualities.

As implied by Wiles, students come to the teacher with a variety of backgrounds, purposes, and needs. Combs and Snygg suggested that the students behave in the learning environment in accordance with the way in which they, as individuals, perceive that environment. On the basis of these observations, a conclusion might be drawn that would suggest that students could be taught more effectively by teachers who were cognizant of and who developed and employed teaching methods and procedures designed to meet the various needs of their individual students. This recognition and action requirement of the teacher is complicated by the dichotomy existing between teacher and student purposes, as suggested by Nadel. Robert N. Bush, stated the dilemma in another way:

One factor that may explain the complexity of the process is that teachers and students are striving to realize a variety of purposes...each student comes to

¹¹Paul W. Witty, "An Analysis of the Personality Traits of the Effective Teacher," Journal of Educational Research, XL (1947), p. 668.

class with a different constellation of purposes. These may not coincide with the teacher's purposes. Very likely they will not if the teacher has a single set of purposes for all students.¹²

Professional educators, students of education and, for that matter, informed laymen may question the judgement of the teacher who has the same educational purposes for all of his students. However, an examination of the structure of the organization within which he (the teacher) operates may produce some evidence that would tend to partially explain why teachers often adopt a single set of purposes for all of their students.

An investigation of the public secondary schools in America shows that they possess many of the characteristics set forth by Max Weber (1864-1920), a German sociologist, economist, and political writer, who formulated a theory of "bureaucracy." Ronald G. Corwin supported this observation by stating, "Complex organizations in American society are bureaucratized, and schools are no exception."¹³ Corwin supported his statement by analyzing American education in view of the several variables relevant for assessing a bureaucratic organization. These variables were as follows: (1) size, (2) cost, (3) centralization, (4) specialization, (5) departmentalization, and (6) standardization. Statistics

¹²Bush, loc. cit., p. 651.

¹³Ronald G. Corwin, A Sociology of Education (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1965), p. 38.

were documented that gave support to the fact that these variables were changing, and these changes were in a direction that would tend to result in increased bureaucratization of American education.

Although each of these characteristics have implications for the teacher's problem of teaching, one seems to have special significance for the problem under consideration. The characteristic standardization and its relationship to the teacher's ability to meet the individual expectations of his students seems to be salient. (In this study, the term standardization will be used synonymously with rules and regulations.) Corwin notes, "Bureaucratization has affected education in fundamental ways. Its significance can be readily noted in the standardization of course work and the implications of this fact for individual attention in the classroom."¹⁴ The characteristics of size and cost of education in America and their phenomenal growth suggests that the process of standardization will increase. Corwin noted further, "The resulting pressure to establish procedures for educating more children with existing resources probably will increase standardization and unavoidably will affect classroom teaching."¹⁵ Further recognition of the problem was created by the following quotation from Wingo:

¹⁴Ibid., p. 43.

¹⁵Ibid., p. 43.

The presence of great individual differences in aptitude and achievement among students generate important problems at all levels of the educational system... There is a persistent conviction among educational personnel that the solution to many of the graver problems of teaching lies in some kind of plan which will make individualization of instruction possible within the general frame-work of a mass-instruction organization.¹⁶

The principles of standardization directly oppose the principles of individual attention. This dichotomy places much pressure on the classroom teachers in the public schools as they attempt to satisfy both sets of principles. The principles of standardization seem to be defined by the employer (the organization in which one works) and imposed on the employee by his own orientation toward organizational rules. The principles of individual attention seem to be defined by students and also imposed on a teacher by his orientation to organizational rules. Thus the teacher is placed in a dilemma, the severity of which is apparently determined by his own orientation and perception. The problem is whether to serve the individual expectations of his students, which would require him to minimize his conformity to organizational rules, or whether to maximize his conformity to organizational rules and thus minimize the efforts he directs toward meeting the individual expectations of his students. His teaching proficiency (ability to meet client expectations) would, to some extent, depend on his ability to handle the

¹⁶Wingo, loc. cit., p. 854.

pressures resulting from his perception of the degree of standardization imposed on him by the stance of the principal and the teacher's orientation toward rules.

The process of dealing with the dilemma which results from attempting to fulfill the individual expectations of his students and, at the same time, attempting to comply with the standardized procedures of the organization may be clarified to some extent by an examination of the teacher's position in the bureaucratic structure of the school. Bidwell's statement succinctly described this position:

The problem of dealing with variability in student abilities and accomplishment, during the school year, thus is vested in the classroom teacher, and one important component of his professional skill is ability to handle day-to-day fluctuations in response to instruction by individual students and collectively by the classroom group. At the same time, his bureaucratic office is a means by which the school system administration can insure adherence to universalistic criteria in these decisions. Consequently, an important facet of school-system organization is the autonomy granted to - or perhaps demanded by - the teacher as a professional to make discretionary judgements about procedures to be used during the time the student group is in his charge.¹⁷

Bidwell's observation seems to imply that teacher autonomy reflects what he refers to as a "structural looseness" within the school system. He stated further, "The teacher works alone within the classroom, relatively hidden from his colleagues and superiors, so that he has a broad discretionary jurisdiction within the boundaries of his classroom."¹⁸

¹⁷Bidwell, loc. cit., p. 975.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 975.

The teacher's success or failure in fulfilling the expectations of his students may depend on the discretionary judgements he makes within the confines of his classroom. Even though the "structural looseness," described by Bidwell, permits some teacher autonomy in making discretionary judgements, his decisions are often influenced by rules and regulations of the school. Kidd¹⁹ observed that in bureaucratic organizations, the basis of the decision-making process often evolves from a series of rules and regulations, which are a part of the institution. This seems to obviate, to some extent, the necessity of employees concerning themselves with many decisions. However, when discretionary judgements are necessary, the rules and regulations are often interpreted and applied differently by various individuals within the organization.

The writer assumes that discretionary decisions made by teachers many times are dependent upon the teachers' interpretation of and adherence to organizational rules and regulations and that the success of these decisions as related to the fulfillment of student expectations depend upon three variables: (1) the teacher's orientation toward rules, (2) the extent to which the teacher perceives the principal's stance with regard to his interpretation of

¹⁹James L. Kidd, "A Study of Principals' Belief Systems and Rule Orientation as Related to School Organization Bureaucracy," (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, The University of Oklahoma, 1966), p. 5.

organizational rules, and (3) the pressure resulting from the difference existing between the teacher's rule orientation and his perception of the principal's stance toward rules.

At this point, one might hypothesize: In the bureaucratic secondary schools of America, the less rule oriented the teacher, the more rule oriented he will perceive the principal. As the difference between his rule orientation and his perception of the rule orientation of the principal becomes greater, the amount of organizational press increases, and the teacher's ability to fulfill his student's expectations decreases. Conversely, the more rule oriented the teacher, the less rule oriented he will perceive the principal. As the difference between his rule orientation and his perception of the rule orientation of the principal becomes greater, the amount of organizational press increases, and the teacher's ability to fulfill his student's expectations decreases. Thus, the more congruent the teacher's orientation toward rules and his perception of the principal's orientation toward rules, the more adept he will be in meeting the expectations of his students. One might further hypothesize that deviations from the hypothesized relationship between organizational press and the fulfillment of student's expectations could be explained by identifying factors or constructs which may underlie the process of fulfilling student's expectations and which are affected by the teacher's sex, age, teaching experience and academic preparation.

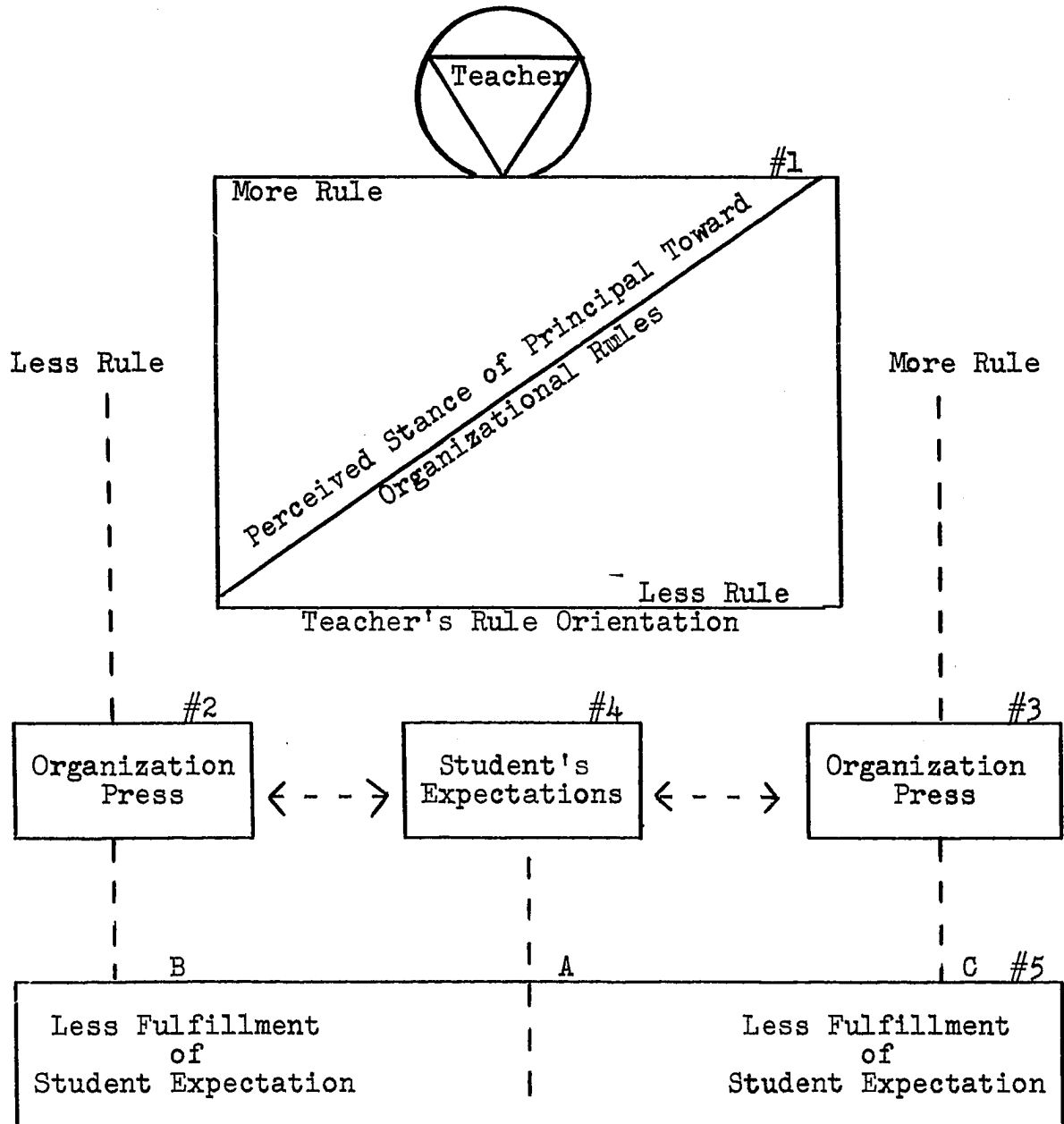
Purpose of the Study

The basic purpose of this study was to determine some reasons why teachers' ability to fulfill students's expectations vary from teacher to teacher within the structure of a bureaucratic secondary school. Characteristically, bureaucratic organizations tend to limit the need for discretionary judgements by individual staff members, but rather depend on a series of standardized rules and regulations, which serve as a basis for decision-making individuals. It was the purpose of this investigation to examine the extent to which organizational pressures, resulting from the standardizing process, affected the classroom teacher in his efforts to fulfill the expectations of his students.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to determine whether the extent to which teachers vary in their ability to fulfill the expectations of the student was related to (1) the orientation of the teacher toward rules in discretionary decision-making situations, (2) the extent to which teachers perceived the principal's stance toward rules, and (3) the amount of press perceived by the teacher, as determined by the difference existing between independent variables number one and number two.

The following is a diagram of the problem under consideration:



EXTENT TO WHICH TEACHERS
FULFILL THEIR STUDENT'S EXPECTATIONS

The inverted triangle contains the subject of the study, the secondary school teacher. The circle surrounding the teacher represents the bureaucratic school within which the teacher must function.

Panel #1: The first panel illustrates both the extent to which the teacher is oriented toward rules and the extent to which he perceives the principal to be rule oriented. The principal is never perceived as being completely rule oriented or non-rule oriented; however, the more rule oriented the teacher, the less rule oriented he will perceive the principal; the less rule oriented the teacher, the more rule oriented he will perceive the principal.

Panel #2: The second panel illustrates the organizational press perceived by the less rule oriented teacher. As the amount of press decreases, as indicated by the horizontal dotted line leading from the panel, the teacher's ability to fulfill his student's expectations will increase.

Panel #3: The third panel illustrates the organizational press perceived by the more rule oriented teacher. As the amount of press decreases, as indicated by the horizontal dotted line leading from the panel, the teacher's ability to fulfill his student's expectations will increase.

Panel #4: The fourth panel illustrates the expectations of the teacher's students.

Panel #5: The fifth panel illustrates the extent to which teachers meet the expectations of their students. Point B

represents less fulfillment of student's expectations by the less rule oriented teacher who perceives himself as being burdened by excessive organizational press. Point C represents less fulfillment of student's expectations by the more rule oriented teacher who perceives himself as being burdened by excessive organizational press. Point A represents a complete fulfillment of student's expectations, toward which teachers presumably move as the perceived organizational press decreases.

The following null hypotheses will be tested relative to the major problem:

Ho 1: There will be no significant difference in the extent to which the more rule oriented teacher and the less rule oriented teacher perceive their principal's orientation toward rules.

Ho 2: There will be no significant difference between the extent to which teachers fulfill the expectations of their students and their individual orientation toward rules.

Ho 3: There will be no significant difference between the degree of principal rule orientation perceived by teachers and their ability to fulfill the expectations of their students.

Ho 4: There will be no significant difference between the amount of organizational press felt by teachers and the extent to which they fulfill the expectations of their students.

In addition, the following sub null hypotheses were tested:

Sub Ho 1: There will be no significant difference between the age of the teacher and the extent to which he fulfills the expectations of his students.

Sub Ho 2: There will be no significant difference between the sex of the teacher and the extent to which he fulfills the expectations of his students.

Sub Ho 3: There will be no significant difference between the length of time a teacher has been teaching and the extent to which he fulfills the expectations of his students.

Sub Ho 4: There will be no significant difference between the amount of academic training of a teacher and the extent to which he fulfills the expectations of his students.

Significance of the Study

The identification of variables that affect the classroom teacher's ability to fulfill the expectations of his students is viewed as a contribution to the understanding of the teaching process. An identification and examination of the factors or constructs which underlie the fulfillment of students' expectations are considered to provide additional enlightenment to the process of teaching. It is important to understand the significance of organizational press which is placed on a teacher by his perceptions of the principal's orientation toward rules as related to his own rule orientation.

How a teacher reacts to this perceived pressure is considered to represent a contribution toward the study of bureaucratic organizations and their impact on the field of education.

Definition of Terms

Bureaucracy. Conceived as the ideal type, which rarely exists, bureaucracy refers to principles of organization that find varying degrees of expression in a wide variety of organizations. The characteristics are: (1) fixed and jurisdictional areas for members; (2) a graded system of centralized authority; (3) a system of central files; (4) a set of special skills called office management; (5) official activities which demand the full time of personnel; and (6) systematic and general rules which define procedure and which are followed.

Discretionary Decision Making. This refers to the process of making choices within a framework which will allow some degree of flexibility in judgement and eventual choice.

Secondary Schools. As applied to this study, the reference to secondary schools will be used to identify those schools which include the last three or four years in the public schools and are commonly referred to as high schools. The grades included are sometimes nine through twelve and sometimes ten through twelve.

Rule Oriented. This refers to one who is inclined to use rules and regulations to govern decisions; in this case, rules tend to become ends rather than means.

Non-Rule Oriented. This refers to one who usually relies less on rules and regulations to guide decisions; in this case, rules tend to become means rather than ends.

Principal's Rule Orientation. This refers to the extent to which the teacher perceives the principal to expect staff members to rely on rules and regulations to guide them in the decision making process.

Organizational Press. This refers to a situation in which an individual's orientation toward rules and his perceptions of the principal's orientation toward rules are not congruent. The greater the difference, the more pronounced the press.

Standardization. In this study, this refers to a series of organizational rules and regulations.

Limitations of Study

Certain factors circumscribed this study. The study was limited to teachers and students in a single large high school in the State of Oklahoma. The sample was further limited to fifty-five teachers and eight hundred eighty students of that school. It was limited further still by the rating devices and by those to which all value judgements are subject.

Data Collection

Data related to the rule orientation of teachers, the perceived rule orientation of principals and the extent

to which teachers fulfill student expectations were collected to statistically test the hypotheses of the study. An orientation meeting was held for the purpose of explaining the study to the participating teachers. A packet of material was given to each teacher. Each teacher was requested to respond to a questionnaire-type instrument which measured the rule orientation of the teacher, the extent to which the teacher perceived the principal to be rule oriented, and the amount of stress perceived by the teacher as a result of the difference between teacher's rule orientation and teacher's perception of the principal's orientation toward rules. Teachers were asked to administer a questionnaire-type instrument to a random selection of students in their classes. This instrument measured the extent to which teachers fulfill the expectations of their students. All instruments were returned to the writer in sealed envelopes by selected non-participating students. A more detailed discussion of data collection and data-collecting techniques may be found in Chapter III.

Overview of the Study

This study is presented in five chapters. The first chapter includes the introduction and an identification of the problem investigated. The second chapter deals with a study of selected literature related to the problem. The third chapter describes the design of the study and the data collection instruments employed in the investigation. The

fourth chapter presents the analysis and interpretation of the collected data. The fifth chapter contains a summary, conclusions, and the writer's recommendations, all of which resulted from this study.

CHAPTER II

RELATED RESEARCH

Introduction

The problem under investigation was concerned with the teacher's success in meeting his students' expectations within the confines of a school bureaucracy. How the process was affected by the teacher's perceptions and interpretations of organizational rules and policies was the focal point of the problem. The problem being researched is illustrated by a diagram model presented in Chapter I. The elements which comprise the several parts of the model were conceptualized through a review of three areas of literature which are related to the problem under discussion. The three areas of literature germane to the composition of the model are:

(1) student satisfaction, (2) rule orientation, and (3) bureaucracy and dilemmas of individuals within bureaucracies. This summary of the literature was divided into the above categories and presented under separate headings as they related to the various elements of the writer's model.

Student Satisfaction

The lower panel of the model is concerned with indicating the extent to which the teacher meets the

expectations of his students. The perceived expectations of students is characterized as ranging along a continuum from less fulfillment to more fulfillment. The measurement and consequent location of the extent of fulfillment is determined by the perceptions of the surveyed students. The literature related to student satisfaction is presented in two parts. Each part was influential in the construction of the model's lower panel. The two parts are: (1) perceptions of individuals, and (2) student-teacher relationships as related to teacher traits.

Perceptions of Individuals

In this study, the measurement of the extent to which the teacher fulfills the expectations of his students is based on ratings made by the students. An argument is not proposed that is intended to defend student perceptions as the only or best way of rating teachers, but rather, that it is an acceptable means that has been employed for that purpose by previous researchers. According to Wingo,¹ sampling the opinions and attitudes of students is used extensively to determine the connection between the total learning accomplishments of students and the personal relations of students and teachers.

The notion that student perceptions are an important aspect of teacher evaluation was implied by Kimball Wiles.

¹Wingo, loc. cit., p.848.

He stated, "Recent studies in the field of perception indicate that each person perceives in terms of his background, his purposes, and his needs."² Cantril³ suggested that the ultimate criterion against which to judge the rightness or goodness of any action is whether or not the individual himself senses that it will contribute in the long run to the possibility of his experiencing greater satisfaction in living. Combs and Snygg commented further on perception. They stated, "People do not behave according to facts as others see them. They behave according to facts as they see them."⁴

Some studies have been interested in ascertaining whether or not increased understanding of pupils social perceptions, by teachers, would have an effect on pupil's ratings of their teachers. One such study by Gage, Leavitt, and Stone⁵ provided findings that were pertinent to the issue. In that study, the widely accepted proposition that increased understanding of pupils by teachers would increase pupils' rating of teachers, was empirically tested. The terms understanding and perceptions were used interchangeably.

²Wiles, loc. cit., p. 14.

³Hadley Cantril, The "Why" of Man's Experience (New York: The MacMillan Co., 1950), p. 166.

⁴Combs and Snygg, loc. cit., p. 17.

⁵N. L. Gage, G. S. Leavitt, and G. C. Stone, "Teachers' Understanding of their Pupils and Pupils' Ratings of their Teachers," Psychological Mimeographs, 69, 21, (New York: 1955).

The findings revealed only one significant correlation between the understanding measure and the pupils' teacher rating device. The teachers' accuracy in perceiving the social perceptions of his students seemed to have little to do with the student-teacher interaction and therefore with the pupils' rating of their teacher.

A study by Ojemann and Wilkinson,⁶ produced evidence that indicated that an increase in the teacher's knowledge of his students' adjustment problems had a tendency to produce an increase in the students' academic accomplishments, their motivation toward school, and enjoyment of school. However, the study did not test the proposition of an increase in teacher understanding and its impact on teacher ratings by students.

The two previously cited studies were both concerned with investigating the relationships existing between teacher's understanding of pupils and its affect on pupils' ratings of teachers. Even though similar in appearance, there was a difference in the approach toward pupil understanding. Gage's study was concerned with the teacher's understanding the child's social perceptions and Ojemann's study investigated the teacher's understanding of the child's adjustment problems. The results of these studies imply that a teacher's increased

⁶Ralph J. Ojemann and F. R. Wilkinson, "The Effect on Pupil Growth of an Increase in Teacher Understanding of Pupil Behavior," Journal of Experimental Education, VIII (May, 1939), p. 146.

understanding of his pupils' adjustment problems would affect pupil's ratings of teachers to a greater extent than an increased understanding of the pupil's social perceptions.

Student-Teacher Relationships as Related to Teacher Traits

The notion that the establishment of a good student-teacher relationship and desirable teacher traits were related positively to the teaching-learning process receives near universal assent. Wingo's statement, previously cited, implies a positive relationship between student-teacher satisfaction and teaching effectiveness. Studies dealing with the identification of elements contributing to successful teaching suggest that the student-teacher relationship is an important factor. A study by Bush⁷ found that no single factor can be the cause of good teaching, but it maintained, on the basis of the findings, that the student-teacher relationship is one of the most important. In summary, Bush concluded that the effective teacher, among other things, must establish and maintain a satisfying and productive relationship between himself and his students. Bush warned that the establishment of a satisfying relationship is a complex undertaking. He noted, "One factor that may explain the complexity of the process is that teachers and students are striving to realize a variety of purposes."⁸

⁷Bush, loc. cit., pp. 645-656.

⁸Ibid., p. 651.

Findings by Tiedemann recognized the necessity of a good student-teacher relationship. Results of his study pointed out that teachers who were disliked by students were the domineering, authoritarian persons. The older the student the more intense the dislike. He said, "If pupils and teachers work in harmony, with a mutual feeling of understanding and cooperation, a friendly atmosphere will result which is conducive to effective learning."⁹

Results of Brookover's¹⁰ research were able to produce evidence showing that a student who had a high degree of person-to-person interaction with a given teacher also tended to rank that teacher high with respect to general teaching competence. Further, his evidence indicated that teachers who show a high degree of person-to-person interactions with many students, tend to be ranked high as an instructor.

Torgerson¹¹ indicated that the fundamental importance of the student-teacher relationship was self-evident because of its necessity to the promotion of what he called "optimum conditions for learning." He further suggested that in order to create a wholesome relationship in the classroom, it is

⁹Stuart C. Tiedemann, "A Study of Pupil-Teacher Relationships," Journal of Educational Research, XXV (May, 1942), p. 659.

¹⁰Wilbur B. Brookover, "Person-to-Person Interaction Between Teachers and Pupils and Teaching Effectiveness," Journal of Educational Research, XXXIV (June, 1940), pp. 272-287.

¹¹T. L. Torgerson, "The Measurement and Prediction of Teaching Ability," Review of Educational Research, VII, (June, 1937), p. 246.

necessary to properly integrate certain teacher traits, attitudes and procedures.

Other studies have produced data that have identified teacher traits that are desirable to students. One such study by Bollinger¹² was able to show that students admired such traits in teachers as even-temperament, command of subject matter, and high ideals. However, Bollinger's study made no attempt to empirically test whether or not this admiration affected students' rating of teachers.

A study by Witty¹³ showed that there was a great consistency in the teacher traits most admired by students. Witty noted that, in general, students felt that teachers who were warm and friendly with well adjusted personalities were preferable to those who lacked these qualities. In his study, students mentioned specific skills in teaching as a specific item, but they ranked it well below the various personal qualities.

In his study of the behavior and characteristics of teachers, Ryan¹⁴ factor-analyzed actual observations of classroom behavior. Judges observed large numbers of elementary and secondary teachers and rated them on a number of

¹²Russell V. Bollinger, "Social Impact of the Teacher on the Pupil," Journal of Educational Research, XII (September, 1945), pp. 153-173.

¹³Witty, loc. cit., p. 668.

¹⁴D. G. Ryan, Characteristics of Teachers: Their Descriptions, Comparison and Appraisal, (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1960), Chapter 4.

characteristics using a seven-point rating scale. Ryan's analyzing and interpreting of the elementary and secondary teachers came to the conclusion that there are three correlated factors, or sets of characteristics or behaviors that stand out and that may be common to both elementary and secondary school teachers: (1) understanding, friendliness, responsiveness vs. aloofness, egocentricism, (2) responsible, business-like, systematic vs. evading, unplanned, slipshod, and (3) stimulating, imaginative, original vs. dull, routine. The characteristics and traits, of public school teachers, identified by Ryan are quite similar to the behavioral expectations identified by the present study. Both studies investigated teacher traits through a factor analysis approach.

Rule Orientation

The upper panel of the writer's model illustrates the extent to which the teacher is oriented toward organizational rules. It further shows the extent to which the teacher perceives his principal to be oriented toward those same rules. The model predicts that there is a difference in the degree to which the teacher is oriented toward rules and the degree to which he thinks his principal is oriented toward rules. The model predicts further, that as this difference increases, the teacher's ability to meet the expectations of his students will decrease. And, as the difference decreases, the teacher's ability to meet the expectations of his students will increase.

Weber's bureaucracy, as described by Gerth and Mills,¹⁵ emphasized the importance of rules, regulations, and procedures. They further noted that the objective of a bureaucratic structure is to discharge business, and the primary means of discharging business is through the application of and adherence to a group of calculable rules and without regard for person. This description discounted the feelings of the individual in the organization and placed emphasis on blind obedience.

Gouldner¹⁶ was critical of the manner in which Weber disposed of the matter of rule application in his model bureaucracy. His contention was that Weber tacitly assumed that the cultural setting of any specific bureaucracy would be neutral toward the various methods of initiating bureaucratic rules. In an extensive case history of a gypsum plant organization, Gouldner¹⁷ considered some variables that were almost ignored in Weber's theory of bureaucracy. These variables were concerned with (1) how and by whom the rules were initiated, and (2) to whom must the rules be beneficial if the bureaucratic authority is to be effective. Gouldner's findings suggested that the bureaucracy of institutions could be categorized into three types, depending on whether or not they enforced rules and the manner of enforcement. These types

¹⁵Max Weber: "Bureaucracy," eds. Hans Gerth and C. Wright Mills: From Max Weber: (New York: Oxford University Press, Inc., 1946), p. 196.

¹⁶Alvin W. Gouldner, Patterns of Industrial Bureaucracy, (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1964), p. 19.

¹⁷Ibid., p. 19.

are as follows: (1) "mock" form, in which rules are neither enforced by management nor obeyed by workers; (2) "representative" form, in which rules are enforced by management, obeyed by workers, and supported by informal sentiments of both groups, and (3) "punishment centered" form in which the rules are enforced by one group and violated by another.

The groups responsible for answering to rules and initiating of rules in the public schools were identified by Kidd's¹⁸ study. His data-collecting instrument, employed for the purpose of measuring rule orientation of school principals, consisted of twenty rule judgement cases. These cases were categorized as: (1) rules for students, (2) rules for teachers, (3) rules by the school board, and (4) rules by the teachers.

The model characterizes rule orientation as varying along a continuum from less rule orientation to more rule orientation. The rule orientation of individual teachers, within the same school, may be located at different points along the continuum. The locations of these points are determined by the responses of the various teachers to Kidd's instrument. Kidd¹⁹ noted that rules and policies are interpreted and applied differently within the organization's established

¹⁸James L. Kidd, "A Study of Principals' Belief Systems and Rule Orientation as Related to School Organization Bureaucracy," (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Norman, Oklahoma: The University of Oklahoma, 1967), p. 41.

¹⁹Ibid., p. 42.

framework. An observation by Merton²⁰ pointed out that adherence to rules was necessary if a bureaucracy was to operate successfully. He indicated that individuals within the bureaucracy of an organization reacted to organizational rules and policies in different degrees. He said that some individual's adherence to rules is often more intense than is technically necessary. He summarized his stance as follows:

This action may be exaggerated to the point where primary concern with conformity to rules interferes with the achievement of purposes of the organization, in which case we have the familiar phenomenon of the technicism or red tape of the official. An extreme product of this process of displacement of goals is the bureaucratic virtuoso, who never forgets a single rule binding his action and hence is unable to assist many of his clients.²¹

The study's model predicts that the rule orientation of a teacher will affect his ability to meet the expectations of his students. Whether or not a teacher can serve his students while following the rules and procedures of the school is a basic issue of the writer's study. A study by Francis and Stone²² investigated the procedural orientation of employees to clients in a state employment agency. This

²⁰Robert K. Merton, Social Theory and Social Structure, (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1949), pp. 151-160.

²¹Ibid., p. 155.

²²R. G. Francis and R. C. Stone, Service and Procedure in Bureaucracy, (Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1956).

study was based on data collected by a questionnaire administered to forty-three individuals applying for employment benefits and an examination of personal inter-relationships among approximately one hundred employees. The research found an emphasis on service as well as on following the rules. Their findings indicated that the impersonality of the bureaucracy is paralleled by a system of highly personal relations within the organization. The results of this study imply that rule obedience and client service may be accomplished simultaneously.

Bureaucracy

The inverted triangle in the model's diagram contains the subject of the study, the secondary school teacher. The circle surrounding the teacher represents the bureaucratic school within which the teacher must operate.

A large body of literature has been published relating to the study of bureaucracy. The fields of sociology, business, government, and industry have been major contributors of information concerning this area. Consequently, much of this section will deal with reviewing the theories and findings of authors concerned with the study of institutional bureaucracy and its relationship to these disciplines. Due to limitations of space, only those materials that are analogous to the teacher's position in the bureaucracy will be included.

Presthus²³ reported that Max Weber provided classical analysis of the bureaucratic organization. He felt that Weber strongly believed that bureaucracy is an absolute essential way of organizing both the modern state and the corporation. Presthus cited the following statements of Weber to lend support to his observation:

The decisive reason for the advance of bureaucratic organization has always been its purely technical superiority over any other form or organization.... Precision, speed, unambiguity, knowledge of files, continuity, discretion, strict subordination, reduction of friction and of material and personal cost--these are raised to the optimum point in the strictly bureaucratic administration.²⁴

Ideally, this system eliminates "from official business, love, hatred, and all purely personal, irrational, and emotional elements which escape calculation."²⁵

Merton²⁶ reflected that the outstanding attributes of bureaucracy are its technical efficiency, with a premium being placed on speed, provisions, expert control, continuity, discretion, and optimal returns for input.

Weber pointed out the following six basic characteristics of the bureaucratic structure:

²³Robert Presthus, The Organizational Society (New York: Vintage Books, 1962), p. 4.

²⁴Ibid., pp. 4-5.

²⁵Ibid., p. 5.

²⁶Robert K. Merton, "Bureaucratic Structure and Personality," Reader in Bureaucracy (New York: The Free Press, 1952), pp. 361-370.

1. There is the principle of fixed and official jurisdictional areas which are generally ordered by rules; that is, by laws or administrative regulations.
2. The principle of office hierarchy and levels of graded authority mean a firmly ordered system of super- and subordination in which there is a supervision of the lower officials by higher ones. Such a system offers the governed the possibility of appealing the decision of a lower office to its higher authority in a definitely regulated manner.
3. The management of the modern office is based upon written documents ("the files"), which are preserved in their original or draft form.
4. Office management, at least, all specialized office management--and such management is distinctly modern--usually presupposes thorough and expert training.
5. When the office is fully developed, official activity demands the full working capacity of the official, irrespective of the fact that his obligatory time in the bureau may be firmly delimited.
6. The management of the office follows general rules which are more or less stable, more or less exhaustive, and which can be learned. Knowledge of these rules represents special technical learning which the official possesses. It involves jurisprudence, or administrative, or business management.

The reduction of the modern office management to rules is deeply embedded in its very nature.²⁷

The bureaucratic characteristics of organization noted by Weber, and frequently voiced by other authorities, are often identified with political institutions only; however, they are present in all social situations, whether business,

²⁷Weber, op. cit., pp. 196-198.

corporations, industry, churches, universities, or school systems.²⁸ Chapin's stance that school systems incorporate some of the principles of bureaucracy is supported by Corwin. He analyzed American schools in regard to several variables relevant for assessing bureaucratic organization. Corwin's analysis found, "Complex organizations in American society are bureaucratized, and schools are no exception."²⁹

This study is concerned with discerning whether or not certain aspects of bureaucratic organization have a measureable effect on teachers and students within the public schools. The model predicts that school rules have varying degrees of influence on the individual teacher and his relationship with his students.

Weber gave consideration to the position of the official. He stated:

- I. Office holding is a 'vocation'...Entrance into an office, including one in the private economy, is considered an acceptance of a specific obligation of faithful management in return for a secure existence.
- II. The personal position of an official is patterned in the following ways:
 1. Whether he is in a private office or a public bureau, the modern official always strives and usually enjoys a distinct social esteem.
 2. The pure type of bureaucratic official is appointed by a superior authority. An official elected by the governed is not a purely bureaucratic figure.

²⁸Stuart Chapin, "The Growth of Bureaucracy: An Hypothesis," American Sociological Review, XVI (1951), p. 835.

²⁹Corwin, loc. cit., p. 13.

3. Normally, the position of the official is held for life, at least in public bureaucracies; and this is increasingly the case for all similar structures. As a factual rule, tenure for life is presupposed, even where the giving of notice or periodic reappointment occurs.
4. The official receives the regular pecuniary compensation of a normally fixed salary and the old age security provided by a pension. The salary is not measured like a wage in terms of work done, but according to 'status', that is, according to length of service.
5. The official is set for a 'career' within the hierarchical order of the public service. He moves from lower, less important, and lower paid to the higher positions.³⁰

The Weberian model of bureaucracy has been used by numerous investigators as a basis for the study of various organizations. Litwak³¹ made the point that Weber's bureaucracy was most efficient when the institution was faced with uniform and routine events. Charter noted that the public schools, and especially the teaching function, could not be considered routine. He said, "If teaching was an entirely routine, entirely determined process occurring in an unchanging environment, few problems of coordination would arise."³²

³⁰Weber, op. cit., pp. 437-438.

³¹Eugene Litwak, "Models of Bureaucracy Which Permit Conflict," The American Journal of Sociology, LVII, (September, 1961), pp. 177-184.

³²W. W. Charter, Jr., "An Approach to the Formal Organization of the School," Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, The Sixty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Chicago, Illinois: University of Chicago Press, 1964), p. 254.

It is for this reason, according to Charter, that educators place so much emphasis upon having well-trained, intelligent people to carry out the instructional task; they must rely heavily upon teachers' moment-to-moment judgements in deciding what to do next.

According to Bidwell, "There is no existing study of the prevalence of incident either of structure or process in school systems or of their consequences for school system operation."³³ He pointed out, however, that there are two theoretical commentaries on the office of teacher and its relationship to students. Both Naegle³⁴ and Wilson³⁵, from a theoretical point of view, discerned the functional dilemmas in teaching. Bidwell summed their arguments:

Since teaching is a form of socialization, the teacher must, in the nature of the process, interact affectively with students and develop particularistic relations with them. At the same time, his organizational and broader social obligations to produce competent recruits for adult roles, and the need for classroom order, impose on him the necessity to judge and to punish impartially and universalistically...The act of teaching, in other words, is at once compatible and incompatible with the bureaucratic setting.³⁶

³³Bidwell, op. cit., p. 992.

³⁴K. D. Naegle, "Clergymen, Teachers and Psychiatrists: A Study in Rules and Socialization," Canadian Journal of Economic and Political Science, XXII, (October, 1956), pp. 46-62.

³⁵B. R. Wilson, "The Teachers Role: A Sociological Analysis," British Journal of Sociology, VIII, (March, 1962), pp. 15-32.

³⁶Bidwell, op. cit., p. 993.

Corwin's³⁷ dissertation examined inconsistencies between professional and bureaucratic employee roles. A group of several hundred nurses were given questionnaires consisting of three scales designed to assess bureaucratic, professional, and service role conceptions. The evidence suggested that bureaucratic and professional roles conflict. Persons who subscribed strongly to both roles simultaneously reported that they were considerably less able to carry out their ideal roles in practice than were persons who subscribed to only one dominant role. Similar patterns were found for each role among both student nurses and nurse groups when they were considered separately as well. Simultaneous stress on both bureaucratic and professional roles resulted in relatively greater deprivation of professional role than when bureaucratic and less professional role conceptions were stressed simultaneously, whereas this latter style of role organization had contrary effects on bureaucratic deprivation.

Summary

Even though many studies have been concerned with the teacher's abilities to fulfill his student's needs and expectations, they have not been connected with the role orientation of the teacher. A few studies have explored rules,

³⁷Ronald G. Corwin, "Rule Conception and Mobility Aspiration: A Study in the Formation and Transformation of Nursing Identities," (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation: The University of Minnesota, 1960), p. 151.

regulations, and policies in a bureaucracy, but these have been restricted to areas other than the public schools. For example, Francis and Stone's investigation of rules and their effects on interpersonal relationships in a state public employment office. Though not directly related to the study conducted by the writer, both investigations are concerned with surveying employee rule orientation and its effect on client service.

The case history of the gypsum plant, undertaken by Gouldner, categorized organizations into bureaucratic types through an analysis of the methods of rule application and enforcement. The present study is concerned with the teacher's perceptions of how strict the principal is in the matter of rules and the enforcement of rules.

Kidd's study provides an association between the rule orientation of school principals and its relationship to the degree of organizational bureaucracy perceived by teachers. Although the writer's study does not measure the degree of rule orientation of the principal, some of its conclusions are based on the measurement of the teacher's perceptions of the rule orientation of the school principal.

Much of the literature is devoted to theoretical discussions centering on the importance of rules and regulations and their application to the model bureaucracy described by Max Weber. Merton's indication that dogmatic adherence to organizational rules and procedures may produce some serious

dysfunctions with regard to the fulfillment of clients' needs and expectations was supported by the findings of this dissertation.

Charter's observations regarding the manner in which the classroom teacher handled moment-to-moment decisions and its relationship to his operational efficiency was supported by certain data of this study. The writer found that the flexible or less rule oriented teacher, fulfilled the expectations of his students to a greater extent than did the more rule oriented teacher.

Many other relationships can be seen between the writer's findings and the literature. However, space limitations in this summary prohibit identifications and comparisons of these relationships.

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CHAPTER III
RESEARCH DESIGN: SAMPLE, INSTRUMENTATION,
STATISTICAL METHOD

Sample

One of the gravest dilemmas facing education today is the perplexing problem of meeting the expectations of individual students within the complex structures of large public secondary schools. Therefore, the faculty and a sampling of students from a large public high school were selected because of their appropriateness for this study. The study involved teachers that are confronted with the task of meeting particularistic expectations of individual students while being obligated to meet universalistic criteria of the organization and student's perceptions of the extent to which teachers meet these expectations. An investigation of this type made it possible to study this particular aspect of the student-teacher relationship in an operational setting.

The secondary school selected for this sample is among the largest twelve high schools in the State of Oklahoma. It has a student enrollment of approximately 2,000 pupils; there are 75 teachers and an administrative staff consisting of 1 principal, 3 assistant principals, 7 departmental chairmen,

and 3 counselors. Of this number, the final sample was composed of 55 teachers and 880 students.

One of the problems encountered in the study was that of assuring anonymity for those individuals involved and at the same time securing maximum and sincere responses. Consequently, it was necessary for the data collection procedure to be designed in such a manner that the respondents were assured that they would not be identified. The reliability of the responses was thought to be enhanced by the adopted procedure. The only follow-up on teachers and students was in the form of a thank you note which was read to the students, by their teachers, one week after the data was collected.

An outline of the procedures that were used in collecting data from the sample is given in the following description:

1. A personal conference was held with the principal of the school being investigated. In this conference, the nature of the study was explained. A request was made for his assistance in soliciting the cooperation of the teachers and students who were to be involved in the study. After the principal granted permission to conduct the study in the high school, arrangements were made to meet with selected teachers for the purpose of outlining the study and acquainting them with the procedures to be followed.

2. In the meeting with the teachers, the study was outlined and the data collecting process was explained.

3. According to the plan, each of the teachers received a packet of materials consisting of the following: (1) a cover letter to the teacher; (2) a copy of the Principal Orientation Inventory to which they were asked to respond; (3) a cover letter to the student (one to every second student in the class); (4) a copy of the Student's Teacher Evaluation Inventory (one for every second student in the class); and (5) a self-addressed envelope for each teacher and each responding student.

4. An unrecorded number appeared on the Principal Orientation Inventory. This same number appeared on the Student's Teacher Evaluation Inventory. This procedure served to pair responses of the teachers and the students in their classes. In order to assure anonymity, names of teachers as well as students were eliminated.

5. Students were requested (in the cover letter) to complete the Student's Teacher Evaluation Inventory and place it in the envelope provided by the writer, seal it, and turn it in to an appointed student collector. The student collector then delivered the sealed response to the office where they were collected by the writer. The teacher was asked to turn her response in to the writer in the school office.

6. A thank you letter directed to the teachers and students (one for each class, to be read to students by the teacher) was supplied to the teachers one week after they received their packets.

Instrumentation

The measurements of the basic variables of this study were accomplished through the use of two questionnaire-type instruments: (1) the teacher's orientation toward rules, the extent to which the teacher perceives the principal's stance toward rules, and the amount of press on the teacher as determined by the difference existing between the teacher's rule orientation and his perception of the extent of the principal's stance toward rules as measured by the Principal Orientation Inventory;¹ and (2) the extent to which students perceive the fulfillment of their expectations by teachers as measured by the Student's Teacher Evaluation Inventory, an original instrument developed specifically to meet the needs of this study. These inventories and cover letters are included in Appendix A and B.

The Principal Orientation Inventory

The Principal Orientation Inventory was composed of twenty incidents designed to measure an individual's orientation towards the use of rules in discretionary decision-making situations. To obscure the basic measure of rule orientation, the title omitted any reference to rules.

The instrument was designed to yield three measurements: (1) the individual teacher's orientation toward rules;

¹Kidd, op. cit., pp. 101-105.

(2) the individual teacher's perception of the principal's stance toward rules; and (3) the extent of perceived organizational press imposed on the respondent.

The teacher's orientation toward rules was measured as follows: The instrument contained twenty short descriptive situations involving rules, regulations and policies pertaining to schools. In each instance, the principal involved in the incidents made some type of decision regarding interpretation or application of a rule. Respondents were instructed to mark their agreement or disagreement with the principal's decision on a five point scale: Strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, or strongly disagree. Eleven of the items were more rule oriented decisions and nine were less rule oriented decisions. Rule oriented responses were scored 5-1 from strongly agree to strongly disagree; less rule oriented responses were scored 1-5.

The individual teacher's perception of the principal's orientation toward rules was obtained by having the respondent mark what he thought his present principal would do in the same situation, on a five point scale, from always, often, undecided, seldom, to never. The responses to more rule oriented items were scored from 1-5, from always to never; the less rule oriented items were scored from 5-1. (The higher the score, the lesser the extent of perceived rule orientation of the principal.)

The perceived organizational press was obtained by calculating the difference in the scores of the individual teacher's rule orientation and the teacher's perception of the principal's rule orientation. The smaller the difference, the greater was the perceived press. The larger the difference, the less was the perceived organizational press.

Of the twenty items in Kidd's inventory, eleven were judged more rule oriented and nine were judged less rule oriented. A split-half coefficient of reliability of .79 on the pretested instrument was provided by Stanley's formula. The cases were broken down into incidents of school rules for students, incidents of rules for teachers, and incidents involving school board policy and rules made by teachers. Table 1 gives the item number of each category.

TABLE 1

CLASSIFICATION OF ITEMS ON THE
PRINCIPAL ORIENTATION INVENTORY

Type of Item	Rules for Students	Rules for Teachers	Sch. Bd. Policies	Rules by Teachers
Rule-Oriented	2, 9, 11, 12, 16, 18, 20	6, 19	10	14
Non-Rule Oriented	1, 3, 17	8, 13, 15	4, 7	5

Kidd stated:

The distribution of cases was not intended to represent the type of situations encountered most frequently by principals. However, this distribution did provide a range of items which involved discretionary decision making by school principals in the daily operation of their schools. The four areas designated in Table 1 do indicate a basic grouping which exists regarding rules, regulations, and policies which often demand decisions.²

Student's Teacher Evaluation Inventory

One of the variables requiring measurement in the writer's dissertation was that of measuring the extent to which teachers fulfill the expectations of their students. A review of the literature produced no instrument that would yield the desired measurement. Therefore, the writer undertook the task of constructing an inventory for that purpose. The following procedures were utilized in the production of the Student's Teacher Evaluation Inventory:

1. Two groups, composed of fifty students in each group, were selected at random from the student body of the surveyed school. The first group consisted of every thirty-eighth student as the names appeared in the alphabetized attendance registers of the school. The second group consisted of the students whose names appeared one line below the names of those students who composed the first group. The writer met with these groups, in separate meetings, and asked them to describe, on a provided form, what they expected of their teachers.

²Ibid., p. 41-42.

2. The writer and two experienced high school faculty members, each did a content analysis on the responses of each of the two groups. These six content analyses produced thirty statements of expectations that students have of their teachers.

3. The statements of expectations of each group were then ranked in accordance to their frequency of appearance. A non parametric statistical method (Spearman's rank order correlation coefficient) was used to identify the relationship existing between the statements of the two groups. The formula and results of Spearman's method were as follows:³

$$R=1 - \frac{6 \sum (x - y)^2}{N (N^2 - 1)} = \frac{6 \sum (1150.5)}{30 (899)} = \frac{6,903}{26,970} = .75$$

R was tested for significance by the use of the following conversion formula:⁴

$$Z = R \sqrt{N - 1}$$

$$Z = .75 \sqrt{29}$$

$$Z = .75 (5.385)$$

$$Z = 4.039$$

Z is significantly different from 0 at both the .05 and the .01 levels of significance to reject the null hypothesis that there is no correlation between the responses (statements) of the two randomly selected groups.

³George N. Weinburg and John Schumaker, Statistics: An Intuitive Approach (Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth Publishing Co., 1965), p. 293.

⁴Ibid., p. 296.

4. The thirty responses (statements of expectations) were then arranged into an inventory. The inventory was pre-tested by a group of fifty-five students which represented two classes of a high school teacher. The students were asked to mark an X in the column which best described the extent to which that specific teacher fulfilled the expectation suggested by each item. The columns were labeled never, sometimes, undecided, most of the time, and always. Numerical values ranging from one for never to five for always were assigned to each response except for items nineteen, twenty, and twenty-three, which were judged by a panel of judges described in procedure number five to be negative behavior for teachers. These three items were given numerical values of from one, for always, to five, for never. The students' responses were summed and these sums were assigned as scores for each individual student.

A split-half coefficient of reliability of .84 on the pre-tested instrument was provided by Stanley's formula. The formula and results are as follows:⁵

$$r_1 = 1 - \frac{D^2 d}{D^2 x} = 1 - \frac{27,225}{172,396} = 1 - .16 = .84$$

5. The method of obtaining test validity was to have qualified judges examine the material in regard to content and judge it according to what they felt students needed and

⁵Julian C. Stanley, "A Simplified Procedure for Estimating the Split-half Reliability Coefficient of a Test," Harvard Educational Review, XXI (Fall, 1951), pp. 221-224.

expected. In the development of this instrument, a panel of three judges, two high school principals, and a director of special services judged each item. These judgements were based on an accumulated experience of ninety-seven years in the public schools of Oklahoma.

The data collected by this instrument were factor analyzed for the purpose of identifying the number and nature of underlying constructs which might give further insight to the problem under examination. The constructs were labeled and the items underlying each factor were identified and categorized. The categories or dimensions were obtained through an analysis of the rotate factor matrix (see Appendix D). Items were placed in their respective factors by noting the highest absolute value of each item and identifying the factor under which that value was listed. Labeling of the items was accomplished through an analysis of the various clusters of items. The writer was assisted in this undertaking by Dr. Robert E. Ohm, Dean of the College of Education at the University of Oklahoma. Table 2 classified the items making up each dimension:

TABLE 2

CLASSIFICATION OF ITEMS ON THE
STUDENT'S TEACHER EVALUATION INVENTORY

Fulfillment Dimensions				
Teacher Behavioral Dimension	Mature, Understanding, Friendly	Teaching Competence	Inter-Personal Relations	Organized Efficient
Items	4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 12, 14, 22, 27, 30	13, 17, 18, 20, 24, 26, 28, 29	2, 3, 10 15, 16	1, 7, 11, 21, 25

Population Response

Each of the teachers engaged in teaching academic type classes in the selected high school were requested to complete the Principal Orientation Inventory. Each selected student was requested to complete the Student's Teacher Evaluation Inventory. The overall responses are indicated in Table 3.

TABLE 3

POPULATION RESPONSE

Individuals Surveyed	Number Surveyed	Responses	Percentage
Teachers	55	55	100
Students	880	880	100

Statistical Methods

The Principal Orientation Inventory and the Student's Teacher Evaluation Inventory were used to measure the rule orientation of individual teachers, the teacher's perception of the principal's stance toward rules, the amount of organizational press perceived by each teacher, and the extent to which each teacher fulfills the expectations of his students. These constituted the major variables of the study and were examined through the use of two non-parametric statistical tests. The Spearman's rank order correlation coefficient test was used to explore, (1) the relationship between the rule orientation of the teacher and his perception of the principal's stance toward organizational rules and (2) the relationship between the teacher's fulfillment of his student's expectations and the amount of organizational press perceived by the teacher. The following formula was employed:⁶

$$R = 1 - \frac{6 \sum (x - y)^2}{N(N^2 - 1)}$$

To determine the significance of the rank order correlation coefficient, the following transformation was used:⁷

$$Z = r\sqrt{N - 1}$$

Each relationship was tested under the null hypothesis of no significant difference at the .05 level of significance

⁶Weinburg, op. cit., p.293.

⁷Ibid., p. 293.

using a two tailed test. A Z score greater than 1.96 or less than -1.96 needed to be obtained in order to reject the null hypothesis and demonstrate that a significant relationship existed. Acceptance of the null hypothesis indicated that the data were not related at the .05 level of significance.

To examine (1) the relationship between the teacher's fulfillment of his student's expectations and the rule orientation of the teacher and (2) the relationship between the teacher's fulfillment of his student's expectations and his perception of the principal's stance toward rules, four-by-two cross breaks with three degrees of freedom were used. The following formula was utilized:⁸

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O - E)^2}{E}$$

Relationship number one was tested by placing each teacher in a quartile in accordance to his extent of rule orientation. The possible rankings were (1) low rule, (2) mid-low rule, (3) mid-high rule, and (4) high rule. Students were assigned to cells of the four-by-two cross breaks in accordance to (1) the extent to which their teacher was oriented toward rules, and (2) the extent to which their expectations were fulfilled. The extent of fulfillment of student's expectations was determined by calculating the mean

⁸Ibid., p. 219.

fulfillment of all students and assigning those students above the mean to high cells and those below the mean to low cells. The same procedure was followed to determine relationship number two. The derived chi-square needed to be larger than 7.82 with three degrees of freedom in order to reject the null hypothesis of no significant difference at the .05 level of significance and greater than 11.34 to reject it at the .01 level.

Statistical analysis of the variable of teacher's age, sex, amount of teaching experience, and amount of academic training in relationship to the extent to which teachers fulfilled the expectations of their students was treated through the use of the chi-square method. The following formula was used:⁹

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O - E)^2}{E}$$

A null hypothesis of no significant difference was used for each chi-square test at each expectation dimension. All tests were two-by-four crossbreak tables with one degree of freedom. In order to reject the null hypothesis of no significant difference, the derived chi-square needed to be larger than 3.84 at the .05 level of significance and larger than 6.64 at the .01 level.

The data derived from the Student's Teacher Evaluation Inventory were factor analyzed for the purpose of

⁹Ibid., p. 219.

identifying and labeling various dimensions which comprised the total process of expectation fulfillment. A thirty-by-thirty correlation matrix was constructed through the use of an IBM computer. The computer also produced a rotated factor matrix. The rotated factor matrix indicated existence of six underlying factors. Each item from the fulfillment inventory was assigned to its respective factor category by identifying the category under which the highest absolute factor loading of the item was located. Factors five and six were thought to be insignificant because each of these dimensions contained only one item. Therefore, the study was concerned with data categorized under factors one, two, three, and four which contained ten, eight, five, and five items respectively.

Scoring and Programming the Data

Fifty-five teachers were administered the Principal Orientation Inventory. Since the number was relatively small, these responses were scored by hand, and the results of the statistical tests which were applied to the data were derived through the use of an electrical desk calculator.

Eight hundred and eighty students were administered the Student's Teacher Evaluation Inventory. The data from this instrument were factor analyzed. In order to handle the complex computations and the large quantity of data involved, an IBM computer was employed. An individual mean score for each item on the inventory as marked by each teacher was hand scored and these scores were punched on IBM cards. The data

were then programmed on an IBM 1410 computer at the University of Oklahoma Computer Laboratory in order to obtain (1) a mean score for each item on the inventory, (2) a standard deviation for each item, (3) a thirty-by-thirty correlation matrix, and (4) a rotated factor matrix. The rotated factor matrix was analyzed for the purpose of identifying the four dimensions underlying the process of fulfillment of student's expectations.

A hand scoring template was devised and employed for the purpose of deriving (1) total scores for each student at each of the four dimensions and (2) the total score of each dimension for all students of each teacher. The data comprising the four dimension scores were calculated through the use of an electrical desk calculator. The results were then used in the several statistical tests which were appropriate to the investigation.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

The purpose of this chapter is to present an analysis and interpretation of the data and to compare the results with the results of previous research and theoretical commentaries. Data tables were utilized as a method of describing and presenting the treatments and results of the data. Raw data of the teacher's scores on the Principal Orientation Inventory and cumulative student scores, by teachers, of the extent to which teachers fulfill student expectations are presented in Appendix C. Each of the hypotheses used to test the theoretical diagrams of the study is used as a basis for discussion of the data contained in the study. Pertinent data to each hypothesis are presented in the various tables of the chapter.

The null hypothesis of no significant difference was used to test each stated hypothesis in the investigation. In order to prove significance, the .05 level of confidence was used. Tests which derived Z scores had to achieve a score of 1.96 to be significant at the .05 level of confidence and 2.58 at the .01 level. Chi-square tests were made through the use of both four-by-two crossbreak tables with three degrees

of freedom and two-by-two crossbreak tables with one degree of freedom. The chi-squares derived through the use of four-by-two crossbreak tables had to be larger than 7.82 to be significant at the .05 level of confidence and larger than 11.34 at the .01 level. The chi-squares derived through the use of the two-by-two crossbreak tables had to be larger than 3.84 to be significant at the .05 level of confidence and larger than 6.64 at the .01 level.

Presentation of Data

The various statistical tests employed in the study involved data derived from the responses of 55 teachers and 880 students. The 880 students were all members of the student body of the selected survey high school. The age, sex, or grade classification of the students were not considered in the study. Although additional findings may have been identified through recognition and treatment of data supplied by these variables, it was felt that these findings would not afford worthwhile contributions to the problem under investigation.

TABLE 4

DATA ON RESPONDING TEACHERS

<u>SEX</u>							
Male				Female			
<u>Number</u>		<u>Percentage</u>		<u>Number</u>		<u>Percentage</u>	
23		41.8		32		58.2	

<u>AGE</u>							
35-under		36-45		46-55		56-over	
<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>
16	29.1	14	25.4	11	20.1	14	25.4

<u>TEACHING EXPERIENCE</u>							
10 yrs-less		11-20 yrs		21-30 yrs		31 yrs-more	
<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>
22	40.0	16	29.1	8	14.6	9	16.3

<u>ACADEMIC TRAINING</u>							
Bachelors		Bachelors plus 15 hrs		Masters		Masters plus 15 hrs	
<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>
7	12.7	12	21.9	18	32.7	18	32.7

The variables of (1) sex, (2) age, (3) amount of professional training, and (4) the number of years of teaching experience of the surveyed teachers were all pertinent to the study. Table 4 provides a breakdown of this information on the responding teachers. It should be pointed out that 16.4 percent more female teachers were surveyed than were male teachers even though the faculty of the participating school was composed of approximately one-half females and one-half males. The difference in the proportion of male-female respondents can be explained by the fact that several of the male faculty members were involved in non-academic assignments. The age distribution of the respondents was fairly evenly distributed throughout the four age categories; however, there was a slight margin in the younger group. In number of years of experience, there was a decidedly larger percent in the ten years and under group. The second largest group was in the eleven to twenty years group. Only thirty percent of the respondents had more than twenty years teaching experience. The responding teachers' level of academic training showed sixty-five percent with Master's degrees or above and thirty-five percent with less than a Master's degree.

The total responding group contained approximately sixteen percent more females than males and may be described as an evenly distributed group in regard to the ages of its members. A majority of the teachers had taught school for less than twenty years. Approximately two-thirds of the

membership had earned graduate degrees and almost ninety percent of them had done some graduate work beyond the baccalaureate degree.

Rank order correlation methods were used to test Null Hypothesis 1 which states: There will be no significant difference in the extent to which the more rule oriented teacher and the less rule oriented teacher perceives their principal's orientation towards rules. Scores in Table 5 were ranked from 1 to 55, low scores to high scores, and the table consists of the ranks of teacher's scores on two scales of the Principal Orientation Inventory. Low scores represent low rule orientation of the teacher and high perception of the principal's stance toward rules, while high scores represent high rule orientation of the teacher and a low perceived stance of the principal toward rules. Because of a negative Z score produced by the data of this study, the construct that the rule orientation of the teacher varied conversely from the extent to which he perceived his principal to be oriented toward rules was rejected. However, the teacher who is less oriented toward rules is inclined to perceive his principal as being less rule oriented also. And, the teacher who is more rule oriented has a tendency to perceive his principal as being a more rule oriented individual. Therefore, the Null Hypothesis 1 of no significant difference at the .05 level of confidence was rejected. The rejection of a null hypothesis would ordinarily support a predictive

value of a model. However, the negative Z score derived from testing $H_0:1$ indicates that one prediction of this study's model is not accurate. The prediction that the rule orientation of a teacher would not be congruent with the teacher's perception of the principal's rule orientation is rejected by the findings of this study. Instead, the datum related to the testing of $H_0:1$ indicates a congruency between the teacher's rule orientation and his perception of the principal's stance toward rules.

TABLE 5

RANK ORDER CORRELATION OF TEACHER'S
RULE ORIENTATION AND TEACHER'S PERCEPTION
OF THE PRINCIPAL'S ORIENTATION TOWARD RULES

Teacher Rule Orien.	Tch's Percep* of Principal's Rule Orien.	Diff.	Teacher Rule Orien.	Tch's Percep* of Principal's Rule Orien.	Diff.
1.0	55.0	-54.0	27.0	33.0	- 6.0
2.0	37.0	-35.0	27.0	36.0	- 9.0
3.5	52.5	-49.0	30.5	21.5	9.0
3.5	48.0	-44.5	30.5	49.5	-19.0
5.0	14.5	- 9.5	33.5	4.5	29.0
6.5	30.5	-24.0	33.5	54.0	-20.5
6.5	38.0	-31.5	33.5	25.0	8.5
8.0	21.5	-13.5	33.5	35.0	- 1.5
9.5	45.0	-35.5	37.0	17.5	19.5
9.5	27.5	-18.0	37.0	52.5	-15.5
11.0	43.0	-32.0	37.0	45.0	- 8.0
13.0	21.5	- 8.5	39.5	21.5	17.5
13.0	3.0	10.0	41.0	1.5	39.5
13.0	52.5	-39.5	41.0	12.0	29.0
15.5	8.5	7.0	41.0	6.5	34.5
15.5	49.5	-34.0	44.5	10.0	34.5
18.5	14.5	4.0	44.5	17.5	27.0
18.5	30.5	-12.0	44.5	40.5	4.0
18.5	45.0	-26.5	44.5	40.5	4.0
18.5	40.5	-22.0	47.0	4.5	42.5
22.5	12.0	10.5	48.0	40.5	7.5
22.5	25.0	- 2.5	49.0	6.5	42.5
22.5	27.5	- 5.0	50.0	25.0	25.0
22.5	30.5	- 8.0	51.0	1.5	49.5
27.0	8.5	18.5	52.0	17.5	34.5
27.0	12.0	15.0	54.0	30.5	23.5
27.0	17.5	9.5	54.0	34.0	20.0
			54.0	47.0	7.0

$$d^2 = 35,681$$

$$r = -.29$$

$$\underline{Z} = -2.13^a$$

^aSignificant beyond the .05 level.

The chi-square method using four-by-two crossbreak tables with three degrees of freedom were used to test Null Hypothesis 2 which states: There will be no significant difference between the extent to which teachers fulfill the expectations of their students and their individual orientation toward rules.

In Table 6 the teachers were separated into quartiles in accordance to the extent to which they were oriented toward rules. These categories were (1) low rule, (2) mid-low rule, (3) mid-high rule, and (4) high rule. The students of each teacher were assigned to either low or high cells in relationship to the extent to which their teachers met their individual expectations. A mean expectation score was calculated for each expectation dimension. Those students above the mean were assigned high cells and those with scores below the mean were assigned to low cells. Therefore, student cell assignments were dependent upon (1) the rule orientation of their teachers and (2) the extent to which their teachers fulfilled their individual expectations at each dimension.

TABLE 6

TEACHER'S RULE ORIENTATION AND
THE EXTENT TO WHICH HE FULFILLS
THE EXPECTATIONS OF HIS STUDENTS

Expectation Dimensions ^c								
Teacher Rule Orien.	Mature-Understanding-Friendly		Teaching Competence		Positive Interpersonal Relations		Organized-Efficient	
	Low-High		Low-High		Low-High		Low-High	
Low	73	147	85	135	74	146	84	136
Mid-Low	103	133	108	128	93	143	128	108
Mid-High	84	134	105	113	116	103	97	121
High	86	120	99	107	95	111	101	105
χ^2	5.85		5.26		19.15 ^b		12.62 ^b	

^aSignificant at the .05 level.

^bSignificant at the .01 level.

^cHigh cell students with more fulfillment. Low cell students with less fulfillment.

The null hypothesis of no significant difference was accepted at both the .05 level and the .01 level of confidence on expectation dimension (1) mature-understanding-friendly or (2) teaching competence. This acceptance indicated that no significant relationship existed between the rule orientation of the teacher and his ability to fulfill his student's expectations at either of these dimensions.

The null hypothesis of no significant difference was rejected at the .01 level on both the dimensions of interpersonal relations and organized-efficient. In both cases, the low rule oriented teacher was more successful in meeting

the expectations of his students than was the high rule oriented teacher. On the dimensions of mature-understanding-friendly, and teaching competence, the low rule oriented teacher was also quite successful in the fulfillment of his student's expectations. The teacher with mid-high and high rule orientation met the expectations of approximately one-half of his students, but he did not approach the fulfillment level of his less rule oriented colleague.

The expectation dimensions tested in this study were similar to those identified in other studies concerned with teacher traits. Bollinger's¹ study provided evidence that students admired such traits in teachers as even-temperament, competence in the command of subject matter, and fairness. A study by Witty² showed that students preferred teachers who were warm and friendly with well adjusted personalities. Ryan,³ through a factor analysis technique, ascertained that students preferred teachers who were (1) understanding-friendly-responsive, (2) responsible-business-like-systematic, and (3) stimulating-imaginative-original. Findings of these researchers correspond rather closely to the findings of this investigation.

¹Bollinger, op. cit., pp. 153-173.

²Witty, op. cit., p. 668.

³D. G. Ryan, Characteristics of Teachers: Their Descriptions, Comparison and Appraisal, (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1960), Chapter 4.

The chi-square method using four-by-two crossbreak tables with three degrees of freedom was used to test Null Hypothesis 3 which states: There will be no significant differences between the degree of principal rule orientation perceived by teachers and their ability to fulfill the expectations of their students.

The results of these chi-squares were used to determine whether or not differences in the extent to which the teacher perceived the stance of his principal toward rules and the degree to which he fulfilled the expectations of his students existed. These results are shown in Table 7.

TABLE 7

TEACHER'S PERCEPTION OF PRINCIPAL'S
ORIENTATION TOWARD RULES AND
THEIR FULFILLMENT OF THEIR
STUDENT'S EXPECTATIONS

		Expectation Dimensions ^c							
Teacher Rule Orien.	Mature-Understanding-Friendly	Teaching Competence				Positive Interpersonal Relations		Organized-Efficient	
	Low-High	Low-High				Low-High		Low-High	
Low	58 155	72	141	65	148	72	141		
Mid-Low	90 127	105	112	89	128	97	120		
Mid-High	105 134	124	115	132	107	130	109		
High	93 118	96	115	92	119	111	100		
x ²	17.55 ^b	16.34 ^b		28.48 ^b		22.30 ^b			

^aSignificant at the .05 level.

^bSignificant at the .01 level.

^cHigh cells, students with more fulfillment. Low cells, students with less fulfillment.

The null hypothesis of no significant differences was rejected at both the .05 and the .01 level of confidence at all expectation dimensions. The teacher who perceived his principal as being low rule oriented, in each case, fulfilled two-thirds or more of his students' expectations to a high degree. In the dimension of mature-understanding-friendly, the higher the teacher's perception of his principal's orientation toward rules, the less the proportion of his students for whom he was able to fulfill expectations to a high extent.

In each of the other three dimensions--(1) teaching competence, (2) positive interpersonal relations, and (3) organized-efficient--the proportion of students whose expectation level was fulfilled to a high extent was achieved by the teacher who perceived his principal as being low rule oriented. This proportion was lower at the mid-low perception level and higher proportion when the high perception level was considered.

These findings reject the model's prediction that the teacher who perceives his principal as being less rule oriented and the teacher who perceives his principal as being more rule oriented would meet his students' expectations to a lesser extent than the teacher who perceives his principal as being either mid-low or mid-high oriented toward rules. The findings point out that those teachers who perceive the principal as being less rule oriented, are more successful at fulfilling

student expectations than those teachers who perceive the principal as being more rule oriented.

Rank order correlation methods were used to test Null Hypothesis 4 which states: There will be no significant differences between the amount of organizational press felt by teachers and the extent to which they fulfill the expectations of their students.

The scores in Table 8 were ranked from low expectation fulfillment (low scores) to high expectation fulfillment (high scores) on the Student's Teacher Evaluation Inventory. The degree of teacher perceived organizational press was ranked from less perceived press (high scores) to more perceived press (low scores) on the Principal Orientation Inventory.

TABLE 8

RANK ORDER CORRELATION OF ORGANIZATIONAL
PRESS PERCEIVED BY TEACHERS AND
FULFILLMENT OF STUDENT'S EXPECTATIONS

Expectation Dimensions				
	Mature- Understanding- Friendly	Teaching Competence	Positive Interpersonal Relations	Organized- Efficient
r	.31	.28	.41	.45
<u>Z</u>	2.278 ^a	2.057 ^a	3.013 ^b	3.307 ^b

^aSignificant at the .05 level of confidence.

^bSignificant at the .01 level of confidence.

The null hypothesis of no significant difference was rejected on all dimensions, indicating that the degree of teacher perceived organizational press was significantly related to the extent to which the teacher fulfilled the expectations of his students. Positive relationship was noted at all dimensions. The categories of mature-understanding-friendly and teaching competence were related at the .05 level of significance. The dimensions of positive interpersonal relations and organized-efficient showed a higher degree of relationship, both reaching beyond the .01 level of significance.

These findings support the model's prediction that the less the teacher perceived organizational pressure, the more successful he would be in fulfilling the expectations of his students. Although the literature provides no previous research concerning the relationship under discussion, theoretical commentaries by Naegle⁴ and Wilson⁵ suggested that the public school teacher faces a conflict in the attempt to fulfill the particularistic needs and expectations of his students while at the same time attempting to satisfy the universalistic obligations of education. And, comments by Combs and Snygg⁶ indicated that individuals behave toward facts as they see them and not as others see them, and this suggested that if

⁴Naegle, op. cit., pp. 46-62.

⁵Wilson, op. cit., pp. 15-32.

⁶Combs and Snygg, op. cit., p. 17.

the teacher perceives less pressure from the organization, then, as far as he is concerned, there is less pressure. Conversely, if he perceives more pressure from the organization, then there is more pressure. The dilemma suggested by Naegle and Wilson would vary in relationship to the teacher's perception. The evidence suggests that the less disturbing the dilemma faced by the teacher, the more efficient their operational behavior.

In testing the following null sub-hypotheses, the teachers in the sample were divided into groups in accordance to their (1) age, (2) sex, (3) years of teaching experience, and (4) amount of academic training. The students in the sample were assigned to either low cell or high cells in relationship to the extent to which their teachers met their individual expectations. A mean expectation score was calculated for each expectation dimension. Those students above the mean were placed in high cells and those below the mean were placed in low cells. A chi-square statistic was then calculated to determine if there was any significant relationship between the variables and the degree to which teachers fulfilled the expectations of their students.

Sub Null Hypothesis 1 states: There will be no significant difference between the age of the teacher and the extent to which he fulfills the expectations of his students.

In order to determine whether or not younger teachers fulfilled the expectations of their students to a greater

extent than older teachers, only those teachers in the youngest and oldest age intervals were considered in Table 9.

TABLE 9
TEACHER'S AGE AND FULFILLMENT
OF STUDENT'S EXPECTATIONS

Tch's. Age	Expectation Dimensions ^c							
	Mature- Understanding- Friendly		Teaching Competence		Positive Interpersonal Relations		Organized- Efficient	
	Low-High		Low-High		Low-High		Low-High	
21-35	68	182	96	154	94	156	104	146
51-65	122	102	110	114	124	100	120	104
χ^2	36.56 ^b		5.50 ^a		14.96 ^b		6.77 ^b	

^aSignificant at the .05 level.

^bSignificant at the .01 level.

^cHigh cells, students with more fulfillment. Low cells, students with less fulfillment.

The sub null hypothesis of no significant difference was rejected at the .05 level on the dimension of teaching competence and at the .01 level on the dimensions of (1) mature-understanding-friendly, (2) positive interpersonal relations, and (3) organized-efficient.

The results of this hypothesis indicated that the age of the teacher extended a measurable influence over the student's perception of his teacher's ability to fulfill his expectations. Only in the area of teaching competence, which has been traditionally thought of as improving with age, did the older teacher approach the fulfillment level of the younger

teacher. In that particular dimension, the older teacher fulfilled more of his students' expectations to a high extent than he did to a low extent. In all other dimensions, less of the older teacher's students perceived their expectations fulfilled to a low degree rather than to a high degree.

Sub Null Hypothesis 2 states: There will be no significant difference between the sex of the teacher and the extent to which he fulfills the expectations of his students.

In order to determine whether or not differences existed in the extent to which teachers fulfilled the expectations of their students and the sex of the teacher, comparisons were made between the male and the female teacher.

TABLE 10
TEACHER'S SEX AND FULFILLMENT
OF STUDENT'S EXPECTATIONS

Expectation Dimensions ^c								
Tch's. Sex	Mature- Understanding- Friendly		Teaching Competence		Positive Interpersonal Relations		Organized- Efficient	
	Low-High		Low-High		Low-High		Low-High	
Male	159	211	185	185	196	174	187	183
Female	187	323	209	301	182	209	223	287
X ²	3.56		7.03 ^b		26.12 ^b		3.98 ^a	

^aSignificant at the .05 level.

^bSignificant at the .01 level.

^cHigh cells, students with more fulfillment. Low cells, students with less fulfillment.

The results of Table 10 may be summarized as follows:

1. Mature-understanding-friendly--The null hypothesis of no significant difference was accepted. Little difference was evidenced between the male and female teacher. Both men and women fulfilled more student expectations to a high extent than to a low extent with the women teachers registering a slightly larger proportion.

2. Teaching competence--The null hypothesis of no significant difference at the .01 level of confidence was rejected. The female teacher was perceived as being considerably more effective in meeting this expectation than was the male teacher. The men teachers fulfilled fifty percent of their students' expectations to a high extent, while the women fulfilled sixty percent of their students' expectations to a high extent.

3. Positive interpersonal relations--The null hypothesis of no significant difference at the .01 level of confidence was rejected. The female teacher was perceived as being much more capable of fulfilling her students' expectations than the male teacher. Less than fifty percent of the mens' students indicated a high extent of fulfillment, while over sixty percent of the womens' students indicated a high extent of fulfillment.

4. Organized-efficient--The null hypothesis of no significant difference at the .05 level of significance was rejected. Again, the female teacher was judged as being more

effective than the male teacher. However, at this dimension, the difference in the degree of fulfillment was substantially less than in the two previously analyzed dimensions.

Sub Null Hypothesis 3 states: There will be no significant difference between the length of time a teacher has been teaching and the extent to which he fulfills the expectations of his students.

In order to compare the perceptions of students necessary for this hypothesis, the teachers were divided into four groups according to the length of time they had been teaching. Only those groups who had been teaching the longest and the shortest periods of time were compared.

TABLE 11
TEACHER'S YEARS OF TEACHING
EXPERIENCE AND FULFILLMENT OF
STUDENT'S EXPECTATIONS

Expectation Dimensions ^c									
Years Tchng. Exper.	Mature- Understanding- Friendly		Teaching Competence		Positive Interpersonal Relations		Organized- Efficient		
	Low-High		Low-High		Low-High		Low-High		
0 - 10 yrs	116	235	157	195	145	207	157	195	
31 or more yrs	83	62	71	74	86	59	80	65	
χ^2	25.21 ^b		.77		13.52 ^b		4.58 ^a		

^aSignificant at the .05 level.

^bSignificant at the .01 level.

^cHigh cells, students with more fulfillment. Low cells, students with less fulfillment.

The null hypothesis was rejected at the .05 level when the dimensions of organized-efficient was considered. Respondent students judged the teacher with less teaching experience to be the better qualified to meet the expectations suggested at this dimension. There was a significant relationship at the .01 level of confidence at both the dimensions of mature-understanding-friendly and positive interpersonal relations. Again, the less experienced teacher was perceived as achieving a higher degree of fulfillment than the more experienced teacher. There was no significant relationship between teaching experience and teaching competence.

Since teaching experience and the teacher's age generally are correlated to a high degree, the results of this hypothesis seemed to indicate that the age factor might have influenced the findings to a greater extent than the amount of teaching experience acquired by the teacher. The size of the chi-square derived in both statistical tests seems to follow a similar pattern. A high relationship was found at the mature-understanding-friendly dimension and the positive interpersonal relations dimensions, while a relatively low relationship was discerned both in the teaching competence dimension and the organized-efficient dimensions.

Sub Null Hypothesis 4 states: There will be no significant difference between the amount of academic training of a teacher and the extent to which he fulfills the expectations of his students.

TABLE 12

TEACHER'S ACADEMIC TRAINING AND
FULFILLMENT OF STUDENT'S EXPECTATIONS

Expectation Dimensions ^c									
Years Academ. Trng.	Mature- Understanding- Friendly		Teaching Competence		Positive Interpersonal Relations		Organized- Efficient		
	Low-High		Low-High		Low-High		Low-High		
Bchs. + 15 hrs or less	30	82	42	70	37	75	47	65	
Masters + 15 hrs or more	132	159	130	161	124	167	134	157	
χ^2	11.92 ^b		1.69		3.08		.52		

^aSignificant at the .05 level.

^bSignificant at the .01 level.

^cHigh cells, students with more fulfillment. Low cells, students with less fulfillment.

The null hypothesis of no significant differences was accepted in three of the four dimensions. In this study, the students' perceptions of the degree of teacher fulfillment of their expectations was not affected by the competence, positive interpersonal relations, or organized-efficient. However, the dimension of mature-understanding-friendly, and the extent of fulfillment, show a positive significance at the .01 level of confidence. Even though the level of correlation was much lower, the perceptions of the students indicated a similar proportionate degree of correlation, by dimensions, to the variable of teacher's age and teacher's fulfillment

of student expectations. Since academic training and age seem to correlate to some degree, the indications are that the age variable exerts a greater influence on the students than either years of experience or amount of academic preparation.

Summary

The extent to which the teacher fulfilled the expectations of his students was influenced, to some extent, by his rule orientation and to a greater extent by the teacher's perception of his principal's orientation toward rules. Although contrary to the model proposed by the study, a correlation was evidenced between the teacher's rule orientation and his perception of his principal's orientation toward rules. The model hypothesized that the more rule oriented the teacher, the less rule oriented he would perceive his principal and the less rule oriented the teacher, the more rule oriented he would perceive his principal. However, a rank order correlation produced a negative Z score of -2.13 which was significant at the .05 level of confidence. This statistical calculation indicated that the less rule oriented the teacher, the less rule oriented he would perceive his principal, and as the teacher's orientation toward rules increases, so will his perception of the rule orientation of his principal.

Those teachers that showed exceptions to these findings were thought to function under a degree of organizational pressure that was proportionate to the extent to which their

rule orientation and perceptions of the principal's stance toward rules deviated from the predicted norm. A rank order correlation coefficient was derived which indicated a relationship between the amount of organizational press perceived by the teacher and extent to which the teacher fulfilled the expectations of his students. All dimensions except that of teaching competence were significantly related at the .01 level of confidence. Teaching competence and the amount of perceived organizational pressure were related at the .05 level of confidence. Conclusions can be drawn at all expectation dimensions which would indicate that the less organizational press perceived by the teacher the greater the extent of fulfillment of his students' expectations. And, the more organizational pressure perceived by the teacher, the less will be the extent of fulfillment of his students' expectations.

The expectation fulfillment dimensions varied from teacher to teacher according to the teacher's age, experience, and academic training. A summary of the dimensions follows:

1. Mature-understanding-friendly--The teacher's age, experience, and academic training seemed to be partially related to the mature-understanding-friendly dimension. There was an exceptionally high correlation between the age variable and the extent to which student expectations were fulfilled. The youngest teachers fulfilled the expectations of seventy-three percent of their students to a high extent, while the oldest fulfilled the expectations of only forty percent of their

students to a high extent. An increase in the amount of teaching experience and the amount of academic training tended to decrease the percent of students whose expectations were fulfilled to a high extent. Since increased experience and training were associated with an increase in age, it appeared that the youth factor influenced the statistical results to a much greater degree than any of the other variables applied to this dimension.

2. Teaching competence--Only the variables of age and sex were related to the teaching competence dimension. As in the dimensions of mature-understanding-friendly, the age variable seemed to be a particularly related variable. And, as in dimension Number 1, the youngest teachers were rated as being able to fulfill their students' expectations much better than the older teachers. Apparently, the variables of experience and academic training did not affect the teacher's ability to fulfill the expectations of their students at the teaching competence dimension. However, those teachers with the least experience and training fulfilled the expectations of a larger percentage of their students to a high degree than do those with more experience and more training. In the dimensions of teaching competence, the variable of experience and training seemed to offset the age factor to some extent, even though a relationship was not established by the statistics of the study. A relationship between sex and the dimension of teaching competence was statistically verified. The female

teacher met the expectations of sixty percent of her students to a high degree, while the male teacher met the expectations of only fifty percent of his students to a high degree.

3. Positive interpersonal relations--All of the dimensions were related to a fairly high level of confidence to the positive interpersonal relations dimension with the exception of academic training. The variable of sex showed the highest relationship. At this particular dimension, females were much more adept at meeting student expectations than were their male colleagues. Age and teaching experience were significantly related to the dimension at the .01 level of significance. The young teachers and the least experienced teachers tended to overshadow the older and more experienced teachers in the percentage of students who had their expectations fulfilled to a high degree.

4. Organized-efficient--The variables of sex and teaching experiences are related to the organized-efficient dimension at the .05 level of confidence. The age factor showed a slightly stronger relationship by barely reaching the .01 level. No relationship was established between the variables of academic training and the dimensions under discussion. Again, the youngest teachers and the teachers with the least experience fulfilled a larger percentage of their students' expectations to a high degree than did the older and more experienced teacher. The female teacher met with greater success than did the male teacher in fulfilling the expectations of her students.

A difference between the Weberian bureaucracy, as described by Gerth and Mills,⁷ and the school bureaucracy was ascertained through the findings of this writer's study. Gerth and Mills noted that the objectives of a bureaucratic structure was to discharge business, and the primary means of discharging business is through the application of and adherence to a group of calculable rules without regard for persons. However, this study concludes that the less rule oriented teacher fulfills the expectations of his students to a greater extent than does his more rule oriented colleague. This difference was given implicit support by Charter⁸ who noted that the public school, and especially the teaching function, could not be considered routine. It is for this reason that educators place so much emphasis upon having well trained, intelligent people to carry out the instructional tasks; they must rely heavily upon teachers' moment-to-moment judgements in deciding what to do next.

The organizational press variable was found to be related to the teacher's ability to fulfill the expectations of his students--the less the perceived press, the higher the degree of student expectation fulfillment. These findings seemed to be compatible to the views of Argyris⁹ on the

⁷Weber, op. cit., p. 96.

⁸Charter, op. cit., p. 254.

⁹Chris Argyris, "The Individual and the Organization: Some Problems of Mutual Adjustment," Administrative Science Quarterly, II, (June, 1957), pp. 1-24.

incongruencies that exist between the growth of healthy personalities in our culture and the requirements of formal organizations. Even though the results of this study indicated that the rule orientation of the teacher generally coincides with his perception of the principal's stance toward rules, there were degrees of inconsistency present for some teachers. According to Argyris, if the principles of formal organizations were used as ideally defined, the individual in the organization would be doomed to failure. Apparently, the school bureaucracy is structured in such a manner as to allow a teacher to be quite productive if his rule orientation and his perception of the principal's rule orientation are congruent.

It may have been noted that the variable of teacher age was related to a high degree to each of the expectation dimensions of the study. At each dimension, the youngest group of teachers seemed to fulfill the expectations of their students to a greater extent than did the oldest group of teachers. It is recognized that a prediction of teacher effectiveness cannot be made of an actuarial or group basis for particular individuals. However, in support of the data of this study, it can be generalized that because of a small age difference between the younger teacher and his students, he is more acutely aware of his students' motives, emotional controls, etc., than is the older teacher. According to the finding of Ojemann and Wilkinson,¹⁰ "students in the

¹⁰Ojemann and Wilkinson, loc. cit., p. 146.

experimental groups (whose teachers had superior knowledge of their students) made greater gains in achievement, had better attitudes toward school, enjoyed school more...and possessed a more logical motivation toward school work." Ojemann and Wilkinson further concluded that "the attitudes of teachers toward their students were improved as a result of increased knowledge of their problems of adjustment." Consequently, the young teacher is apparently in a better position to meet the expectations of his students than the older teacher. This contention was strongly supported by the data derived from this investigation.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Increases in the size and the complexity of the public secondary schools in America have created a dilemma for the teachers of these institutions. Teachers are faced with the responsibility of meeting the widely diversified needs and expectations of the individual student while, at the same time, conforming to the dictates of a set of standardized rules and procedures defined by the organization. The large public secondary schools of our country have been organized in a style that reflects many of the characteristics of the bureaucratic model described by Max Weber and others. Many studies concerned with the functioning of individuals in complex organizations have been conducted; however, few studies have attempted to investigate the problems of the public school teacher as related to organizational structure. This study was designed to determine whether or not the extent to which teachers varied in their ability to fulfill the expectations of their students could be related to (1) the rule orientation of the teacher, (2) the extent to which teachers perceived the principal's stance toward rules, and/or (3) the amount of organizational

press perceived by the teacher as determined by the difference existing between variables number one and two.

A model was developed which predicted the effects of (1) the teacher's rule orientation, (2) the teacher's perception of the principal's stance toward rules, and (3) the perceived organizational press on the teacher's ability to meet the expectations of his students. The extent to which teachers fulfilled their students' expectations was characterized as varying along a continuum from more fulfillment to less fulfillment. In this context, teachers with less rule orientation were predicted to perceive the principal as being more rule oriented. He would thus perceive himself as being under more organizational press and, consequently, would be able to fulfill his students' expectations to a lesser degree. On the other hand, teachers with more rule orientation would perceive the principal as being less rule oriented. They also would perceive themselves as laboring under a high degree of organizational press and would thus be able to fulfill their students' expectations to a lesser degree. Theoretically, only those teachers who were neither more nor less oriented toward rules would be able to achieve a high degree of expectation fulfillment for their students. The statistical findings of this study rejected a portion of the model, so a revised model was constructed and presented in the summary portion of Chapter V.

To insure that all teachers in the investigation would be exposed to the same set of operational rules and

procedures and the same administrative head, a single, large public high school was selected for the study. The high school utilized in the investigation had an enrollment of approximately 2,000 students with 75 teachers and an administrative staff of 1 principal, 3 assistant principals, 7 departmental chairmen, and 3 counselors. The final sample was composed of 55 teachers and 880 students.

Two questionnaire type instruments were used to collect the data appropriate for the study. The Principal Orientation Inventory provided (1) the rule orientation of the teacher, (2) the perceived stance of the principal toward organizational rules, and (3) the perceived organization press placed on teachers. The Students' Teacher Evaluation Inventory data were factor analyzed and the analysis categorized by degree of students' expectation fulfillment into the following four dimensions: (1) mature-understanding-friendly, (2) teaching competence, (3) positive interpersonal relations, and (4) organized-efficient.

Rank order correlation methods were applied to test the relationships between (1) the rule orientation of the teacher and his perception of the principal's orientation toward rules and (2) the teacher's fulfillment of student expectations and the amount of organizational press perceived by the teacher. To explore the relationships between (1) the teacher's fulfillment of students' expectations and the rule orientation of the teacher and (2) the teacher's fulfillment

of students' expectations and their perceptions of the principal's orientation toward rules, and chi-square method using four-by-two crossbreak tables with three degrees of freedom were used. Two-by-two crossbreaks with one degree of freedom were used to test for differences between the teacher's fulfillment of students' expectations and teacher (1) age, (2) sex, (3) experience, and (4) training.

Data were collected and the following null hypotheses of no significant differences were tested:

1. There will be no significant difference in the extent to which the more rule oriented teacher and the less rule oriented teacher perceives their principal's orientation towards rules.
2. There will be no significant difference between the extent to which teachers fulfill the expectations of their students and their individual orientation toward rules.
3. There will be no significant difference between the degree of principal rule orientation perceived by teachers and their ability to fulfill the expectations of their students.
4. There will be no significant difference between the amount of organizational stress felt by teachers and the extent to which they fulfill the expectations of their students.

Four sub hypotheses were developed and tested in order to treat other variables which were pertinent to the study. The following null hypotheses of no significant differences were tested:

1. There will be no significant difference between the age of the teacher and the extent to which teachers fulfill the expectations of their students.

2. There will be no significant difference between the sex of the teacher and the extent to which teachers fulfill the expectations of their students.

3. There will be no significant difference between the length of time teachers have been teaching and the extent to which they fulfill the expectations of their students.

4. There will be no significant difference between the amount of academic training of a teacher and the extent to which he fulfills the expectations of his students.

Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to determine whether or not the extent to which the teacher's ability to fulfill the expectations of his students was related to his rule orientation, his perception of the principal's rule orientation, and his perception of organizational press. The following conclusions were formulated from data collected regarding the purpose of the study:

1. The teacher's rule orientation and his perception of the principal's stance toward rules are related to a negative degree. The teacher who is oriented strongly toward rules has a tendency to perceive his principal as being more rule oriented. On the other hand, the less rule oriented teacher generally regards his principal as being less rule oriented.

As the rule orientation of the teacher varies along a continuum from less to more rule orientation, the trend is to perceive the principal's rule orientation as varying in the same direction.

2. The rule orientation of the teacher has little or no effect on the extent to which teachers meet the expectations of their students at the mature-understanding-friendly or teaching competence dimensions. However, a high significance of relationship exists at the dimensions of positive interpersonal relations and organized-efficient. At these two dimensions the less rule oriented teacher is more successful in fulfilling student needs than is the more rule oriented individual. Wingo's¹ observation that "the presence of great individual differences in the aptitude and achievement among students generate important problems at all levels of the educational system..." may partially explain this conclusion. The flexible teacher apparently causes the student to perceive a larger fulfillment of his individual expectation than does the inflexible teacher.

3. The teacher's perception of his principal's stance toward rules is related to the teacher's success in meeting the expectations of his students at the dimensions of (1) teaching competence, (2) positive interpersonal relations, and (3) organized-efficient. The teacher who perceives his principal as being low rule oriented meets his student's

¹Wingo, op. cit., p. 848.

expectations to a greater extent than does the teacher who perceives his principal to be high rule oriented. The findings of the Null Hypothesis 1 in this study implies that the teacher who is less rule oriented perceives the principal as being less rule oriented and also is more adept at meeting the expectations of his students than is the more rule oriented teacher.

4. The teacher who perceives less organizational press is able to fulfill the expectations of his students to a higher extent, at all dimensions, than is the teacher who perceives himself as operating under more organizational press. Combs and Snygg² note that individuals behave toward facts as they see them and not as they really are. Therefore, the teacher who perceives less organizational press will not feel the dilemma of the public school teacher described by Naegle³ and Wilson⁴ to the extent that it is felt by the teacher who perceives more press. It may then be concluded that the operational efficiency of the less press teacher is not impeded to the degree as is that of the high press individual.

Generally, the less rule oriented teacher is thought of as being more flexible in his operational setting than the more rule oriented teacher. Standardized rules and procedures

²Combs and Snygg, op. cit., p.17.

³Naegle, op. cit., pp. 46-62.

⁴Wilson, op. cit., pp. 15-32.

of the bureaucratic school are not compatible with the needs and expectations of their individual scholastics. Therefore, it may be concluded that the flexible teacher is able to adopt some form of mediating behavior that has a tendency to ease the conflict that is apparent in the public secondary schools of America. Apparently this mediating behavior allows the less rule oriented teacher to accommodate the demands of his students and the demands of the organization concurrently.

The following conclusions were derived from a consideration of the teacher's ability to fulfill his student's expectations as related to the variables of age, sex, teaching experience, and academic training.

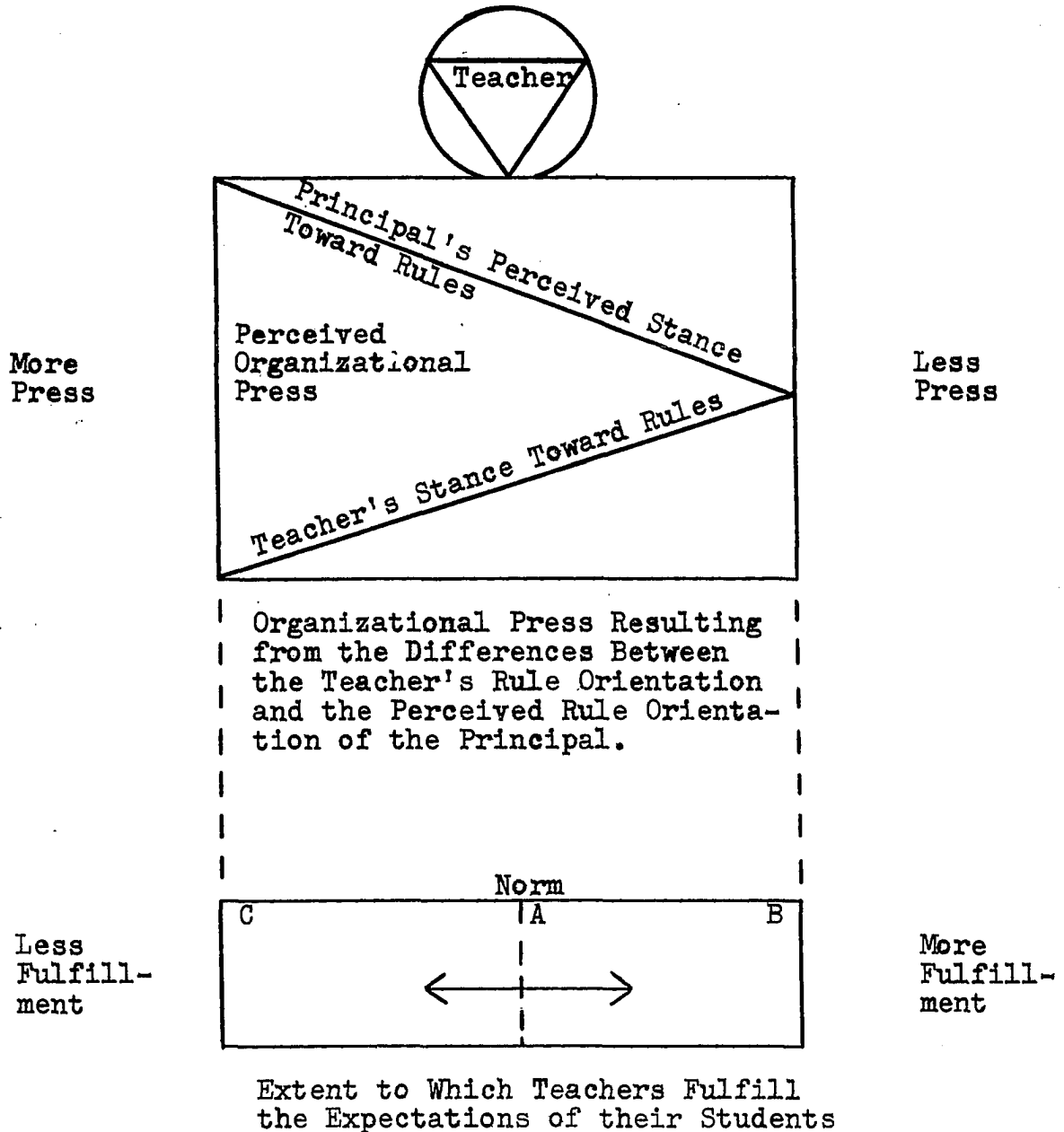
a. Age--The age factor seems to be highly relevant to the teacher's ability to fulfill his student's expectations. At all dimensions, the younger teacher is able to achieve more success than his older colleague.

b. Sex--At all dimensions, except the mature-understanding-friendly category, the female is superior in the teacher's attempt at meeting the expectations of her students.

c. Teaching experience--The teacher with the least amount of teaching experience meets student expectations to a higher extent than his more experienced counterpart. The strong influence of age seems to exert a more powerful force than does experience at all dimensions, except that of teaching competence.

d. Academic training--No relationship is apparent at any dimension, except mature-understanding--friendly. At this dimension the teacher with less training seems to be the most successful. Since age and academic training are apparently related, the age factor of the younger teacher seems to exert a strong influence at this particular dimension. At the other three dimensions, the training factor apparently offsets the influence of youth.

In view of the findings of this study, a revision of the diagram of the problem is suggested. The revised model is as follows:



The inverted triangle contains the subject of the study, the secondary school teacher. The circle surrounding the teacher represents the bureaucratic school within which the teacher must function.

Upper Panel: The upper panel illustrates both the rule orientation of the teacher and his perception of the stance of his principal toward rules. Also included is the amount of organizational press perceived by the teacher. As the rule orientation of the teacher becomes more congruent with his perception of the principal's stance toward rules, the amount of perceived organizational press decreases. And, as the rule orientation of the teacher becomes less congruent with his perception of the principal's stance toward rules, the amount of perceived organizational press increases.

Lower Panel: The lower panel illustrates the extent to which teachers meet the expectations of their students. Point A characterizes the fulfillment norm in the panel. However, according to the amount of organizational press perceived by the teacher, the extent of fulfillment carries along a continuum toward either Point B, where less organizational press is perceived, or toward Point C, where more organizational press is perceived.

Recommendations

From the findings of this study, it seems justifiable to recommend the following:

1. The revised model should be tested.
2. Since this sample was limited to 55 teachers, the relationships of (1) teacher rule orientation, (2) teacher perception of the principal's stance toward rules, and

(3) teacher perception of organizational press should be broadened to include a wider selection of teachers in several secondary schools.

3. Since the study was limited to a single, large public high school, parallel studies should be conducted which include several high schools of various sizes. Comparative analysis should be made between the teachers in large, medium, and small high schools.

4. The measure of organizational press used in this study should be broadened and refined and then compared to a reliable measure of individual flexibility as related to the variable of teacher fulfillment of student expectations.

5. A comparison of the relationships between the amount of academic training and its relationship to student fulfillment within certain age groups should be made in an effort to diminish the influence of age and give a more accurate finding of the impact of academic preparation.

6. Additional research should be conducted relative to the principal's rule orientation as opposed to the teacher's perception of his rule orientation and their relationships to organizational press.

7. A study related to perceptions of the students in regard to the influences of the school bureaucracy and its effect on their perceptions of their teachers should be made.

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APPENDIX A

CORRESPONDENCE RELATED TO THE STUDY

January 3, 1968

Dr. James L. Kidd
Director of Secondary Education
Amarillo Public Schools
Amarillo, Texas

Dear Dr. Kidd:

I am presently engaged in developing a doctoral prospectus under the direction of Dr. Robert E. Ohm at the University of Oklahoma. I am interested in using the Principal Orientation Inventory refined by you in conjunction with a study of principal's belief systems and rule orientation as related to school organization bureaucracy. I would appreciate your approval for the use of this instrument in this study.

Sincerely,

Charles T. Prigmore
3704 Mockingbird Lane
Midwest City, Oklahoma

CTP/dg

January 8, 1968

Mr. Charles T. Prigmore
3704 Mockingbird Lane
Midwest City, Okla. 73110

Dear Mr. Prigmore:

Thank you for your letter of January 3 expressing interest in using the Principal Orientation Inventory. I am pleased that the instrument may be of value in your study. Certainly you have my permission to use it. As I am interested in developing the instrument further, I would appreciate a copy of any results which may be derived through its use.

I would like to wish you every success in developing your doctoral study. If further information is necessary regarding the Principal Orientation Inventory, please feel free to contact me.

Sincerely,

Jim L. Kidd, Director
Secondary Instruction

JLK:bj

January 25, 1968

Dear Faculty Member:

Mr. Polk has recently granted his permission for conducting research for a doctoral dissertation at the Midwest City High School. Your participation and cooperation in this study is extremely important. The investigation is concerned with (1) the way teachers feel about various rules and procedures of the school with reference to making discretionary decisions in their jobs, (2) how teachers perceive their principal's reaction to school regulations and policies, and (3) the manner in which students perceive their teacher's ability to meet their expectations.

An outline of the data-collecting procedure is as follows:

1. The packet which you received contains two kinds of questionnaire-type instruments; one to be completed by the teacher and one to be completed by every other student in one of your academic classes. In addition, there are enough white envelopes so that you and each student respondent will have one in which to seal the completed questionnaire. A covering letter of instruction to each selected student is also included.

2. The teacher is requested to complete the instrument entitled, Principal Orientation Inventory. It is a self-administering questionnaire and should require less than one-half hour to complete. Upon completion, the instrument should be sealed in one of the enclosed white envelopes and placed in the large brown packet envelope.

— 3. Every other student in the selected academic class should be requested to respond to the instrument entitled, Student's Teacher Evaluation Inventory. This is also a self-administering instrument and should require no more than fifteen minutes to complete. The students responding to this questionnaire should be selected by identifying every other student as their names appear in the teacher's class record book. In the event that a selected student is absent, the student whose name appears on the next line above should be appointed. If that student is absent, the next alternate should be that student whose name appears on the next line below the original candidate. As the students complete their questionnaires, have them seal their responses in the supplied white envelope. Appoint a non-participating student to collect

the sealed envelopes, place them in the large brown packet envelope, and return them to the office of the vice-principal.

A. Since there is no necessity for identification, please do not identify yourself, your students, or your class in any way. All teachers and students will be anonymous participants in the study.

Realizing that your time is valuable, please be assured your participation is important to the success of this study. Your cooperation and assistance will be deeply appreciated.

Sincerely,

/s/ Charles T. Prigmore
Charles T. Prigmore

CTP/bh

January 26, 1968

To Students:

Mr. Ray L. Polk has given his approval for conducting research for a doctoral dissertation in the Midwest City High School. A doctoral dissertation is a kind of research paper. It is similar to those required by your English teachers, although somewhat more involved. This study will include both teachers and students. Therefore, you are asked to respond to the attached questionnaire. It contains statements describing things that teachers should do in order to meet the expectations of their students. You are asked to consider each statement carefully and indicate the extent to which you feel the teacher of this hour fulfills that expectation.

Please complete the questionnaire during this period. Place your completed response in the provided envelope and seal it. All responses will remain absolutely anonymous since identification is not necessary for a study of this type.

The importance of your honest and sincere participation in this study cannot be overly emphasized. The success of the study depends on your giving an accurate evaluation of how you feel this teacher is meeting your expectations. Please accept my sincere appreciation for your time and cooperation.

Sincerely,

/s/ Charles T. Prigmore
Charles T. Prigmore

CTP/bh

APPENDIX B

COPY OF INSTRUMENTS USED IN THE STUDY

PRINCIPAL ORIENTATION INVENTORY

Any one of the following incidents might occur in the day of a school principal. In each incident the principal has made some decision or initiated some action. You are requested to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the decision or action. Also, please indicate the action that you think your principal would take in a similar situation. Since there is no right or wrong answer, please circle the answer that you feel would be most appropriate.

Please circle only one answer for your opinion and one answer for what you think your principal would do. Responses for your opinion are as follows: Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Undecided (U), Disagree (D), Strongly Disagree (SD). Responses for what you think your principal would do are as follows: Always (A), Often (O), Undecided (U), Seldom (S), Never (N).

1. Ann had been caught cheating on a semester examination and was sent to the principal. Students had been told that they would receive a zero on any examination if they were guilty of cheating. The student admitted her dishonesty. After checking Ann's record, talking to her teachers and grade counselor, the principal found that Ann had not been involved in such conduct before. The principal was satisfied that he was dealing with an average student who, it was found, had been under considerable parental pressure for better grades. Since a zero on the semester test would fail her, Ann was allowed to take another exam but would not receive any grade above a C.

Regarding the decision of the principal,
do you: SA A U D SD

My principal would make the same decision: A O U S N

2. Two boys were brought into the principal's office for fighting. The student body knew of the regulation which provided a three day suspension automatically for fighting. After hearing the boys' explanation and talking to witnesses, it was learned that one of the boys actually started the altercation, and the other boy had attempted to dissuade him from fighting. However, since both boys had violated the regulation, the principal decided that he had to suspend both of them.

Regarding the decision of the principal,
do you: SA A U D SD

My principal would make the same decision: A O U S N

3. The librarian consulted with the principal, and they decided on a policy calling for students to completely clear their library records before they could take mid-term tests. On the day mid-term tests were to begin, a large number of students had not paid library obligations. Rather than delay a large number from taking their mid-term tests, the principal decided to allow those students to continue with tests, but to hold up record cards until the library records were cleared.

Regarding the decision of the principal,
do you: SA A U D SD

My principal would make the same decision: A O U S N

4. A teacher who had used all of her sick leave for the year became ill at noon and had to leave school. There was no policy which provided for a teacher once her sick leave was depleted; the teacher would have to be docked. The principal asked teachers who had preparation periods that afternoon to fill in for the absent teacher as a courtesy, and he did not report her absent that day.

Regarding the decision of the principal,
do you: SA A U D SA

My principal would make the same decision: A O U S N

5. One day Allen's English teacher told him to stay in for a week for talking out in class without permission. Allen protested to the principal that this was excessive, even though he had been guilty of the offense a number of times. The teacher was a beginning teacher, and the principal felt that perhaps she was attempting to control the class by making an example out of Allen. He planned to talk to the teacher regarding some reduction in the punishment, but told Allen to work the problem out with the teacher.

Regarding the decision of the principal,
do you: SA A U D SA

My principal would make the same decision: A O U S N

6. At the beginning of the school year, the principal made it a requirement for teachers to keep lesson plans at least a week in advance in a lesson-plan book provided by the school. One week the teachers were requested to turn in their lesson-plan books and it was found that a number of teachers were not making lesson plans. In order to see that teachers met the original requirement, the principal asked that each teacher turn in his lesson-plan book every Friday so it may be checked.

Regarding the decision of the principal,
do you: SA A U D SA

My principal would make the same decision: A O U S N

7. Benny was found cutting on a school desk and was sent to the principal's office. School board policy made parents financially responsible for vandalism to school property. Upon checking the desk, it was discovered that several other students had also carved upon it. The teacher indicated that he had warned Benny previously and urged the principal to apply the system policy. The principal, however, decided to call Benny's parents and issue the warning that any further destruction of school property on Benny's part would result in costly damages for them.

Regarding the decision of the principal,
do you: SA A U D SA

My principal would make the same decision: A O U S N

8. Teachers were told that they would have to pay for all textbooks which were checked out to them if they were not returned. Mrs. Stone came out seven books short at the end of the year. The principal felt that she had been careless with her books, but also knew that several other classes had used Mrs. Stone's room during the year and had access to the textbooks. The decision was made to pay for the books out of the school activity fund.

Regarding the decision of the principal,
do you: SA A U D SA

My principal would make the same decision: A O U S N

9. Reed wanted to be a candidate for the president of his class. He had to have the signatures of fifty of his classmates on a petition before he could file for office. After he had turned his petition in to the principal and had his name placed on the ballot, it was discovered that his petition had been misnumbered and was actually ten signatures short. In talking with Reed, the principal felt that the shortage was an unintentional mistake. However, the deadline for filing had past and Reed was not permitted to run because of the incomplete petition.

Regarding the decision of the principal,
do you: SA A U D SA

My principal would make the same decision: A O U S N

10. An outside organization rented a classroom for a night meeting at the school. The meeting developed into a larger one than expected, and the principal was contacted by the president on the night of the meeting. He requested the use of the school cafeteria which was not in use at the time. However, the principal denied the request because the requisition rental did not specify anything other than a classroom.

Regarding the decision of the principal,
do you: SA A U D SA

My principal would make the same decision: A O U S N

11. Boys who had participated in football were given letter awards at the end of the first semester. Tom had played football for half the season as a member of the variety team, but he had been injured the rest of the season. At the end of the semester, Tom was given a B team award. The player objected to the principal on the grounds that he had played varsity football until he was injured. Tom was told that since he had not played a majority of the time on the varsity team, according to the lettering regulations, he could not receive a varsity letter.

Regarding the decision of the principal,
do you: SA A U D SA

My principal would make the same decision: A O U S N

12. After being tardy to school repeatedly, Bill was reminded of the regulation that allowed a maximum number of tardies without penalty, but that after that time, he would be given a detention for each tardy. The following week Bill was tardy again. His mother sent the excuse that she had dispatched Bill to the drug store for medicine for a younger brother. Deciding that the school had made as much allowance for Bill as possible, the principal gave him a detention for the tardiness.

Regarding the decision of the principal,
do you: SA A U D SA

My principal would make the same decision: A O U S N

13. A school had a no smoking rule in the building except in the faculty lounge. Upon checking, the principal noticed that several of the men teachers, who were located a good distance from the lounge, sometimes smoked in their classrooms after school was dismissed. Since the teachers usually made sure that no pupils were around, the principal decided to say nothing to them unless the practice became more widespread, or if the teachers became careless about students being present when they smoked.

Regarding the decision of the principal,
do you: SA A U D SA

My principal would make the same decision: A O U S N

14. The physical education teacher stipulated that any boy who did not have a gym suit had to run five laps around a football field. Joe told the teacher that his suit had been stolen, and he refused to run the required laps. The teacher sent Joe to the principal. The boy claimed that his suit had been stolen twice and his parents refused to buy another. The principal explained to Joe that many boys used this type of excuse, and he would have to be treated the same as the others. He insisted on the five laps originally assigned.

Regarding the decision of the principal,
do you: SA A U D SA

My principal would make the same decision: A O U S N

15. Checking of class roll by the individual teacher was required; students were not permitted to do this for teachers. A number of mistakes in attendance accounting began to appear on the attendance roll of the band. On investigating, the principal found that the band director allowed students to check the roll. The band director said that by having students check each group after he had divided the band into sections, he could have more class time. Agreeing with the band director, the principal permitted him to continue this practice, provided that he personally check those students marked absent before the attendance roll was sent to the office.

Regarding the decision of the principal,
do you: SA A U D SA

My principal would make the same decision: A O U S N

16. At the beginning of the school year, the principal announced to his faculty that no student would be moved from teachers' classes because of discipline problems. At the end of the first semester, a student asked the principal to move him from Mrs. Brown's English class because he kept getting in trouble. Upon checking, the principal found that although the boy had no problems with other teachers, he had had similar difficulties with Mrs. Brown the previous year. Convinced that the boy should remain in her class and learn to behave himself, Mrs. Brown reminded the principal of his announcement. The principal decided that he should enforce what he had told the teachers; thus, he refused to move the boy.

Regarding the decision of the principal,
do you: SA A U D SA

My principal would make the same decision: A O U S N

17. Frank, who had completed fourth grade, moved into a new school district during the summer. His parents requested the principal of the receiving school to double-promote Frank as the sending school had planned to do. The principal had made it a rule not to double promote students. However, after receiving the boy's records, he concluded that Frank would merit being accelerated. Evaluating the situation, he decided to promote Frank to the sixth grade at the beginning of the new term.

Regarding the decision of the principal,
do you: SA A U D SA

My principal would make the same decision: A O U S N

18. The principal made it a rule to suspend a student for three days if he were truant from school on more than two different occasions. James had been truant twice, and after a family quarrel, he ran away from home for two days. During this time he did not attend school. When he returned home and went to school, the principal told James he had been considered truant during the past two days and would be suspended since this was his third offense.

Regarding the decision of the principal,
do you: SA A U D SA

My principal would make the same decision: A O U S N

19. The school principal felt that teachers were not using their preparation period properly and made an announcement that the faculty lounge was to be used only during the first and last ten minutes of their preparation periods. During the second period, three teachers did not have their rooms available because other classes were using them. They asked for permission to use the lounge during their planning period. The principal decided he could not make exceptions and told the teachers that they would have to do their work in the library at that time.

Regarding the decision of the principal,
do you: SA A U D SA

My principal would make the same decision: A O U S N

20. Two of the school's honor students skipped the last period on Tuesday. The honor society's constitution provided that members who were truant would be dismissed from the organization. One of the girl's parents, however, insisted that her daughter had come home ill; the girls would not admit being together. The other girl's parents readily admitted that their daughter had been truant, but thought that the two girls were together. The principal was convinced the two girls were truant, but since he could not prove truancy for both, only the proven truant was dismissed from the honor society.

Regarding the decision of the principal,
do you: SA A U D SA

My principal would make the same decision: A O U S N

INFORMATION SHEET

Please provide the following information by marking an (x) in the appropriate blanks:

- | | | |
|--------------------------------|---|---------------------------|
| (1) <u>SEX</u> | Male _____ | Female _____ |
| (2) <u>AGE</u> | 35 or under _____ | 36 - 45 _____ |
| | 46 - 55 _____ | 56 or over _____ |
| (3) <u>TEACHING EXPERIENCE</u> | 10 yrs or less _____ | 11 - 20 yrs _____ |
| | 21 - 30 years _____ | 31 yrs or more _____ |
| (4) <u>ACADEMIC TRAINING</u> | Bachelor's _____ | Bachelor's + 15 hrs _____ |
| | Bachelor's + 16 hrs or more,
but not Masters _____ | |
| | Master's _____ | Master's + 15 hrs _____ |
| | Master's + 16 hrs or more _____ | |

STUDENT'S TEACHER EVALUATION INVENTORY

Below you will observe 30 statements describing teacher traits and behavior. Consider each statement carefully and then mark an (x) under the column best describing your teacher for this hour. This is not a test, therefore, there are no right or wrong answers. Do not omit any statements. Do not sign your name or identify the teacher.

STATEMENTS	Never	Some- times	Unde- cided	Most of the Time	Al- ways
1. Gives clear explanation of assignments.					
2. Is fair in grading.					
3. Gives me extra help.					
4. Maintains self-control.					
5. Is friendly toward me.					
6. Has a pleasant disposition.					
7. Is impartial.					
8. Understands me.					
9. Dresses attractively.					
10. Is interested in me.					
11. Takes care of room, desks, etc.					
12. Has a good sense of humor.					
13. Maintains good classroom discipline.					
14. Is respected by me.					
15. Encourages me to do better.					
16. Is open minded.					
17. Has adequate knowledge of subject taught.					
18. Has adequate knowledge of all subjects.					
*19. Is too strict.					

STUDENT'S TEACHER EVALUATION INVENTORY (con't)

STATEMENTS	Never	Some- times	Unde- cided	Most of the time	Al- ways
*20. Is too easy.					
21. Lets me know what to expect.					
22. Respects me as a person.					
*23. Assigns busy work.					
24. Conducts class on an intellectual level.					
25. Has ability to teach subject so that I understand it.					
26. Makes class interesting.					
27. Acts human.					
28. Shows interest in his subj.					
29. Provides a good learning environment.					
30. Sets a good example for me.					

*Negative behavior for teachers.

APPENDIX C

SCORES ON THE INSTRUMENTS USED

TABLE I

COMPILED DATA FOR ALL TEACHERS

Teachers	Individual Scores of Teachers				Mean Scores of Teachers on Each Expectation Dimension ^d		
	Teacher's Rule Orientation ^a	Teacher's Perception of Principal's Stance Toward Rules ^b	Teacher's Perceived ^c Organizational Press	Mature - Understanding - Friendly	Teaching Competence	Positive Interpersonal Relations	Organized - Efficient
1	52	54	02	37.4	33.0	17.6	16.9
2	60	79	19	46.6	34.3	21.8	20.9
3	55	68	13	43.7	33.6	18.5	19.4
4	55	70	15	45.8	32.0	22.1	20.1
5	61	67	06	41.9	33.4	18.3	21.1
6	58	55	03	42.7	35.5	18.7	18.8
7	52	67	15	41.9	34.0	16.8	21.1
8	54	70	16	40.1	33.9	18.1	21.1
9	53	60	07	31.9	29.2	17.2	18.1
10	48	79	51	42.9	31.5	16.6	18.9
11	56	62	06	41.6	31.3	19.4	20.1
12	58	73	15	44.2	21.8	17.4	19.0
13	50	78	28	44.4	34.0	19.4	21.3
14	73	66	07	38.8	27.1	16.1	17.7
15	48	69	21	43.6	33.9	19.1	17.9
16	62	62	00	39.9	33.8	17.2	18.2
17	69	53	16	43.3	34.4	20.9	21.7
18	42	81	39	43.7	33.7	19.4	20.6
19	60	83	23	45.8	36.8	20.4	22.9
20	56	71	15	41.5	30.4	19.2	19.2
21	36	87	51	41.6	33.0	20.2	21.4
22	55	69	14	39.9	33.4	19.9	19.8
23	60	66	06	36.9	30.0	16.2	15.7
24	55	62	07	34.2	34.8	17.5	18.9
25	71	68	03	43.1	31.2	16.4	18.5
26	62	53	09	46.9	34.9	20.8	21.4
27	63	77	14	40.6	35.3	17.9	21.1
28	74	72	02	41.8	32.2	19.4	20.7
29	53	82	29	43.9	36.1	20.9	41.4
30	74	80	06	42.4	34.8	18.7	20.2
31	42	83	41	45.2	37.4	20.4	23.1
32	46	70	24	46.1	36.0	20.4	22.4
33	40	75	35	40.2	29.7	20.9	21.3

TABLE I (cont'd)

COMPILED DATA FOR ALL TEACHERS

Teachers	Individual Scores of Teachers				Mean Scores of Teachers on Each Expectation Dimension ^d		
	Teacher's Rule Orientation ^a	Teacher's Perception of Principal's Stance Toward Rules ^b	Teacher's Perceived Organizational Press ^c	Mature - Understanding - Friendly	Teaching Competence	Positive Interpersonal Relations	Organized - Efficient
34	57	67	10	43.1	32.6	15.7	18.7
35	57	82	25	41.6	35.1	17.5	20.9
36	63	77	14	46.8	36.3	20.0	23.4
37	63	66	03	43.6	33.9	18.9	20.3
38	62	59	03	37.6	32.2	13.2	21.9
39	64	55	09	41.9	34.3	17.9	18.7
40	54	77	23	40.8	34.3	19.9	20.5
41	47	67	20	39.3	33.1	17.6	20.8
42	56	66	10	46.7	35.9	22.3	22.2
43	56	74	18	41.6	29.7	19.3	17.2
44	54	79	25	42.6	34.7	21.1	20.9
45	56	60	04	32.2	31.3	16.8	17.5
46	44	65	21	44.1	35.4	21.3	23.1
47	46	76	30	42.8	34.4	19.5	22.8
48	74	70	04	30.9	22.4	14.0	14.8
49	58	68	10	32.5	29.9	14.3	19.1
50	52	83	31	41.5	33.5	21.8	20.1
51	65	77	12	38.0	30.9	18.3	15.9
52	66	59	07	45.7	35.3	20.4	21.1
53	58	84	26	41.9	33.1	18.0	21.2
54	63	61	02	43.1	32.4	19.4	20.7
55	54	65	11	39.2	27.9	14.9	17.7

^aLow scores represent low rule, high scores represent high rule.

^bLow scores represent high perceived stance, high scores represent low perceived stance.

^cLow scores represent high press, high scores represent low press.

^dLow scores represent low fulfillment, high scores represent high fulfillment.

APPENDIX D

CORRELATION MATRIX AND
ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS MATRIX

Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
1																														
2	.36																													
3	.47	.53																												
4	.47	.23	.37																											
5	.38	.56	.48	.51																										
6	.38	.40	.44	.74	.76																									
7	.45	.25	.32	.41	.45	.51																								
8	.53	.59	.64	.59	.73	.61	.38																							
9	.22	.16	.27	.37	.31	.33	.18	.46																						
10	.46	.59	.68	.42	.64	.44	.25	.68	.38																					
11	.41	.07	.37	.31	.13	.12	.37	.22	.21	.28																				
12	.41	.33	.31	.51	.65	.81	.51	.57	.37	.29	.06																			
13	.59	.31	.27	.46	.15	.21	.35	.38	.25	.33	.41	.24																		
14	.48	.50	.48	.70	.69	.75	.52	.73	.47	.51	.24	.64	.46																	
15	.33	.69	.50	.14	.48	.26	.06	.45	.14	.61	.15	.19	.17	.40																
16	.47	.57	.46	.37	.53	.60	.36	.53	.28	.51	.14	.67	.23	.54	.58															
17	.59	.44	.34	.39	.27	.23	.34	.38	.22	.27	.39	.25	.62	.43	.34	.31														
18	.52	.46	.54	.28	.29	.20	.36	.44	.33	.51	.31	.23	.46	.30	.45	.42	.63													
19	.03	.51	.16	.23	.53	.57	.14	.30	.07	.18	-.29	.50	-.11	.37	.16	.37	.04	-.07												
20	.14	.01	-.01	.20	-.09	-.11	.09	.01	.25	-.02	.32	-.06	.53	.27	.18	-.06	.51	.28	.31											
21	.76	.52	.38	.36	.40	.38	.36	.45	.29	.43	.24	.37	.50	.42	.47	.51	.57	.46	.22	.05										
22	.41	.66	.58	.51	.74	.67	.38	.71	.44	.67	.12	.63	.25	.66	.53	.68	.25	.39	.47	-.11	.51									
23	-.14	-.12	.03	.07	.11	.13	.19	-.01	-.02	.07	-.14	.05	-.22	-.02	-.24	-.02	-.04	.15	.08	-.24	-.18	.05								
24	.44	.39	.36	.37	.27	.26	.54	.40	.41	.31	.20	.21	.57	.48	.24	.25	.55	.61	-.06	.44	.37	.27	.02							
25	.79	.34	.43	.56	.51	.54	.45	.59	.44	.46	.17	.45	.47	.62	.26	.45	.51	.43	.28	.07	.68	.52	.07	.47						
26	.60	.43	.48	.55	.62	.73	.45	.66	.44	.45	.08	.78	.45	.69	.36	.71	.44	.51	.38	.03	.56	.64	.12	.46	.72					
27	.26	.43	.39	.65	.72	.82	.19	.59	.38	.44	.06	.63	.18	.74	.45	.51	.26	.23	.54	.06	.26	.62	.04	.28	.49	.87				
28	.41	.26	.29	.43	.27	.29	.28	.27	.26	.32	.29	.21	.46	.42	.34	.28	.75	.57	-.17	.46	.36	.25	.14	.49	.30	.35	.35			
29	.71	.56	.52	.56	.54	.55	.53	.71	.44	.50	.38	.58	.72	.79	.48	.56	.66	.61	.15	.38	.63	.56	-.13	.67	.67	.75	.53	.57		
30	.46	.51	.51	.70	.59	.70	.41	.63	.55	.53	.37	.53	.49	.82	.52	.59	.50	.47	.27	.30	.48	.65	-.02	.49	.56	.67	.74	.53	.76	

ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX

VARIABLES	FACTORS					
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
1	.20	.23	.24	-.82	-.08	-.21
2	.25	.19	.76	-.22	-.10	.25
3	.28	.06	.67	-.23	.15	.35
4	.74	.25	.01	-.21	.09	-.27
5	.70	-.01	.47	-.16	.13	.03
6	.89	-.02	.17	-.23	.13	.04
7	.38	.18	-.02	-.52	.37	-.19
8	.60	.08	.50	-.29	.01	-.20
9	.50	.25	.11	-.03	-.02	.30
10	.33	.05	.75	-.15	.11	.32
11	.07	.25	.11	-.75	-.09	-.20
12	.77	.01	.08	-.36	.07	.15
13	.17	.59	.03	-.49	-.24	-.23
14	.80	.31	.23	-.21	-.08	-.10
15	.15	.25	.83	-.01	-.25	.08
16	.47	.05	.51	-.35	.00	.14
17	.11	.75	.21	-.42	.00	.02
18	.02	.56	.50	-.34	.32	-.12
19	.54	-.26	.22	-.09	-.01	.57
20	.02	.82	-.13	.11	-.31	.18
21	.17	.20	.37	-.74	-.17	.05
22	.62	-.03	.59	.23	.05	-.01

ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX (con't)

VARIABLES	FACTORS					
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
23	.08	-.00	-.06	.09	.92	.08
24	.20	.67	.14	.32	.15	-.09
25	.46	.18	.16	-.68	.07	-.06
26	.21	.65	.25	-.49	.13	.12
27	.85	.17	.28	.06	-.02	.13
28	.18	.77	.20	-.09	.19	-.13
29	.49	.53	.30	-.49	.11	-.12
30	.70	.42	.34	-.13	-.07	-.16