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A Comparison of Teacher-Principal Perceptions and Their Relationship to Teacher Self-Esteem

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A COMPARISON OF TEACHER-PRINCIPAL PERCEPTIONS AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP TO TEACHER SELF-ESTEEM

BY

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A COMPARISON OF PRINCIPALS' AND TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS: THE RELATION OF PERCEPTION CONSISTENCY LEVELS TO TEACHER SELF-ESTEEM

This research concerned the assessment of perception consistency levels between teachers and principals in 15 elementary schools and the subsequent relation of consistency levels to levels of teachers' self-esteem. Perceptions of the importance of job factors to teachers were assessed. These job factors were characterized by 20 statements related to the function of teaching that were also believed to be related to teachers' feelings of self-esteem. In addition, perceptions of principals' behavior were assessed in terms of the principal's leadership style, effectiveness and flexibility.

Self-esteem is defined as the feeling of self-worth based on self appraisal. It was hypothesized by the researcher that perception consistency between teachers and principals in schools would be

related to teachers' self-esteem levels (e.g. the greater the level of consistency, the higher the level of teachers' self-esteem). Self-esteem was assessed by self report using the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. Perceptions of principals' behavior were assessed using the Educator Leader Behavior Analysis. Perceptions of the importance to teachers of job factors related to teaching were assessed using the Dransoff Educator Perception Scale. Fifteen principals and 164 teachers participated in this study.

Statistical comparisons for perception consistency between teachers and their principals yielded insignificant consistency levels in the majority of the areas assessed. In no school was there significant perception consistency between teachers and principals for all four areas assessed. In only three schools was there significant consistency in even three of the four areas. Six of the schools demonstrated significant perception consistency in two of the four areas. In five schools significant consistency levels were evident in only one area and in one school significant perception consistency was not present for any area.

An examination of mean self-esteem scores by school indicated that generally teacher self-esteem

levels were not any higher or lower in relation to perception consistency levels with the exception of the area of principal's leadership style. In this area, schools with mean self-esteem scores above the population mean generally evidenced significant perception consistency levels with regard to leadership style. Schools with mean self-esteem scores below the population mean did not generally exhibit significant perception consistency levels.

Conclusions indicate that perception consistency in schools between teachers and principals cannot be assumed to exist. In the majority of cases in this study principals and their teachers did not possess a shared awareness in regards to principals' behavior or important job factors in teaching. The results suggest that perception consistency is not present by chance. Rather, it is the result of conscious efforts on the part of teachers and principals to involve themselves in activities and practices that promote the development of mutual expectations. This often occurs only when such efforts are initiated by the school principal and coordinated in an ongoing manner. Only in schools in which this occurs is it likely that there will be the potential for the shared awareness necessary to bring about higher levels of organizational performance.

VITA

Christopher Dransoff was born in Chicago, Illinois, on March 15, 1953. He graduated from Weber High School in Chicago, Illinois, in 1971.

In 1974 he was awarded the degree of Bachelor of Arts, majoring in Education, from Northeastern Illinois University in Chicago, Illinois. He was awarded the Master of Arts in Education, majoring in Guidance and Counseling, from Northeastern Illinois University in 1978.

From 1975 to 1982, Mr. Dransoff taught at St. Ethelreda School in Chicago, Illinois. He then worked as school principal at Nativity of Our Lord School from 1982-1985 and at Bridgeport Catholic Academy from 1985-1989, both in Chicago, Illinois. From 1989-present Mr. Dransoff has been employed by Elgin District U-46, serving as school principal at Bartlett Elementary School in Bartlett, Illinois

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Much research in education has pointed to the critical role the school principal plays in the improvement of teacher and school effectiveness. Literature on school effectiveness has linked leadership to school climate, teacher morale, and motivation. Relationships have been found to exist between the leadership style of the principal and teacher behavior. Past research has examined teacher job satisfaction (e.g. stress, burnout, school climate, morale, etc.) as well as the effectiveness of principal behavior and leadership style. Little research, however, has assessed levels of teacher self-esteem and the effect of principal behavior on teacher self-esteem.

While recent literature on school effectiveness offers images of principals as strong leaders and has linked leadership to school climate, teacher morale, and organizational performance (Blase, 1987), it has also shown that many schools have climates in which teachers are failing to find satisfaction (Porter, Lemon; 1988). Blase (1987)

found that ineffective school principals actually negatively affected teacher self-esteem. Teachers' involvement in their work decreased, both in terms of number of activities and level of commitment. Further, Jolley (1985) found that possibly as many as 95% of teachers studied may have low self-esteem.

Research indicates that there is a clear relationship between teacher morale and student achievement (Bhella, 1981). Nigro (1984) found that teachers who feel appreciated and important to the realization of organizational goals...have the high self-esteem needed for good morale. Principals are in a unique position to shape the climate of a school. There is a need for principals to formally examine and consider adjusting their leadership behavior to effect a more positive climate and better morale in schools.

The effect of leadership behavior in schools has been examined from various perspectives over the years. Leadership behavior is typically described as being a function of two dimensions, task orientation or relations orientation. Task orientation is evidenced by directive behavior that spells out the follower's role and clearly tells him what to do. The task-oriented leader engages in one-way communication and closely supervises performance of followers. Relations orientation is evidenced by supportive behavior. The relations-oriented leader engages in two-way communication, listens, facilitates interaction, and involves followers in

decision-making.

Leadership behavior is often described in terms of four styles. Each style represents a different level of emphasis between task and relations orientations. The four styles are briefly described below.

Directing (S1): High task/low relations orientation: Leader provides specific instructions for followers and closely supervises task accomplishment.

Coaching (S2): High task/high relations orientation: Leader explains decisions and solicits suggestions from followers but continues to direct task accomplishment.

Supporting (S3): High relations/low task orientation: Leader makes decisions together with the followers and supports efforts toward task accomplishment.

Delegating (S4): Low relations/low task orientation: Leader turns over decisions and responsibility for implementation to followers.

Blake and Mouton (1982) advocate a "One Best Way" approach to leadership which assumes that one style of behavior can be appropriate and effective in any leadership situation. Rutherford (1984) cites debate in the literature regarding the role and importance of situation in determining leadership style. Situational leadership (Hersey and Blanchard 1977, 1982) promotes the philosophy that all styles

are appropriate at one time or another - the challenge being to determine which style to use when, and having the flexibility to use each style effectively.

The leadership behaviors a principal uses to influence teachers in shaping the climate of the school, and how teachers perceive those behaviors, directly affect teacher behavior in the school. The aforementioned perspectives on school leadership behavior have been linked to the increased effectiveness of teachers and schools. However, little research on leadership behavior in schools, has focused on the consistency between the perceptions of teachers and principals, and the implications for school improvement.

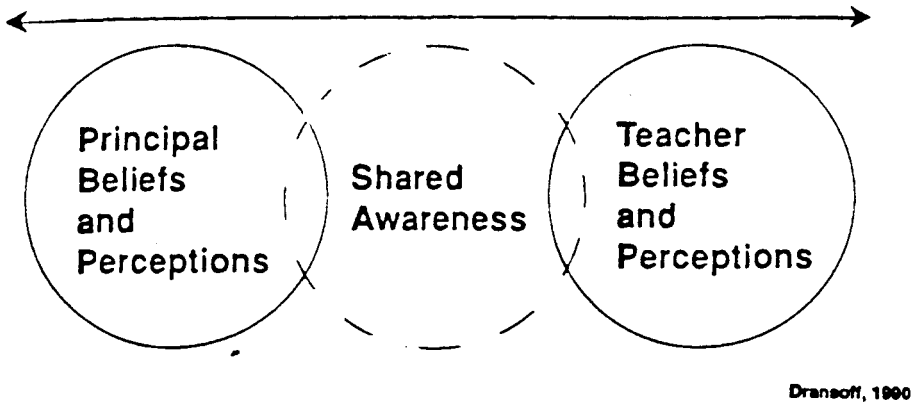
Though teacher attitudes and behaviors tend to change significantly in response to changes in leadership, it is important to consider the level of consistency between teachers' perceptions of principal leadership behavior with the principal's own assessment (Thomas, 1987). Tracey (1984) found no relationship between principals' assessments of how teachers viewed them and how teachers actually viewed principal behavior. She stated that as long as such a gap exists, it may not really matter what the principal actually does.

While relationships exist between principal behavior and teacher and school effectiveness, these relationships have not been fully explored in educational research. It is often assumed, however, by researchers that the perceptions of

principals and teachers are based on shared perceptions about teaching -- perceptions that in actuality may not be shared at all. Recent studies (Thomas, 1987; Tracey,1984; Gallagher, 1984) have noted the inadequacies of any educational research that makes such assumptions. It is the premise of this study that many principals do not have a clear awareness of their own perceptions and the perceptions of others.

Discrepancies between faculty perception of principal behavior and self-perceptions of the principal must be narrowed if increases in teacher effectiveness are to be realized (Gallagher, 1984). It is important to consider the implications that narrowing this perception gap have for designing educational reforms. If educators continue to operate under incorrect assumptions regarding teachers' perceptions, it is unlikely that well-intentioned efforts to improve education will succeed. This phenomenon of perceptual consistency is illustrated in figure 1.

Figure 1. Phenomenon of perception consistency.



The two solid circles, each representing teacher or principal beliefs, should be imagined as having the property of moving back and forth (left and right). If awareness of teacher and principal beliefs corresponded totally, both circles would overlap as shown by the dotted circle. Though this shared awareness is often assumed, researchers indicate this is seldom the case. If principals possessed better awareness of their own leadership behavior and about their teachers beliefs about teaching, principals could more confidently and efficiently determine and employ appropriate leadership behaviors to bring about optimal administrative and organizational performance.

While this investigation deals directly with the assessment of principals' leadership behavior, the particular behavior a leader exhibits is not the focus of this study. Rather, it is the level of perception consistency in schools

regarding leadership behavior, regardless of what that behavior is, that is the issue. Do teachers view principal's behavior as principals, themselves, do?

This study will examine the perceptions of principals and teachers in an effort to verify the previously stated findings. Are levels of perceptual consistency between principals and teachers as weak as reported by research? Is there any relationship between the level of consistency of teacher/principal perceptions and the self-esteem level of teachers? Further, is the level of teacher self-esteem generally as low as reported by Jolley?

The purpose of this study is fourfold:

1) To assess the level of consistency between teachers' and principals' perceptions, as measured by the Dransoff Educator Perception Scale, DEPS.

2) To assess the level of consistency between teachers and principals relative to their perceptions of principal leadership style, as measured by the Educator Leader Behavior Analysis, (Educator LBA).

3) To assess the relationship between teacher self-esteem levels (as measured by the Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale) and levels of perception consistency between teachers and principals regarding job aspects related to teaching as measured by the DEPS.

4) To assess the relationship between teacher self-esteem levels (as measured by the Rosenberg Self Esteem

Scale) and levels of perception consistency between teachers and principals relative to the principal's leadership style (as measured by the Educator LBA).

As a result of conducting this research and examining these purposes, the researcher will determine to what extent teachers' and principals' perceptions of one another are consistent, and whether or not a relationship exists between perception consistency and teacher self-esteem. In the process of this study it will be necessary to examine in some detail what perceptions are, how they are formed, and how they influence individual behavior and subsequently group performance. Group (organizational) performance will be considered in terms of the routine operation of schools in general and the 15 schools participating in the study in particular. This analysis will underscore both the complexity of the aforementioned processes and relationships, their potential impact on the effectiveness of the school, and the need of those involved in a given school organization to acquire a deeper understanding of such processes and relationships.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

There is little debate over the critical role the school principal plays in bringing about change in the school. As central as the behavior of the principal is to the effectiveness of a school, those behaviors (and the decisions associated with those behaviors) are too often based upon faulty reasoning. Individuals have a tendency to function under the assumption that one's own interpretation of events is generally correct, and that one's own interpretation is consistent with the interpretation of others. The fault with this line of reasoning is obvious. Even if one's own interpretation of events is correct, it is unlikely that others' interpretation of those events will be the same, as we generally have little control over how others think, act, and rationalize. It reasonably follows then, that one should

not assume that the perceptions of others would be consistent with one's own perceptions regarding any given event or set of events.

It is disturbing, then, that educational research (Thomas,1987; Tracey,1984; Gallagher,1984) seems prone to make such assumptions. And in cases in which perception consistency levels have been explored to some extent, research has found surprisingly little consistency between teachers and principals. Narrowing this perception gap cannot be left to chance. If principals' behavior is so critical to the improvement of schools, and if teacher and principal perceptions cannot be assumed to be consistent, then formal assessment of perceptions is needed. One cannot assess perceptions effectively, however, without first understanding how they are formed and the factors that influence them. This review will consider research relative to the perception formation process and how these processes influence individual and group behavior in schools.

Why Study Perceptions?

Perceptions shape human attitudes and behavior. The impact of perceptions on behavior is far-reaching and unavoidable. Perceptions provide bases for understanding reality, i.e. objects, events, and the people with whom we interact, and our responses to them (Johnson, 1987). Getzels

(1957) stated that the functioning of the administrative process depends not only on the clear statement of public expectations but on the degree of overlap in the perception of incumbents (principals and teachers). Further, Johnson (1987) suggests that congruence in the perception of expectations often takes priority over actual observed behavior.

Teachers and principals deal with perceptions constantly. Instructional methodologies, educational decisions by teachers and principals, and program and policy initiatives as well are influenced by perceptions. Given the extent to which perceptions permeate behavior and decision-making in schools, it is only reasonable to note that any educational research that ignores the importance of perceptions is inadequate at best.

Johnson (1987) emphasizes the potential benefits in considering perceptions of those in educational settings. 1) Knowledge of employees' (teachers and staff) and other stakeholders' (parents, students, etc.) perceptions helps administrators to revise educational policy and change individuals' experiences in educational organizations. Also, knowledge of perception theory may provide an avenue for directly improving educational leadership and practice. 2) Behavior occurs in response to perceptions and, therefore, perceptual data also hold a key to knowledge of organizational behavior. 3) If educational research is to

make important contributions to knowledge, researchers need to become conversant with the nature and processes of perception and the factors that can shape and bias the perceptions of those engaged in research and practice.

The importance of perceptions in relation to effectiveness of actions is shown below.

Perception → Behavior → Organizational Performance

While much of the literature recognizes the link between behavior and both individual and group performance, it seldom acknowledges the influence of perceptions on behavior. Behaviors are most often observable. Perceptions, on the other hand, are not readily observable nor are they clearly understood, frequently even by those who possess them. This does not mean, however, that perceptions do not exist or that they do not significantly impact on behavior or performance. With this understanding, the relationship between perception, behavior and performance might better be represented as a cyclic relationship rather than a linear one. This cyclic relationship recognizes the fact that perceptions are seldom static and that behavior and performance affect the process of perception formation and development. These relationships are examined further in subsequent sections.

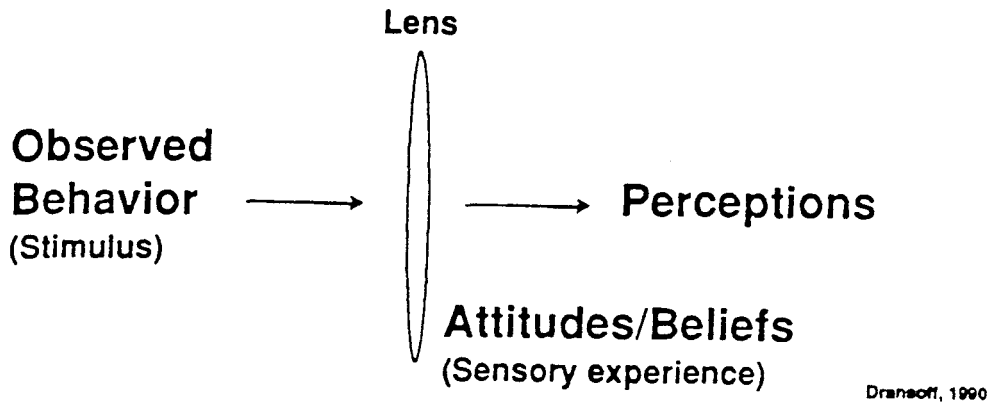
Bhella (1981) found that leadership style of educational administrators...is related to leader behavior which furthers organizational purpose of goal achievement and member satisfaction. In addition, it has been concluded that teacher feedback relative to the principal's leadership is a valuable tool for providing constructive information which can be used toward the improvement of school leadership (Scotti, 1988). Scotti suggested that a primary source for ascertaining effective administrative behavior would be to study the perceptions of the faculty. He further asserts that the role of teacher feedback in improving of the understanding of perceptions in the school is significant.

In summary, the study of perceptions is central to understanding individual and group behavior in schools and the influence of behavior on school performance. In fact, in an age of school reform movements and increased attention focused on school effectiveness, the study of perceptions seems central to efforts toward school improvement. There is evidence to support the fact that school administrators often assume that the perceptions of others relative to the school are consistent with the administrator's own perceptions. An administrator's proactive and regular efforts directed at assessing the perceptions of others would be an important first step toward increased school effectiveness. In order to accomplish this, however, an administrator must first acquire a basic understanding of the nature of perception.

The Nature of Perception

The concept of perception has yet to be clearly defined. While Bartley (1980) regarded perception simply as "sensation plus meaning," most psychologists now view sensation as physiological experience and perceptions as a cognitive activity (Krech, Crutchfield, Livson, Wilson, and Parducci, 1982). Despite this conceptual uncertainty, there is broad consensus that perception is "the understanding of the world that you construct from data obtained through your senses" (Shaver, 1981). Such a definition implies that perceptions are developed through sensory experiences rather than merely by reflection or intuition; that an objective world exists outside the perceiver, and that the perceiver actively forms an impression from each stimulus. This process is represented in Figure 2 using the concept of a lense representing an individual's attitudes and beliefs through which observed behavior is filtered, resulting in perceptions of the observed behavior. It should be apparent that the elements contained in the lense (sensory experiences) will vary from person to person and have a great effect on resultant perceptions formed.

Figure 2. The perception development process.



Allport (1955) assembled eight major generalizations from 13 theories of his time (most of which are still accepted by present-day theorists) relative to perceptual experiences: a) individuals aggregate and interrelate multiple understandings of events; b) these "perceptual aggregates" are organized within limiting conceptual boundaries; c) perceptions are assembled over time; d) although general order and stability prevail, some perceptual inconsistencies are tolerated; e) perceptions remain relatively constant over time; f) there is a tendency to return to original "steady state" perceptions following the disruption of new impressions; g) impressions are weighed unequally in perceptual aggregation; and h) although perceptual aggregates sometimes conflict, usually they mutually support higher-order perceptual generalizations.

It can be seen, then, that while perceptions are an automatic part of everyday human existence, they are far from

simple entities in and of themselves. Their formation and the effects they have on subsequent behavior are based on complex processes composed of many interrelated factors. The fact that there is not a widely accepted understanding or agreement upon what perceptions are and how they are formed, provides little reassurance for the school administrator who is interested in identifying a theoretical framework for the study of perceptions in a school setting. What is clear is that perceptions are related to behavior and generally stand the test of time. They have, therefore, the potential to be significant factors for principals to consider in schools. An understanding of the perception process could provide a school administrator with the basis necessary to determine how perceptions of significant school populations are formulated.

The Perception Process

Perceptions seem to be formed in a series of cognitive steps (Dembo and Gibson, 1985). A prevailing view is that a perceiver selects and categorizes sense data within predetermined structures, or frames of reference; these, in turn, are subject to attributes of personality (Kelly, 1980). According to Bruner's (1951) "expectancy or hypothesis theory

of perception," three stages are involved: the individual hypothesis about the occurrence of a likely event (hypothesis), the environment provides an informational stimulus (information), and this prompts a confirmatory response from the individual (confirmation). Moates and Schumacher (1980) propose a more specific explanantion: sensory receptors are oriented toward a source of stimulation; certain features or contextual factors are extracted (noticed); and then the perceiver engages in "a cyclic process of orientation, feature extraction, comparison with memory, and then additional orientation, feature extraction, and comparison," permitting the perception to be incrementally refined. This "chain of perception" process (Krech et al., 1982) agrees with Litterer's (1973) "selection-closure-interpretation" explanation and Forgus and Melmed's (1976) description of a sensation-perception cycle.

Four questions about the perception process are of central concern to educators and researchers: 1) To what extent do perceptions affect behavior in educational and other social settings? 2) Are members of educational organizations able to consciously identify and express their perceptions? 3) How accurately do perceptions portray reality? and 4) Are perceptions shaped by identifiable and commonly occurring factors? (Johnson, 1987).

Inherent in this research is the fact that perception formation is the result of an identifiable process, though

possibly not often an observable process. It is often the case that the individual may not be fully cognizant of the stages of the perception formation process as he/she moves through them. It, therefore, becomes incumbent upon the school administrator to be aware of the perception processes at work in the school, helping others to formally identify and express perceptions and assess their accuracy. In so doing, the school administrator increases the chances that perceptions of school populations (i.e. faculty) contribute to behaviors that further the school's efficiency and effectiveness. It must be made clear once again that such efforts by the principal to become familiar with the perception formation processes at work in a school can only be the result of well planned proactive implementation strategies.

The relationship between perceptions and behavior have already been noted. In order to better understand the application of this relationship in an organizational (school) setting, a principal must fully understand the complexity of the relationship between perceptions and behavior.

Perception and Behavior

Perceptions shape the social behavior of individuals through a process of "discovering what the environment is really like and adapting to it" (Neisser, 1976). Perceptions allow individuals to understand, anticipate, and react to environmental circumstance, events, and the behavior of others (Forgus and Melamed, 1976; French, Kast, and Rosenzweig, 1985; Harvey, Weary, and Stanley, 1985; Wrightsman, 1977). Blake and Ramsey (1951), Litterer (1973), and Kelly (1980) also highlighted perceptions as the critical determinants of behavior in organizational settings and even though Tagiuri (1969) warned that other factors also impose on social behavior, he concluded that, "if there is to be a science of interpersonal behavior, it will be based, to some extent, on our learning more about how people come to perceive other people as they do." Hochberg, (1978) also regarded the study of perception as "an important tool for understanding and predicting behavior" in social situations, and Shapiro and McPherson (1987) recently focused attention on public policy makers' perceptions of policy dilemmas as "an important determinant" of their "policy behavior." It is apparent, then, that social behavior in educational settings is guided not merely by an assumed objective reality, but by actors' individual perceptions and by the factors that shape and

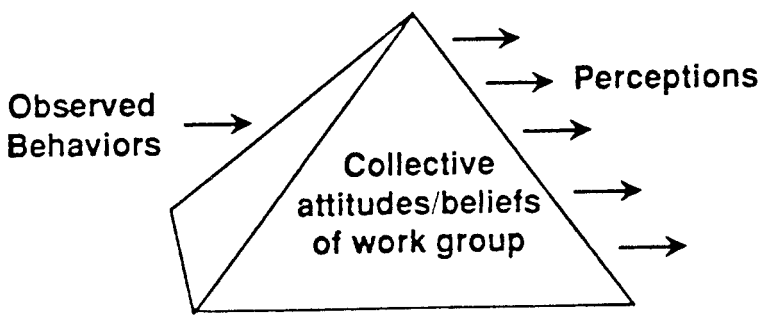
distort those perceptions (Johnson, 1987). Understanding of perception is, therefore, critical for educational research and practice.

Figure 3 illustrates the nature of perception formation in organizational settings where groups of people as well as individuals are influenced by behavior. In order to better understand the underlying concept represented by the graphic, one needs to refer to the lense graphic shown previously. This graphic symbolized how an individual's perceptions are formed and how an individual's attitudes and beliefs shape these perceptions. In this process, observed behavior was experienced and internalized (filtered through the individual's attitudes and beliefs), resulting in a set of perceptions relative to the observed behavior. This example could be likened to an individual teacher observing a principal's behavior in a certain situation, and after filtering that observation through the teacher's own values, philosophies, biases, etc., developing perceptions of the principal (e.g. effective, weak, harsh, etc.).

It is important to understand that individual lenses are made up of various attitudes and beliefs that have been formed over time and continue to develop. As a result, even the simplest behavior filtered through the lense of an individual's attitudes, etc. can lead to the development of a number of complex perceptions relative to the event or person.

In a situation in which behavior of a principal is observed or experienced by a group of teachers, instead of just one, the prism represents the collective lenses of the group. Inherent in this representation is the concept that these collective attitudes and beliefs are likely more diverse than that of an individual, therefore resulting in a wider array of perceptions. Therefore even the simplest behavior observed or experienced by a group of teachers could result in a multitude of complex perceptions.

Figure 3. Perception formation in organizations.



It is evident that perception formation processes are continually at work in schools. Teachers are continually filtering their observations of and experiences with the principal through the lenses containing their attitudes and beliefs. The school administrator who strives to understand the perception formation processes at work in the school is

more likely to be aware of the perceptions held by others in the school and, therefore, is in a better position to determine how accurate perceptions are.

Accuracy of Perceptions

Though instrumental in determining behavior, many perceptions are beyond the capacity of individuals to consciously recognize and verbally express. Cameron and Whetton (1980), for example, concluded from organizational effectiveness research that "there appears to be ample empirical evidence...to suggest that individuals frequently cannot report accurately the criteria of organizational effectiveness that they implicitly hold. Nor are they aware of the factors that motivate their judgments or evaluations of an organization."

Getzels (1957) spoke of the concept of selective interpersonal perception. He conceived of a prescribed normative relationship of two complimentary roles (e.g. principal and teacher) as being enacted in two private situations, one embedded in the other. On the one hand, the principal perceives the relationship in terms of his own needs and goals. Conversely, the teacher perceives the same relationship in terms of <u>his</u> needs and goals. These

individual perceptions are related through those aspects of symbols, values and expectations which have to some extent a counterpart in the perceptions of both individuals.

On the matter of perceptual accuracy, Rock's (1975) research findings are positive: "granting that the perceived world is different from the world that is the object of perception, one can still say that there is a high degree of correspondence." If so, we may treat perceptions as broadly accurate indications of the "real worlds" of educational organizations. Of course the accuracy of perceptions of social events is more difficult to measure, for phenomena that defy direct inspection and measurement can be known and understood only through a process of perceiving; if individuals' perceptions of an event agree, we can only assume they reflect reality (Rock, 1975; Shaver,1975).

Conversely, the literature also includes numerous references to "illusions", indicating a clear discrepancy between reality and perception of objects. Gladstein's (1984) research and studies by Wrightsman (1977) pointed to a pervasive human incapacity for perceiving and recalling either objective or social events with accuracy. This finding reinforces Allport's (1961) generalization that "good judges" are rare and Blake, Ramsey and Moran's (1951) conclusion that " sometimes...it is not difficult to show that the margin of interpretive error is very wide." Clement (1978) blamed selective perception for this apparent disparity - selectivity

that, of course, differs among individuals.

Availability of information is an associated problem: possessing only fragmentary information, individuals frequently make perceptual assumptions and hold personal expectations which lead them to perceptions that diverge from reality and from those of other witnesses (Hochberg, 1978; Litterer, 1973). Hochberg (1978) further identified three common causes of perception-reality discrepancy: a) events that cannot be discerned; b) omissions, additions, and distortions arising out of human perceptual processes; and c) events whose significance is misunderstood. Differing histories of perceptual learning, attention, and intentions also lead individuals to form different impressions of events and persons.

These seemingly inherent difficulties in perceptual accuracy have special implications for educators. At one level, the validity of principals' judgments of the effectiveness of the teachers they supervise is generally taken for granted (Medley and Coker, 1987). They go on to say, however, that studies of the validity of principals' judgments have concluded that there is no appreciable agreement between principals' judgments of teachers' effectiveness and the amount students learn. At another level, Stimson and Appelbaum (1988) hypothesized that principals would be more highly regarded when their self-perceptions of their management styles matched the

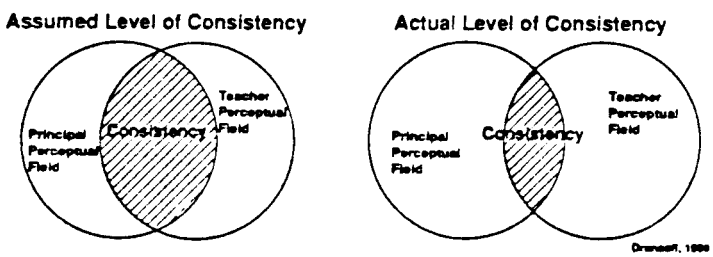
perceptions of those working under them - regardless of the style principals normally employed. Their study found that those teachers who were most satisfied worked under principals who clearly understood their own leadership style - i.e. agreed with the teachers' perceptions. They stated further that principals need to find ways to receive and act on feedback from their teachers. Since it is often difficult in hierarchical organizations (schools) for subordinates to talk frankly with their superiors, principals must usually initiate the dialogue. From their research, Ellett and Wallberg (1979) purport it would be generally hypothesized that principal-initiated behavior has its primary impact on teachers' perceptions, intentions, and behaviors within the school environment.

In many respects it might seem that total or maximized perceptual agreement is beyond reach in the typical social or organizational setting. Perception formation processes and perceptions themselves are difficult to recognize and articulate. Fragmentary information limits perceptual accuracy. Perceptions of social events often differ based on individuals' own beliefs and experiences. The organizational structure of schools can make it difficult for effective open communication to take place.

Even given the hindrances to attaining perceptual accuracy in an organization, the fact remains that an accurate awareness of the perceptions of individuals in an organization

is central to understanding their behavior. Principals who take a proactive role in understanding their own behavior and that of their faculties by eliciting feedback from their teachers are less likely to make judgments based upon faulty perceptions than principals who assume perceptual consistency and seek feedback inconsistently and ineffectively. As previously noted, research indicates that many people in education assume a higher level of consistency of perceptions than may actually exist. The figure 4, below, portrays one example of the potential discrepancy between the assumed and actual consistency of perceptions between a principal and his faculty. The implications of the existence of such a discrepancy will be discussed later.

Figure 4. Assumed versus actual perception consistency.



If the accuracy of perceptions cannot be assumed and if perceptions are difficult to recognize and articulate, it is incumbent upon school principals to understand the factors that can affect perceptions.

Factors That Affect Perceptions in Schools

As previously noted, principals have a great impact on the climate and dynamics in schools that ultimately lead to greater teacher satisfaction and greater school effectiveness. Also noted was the fact that perceptions have much to do with human behavior. Those having a clear understanding of perception formation processes are more likely to be successful at bringing about desired behaviors. It is important that principals see the connection between perception formation processes and teacher behavior, as well as the relationship between perceptions and variables such as teacher beliefs and self-esteem. In this way, principals can better insure perceptual consistency and higher levels of school effectiveness.

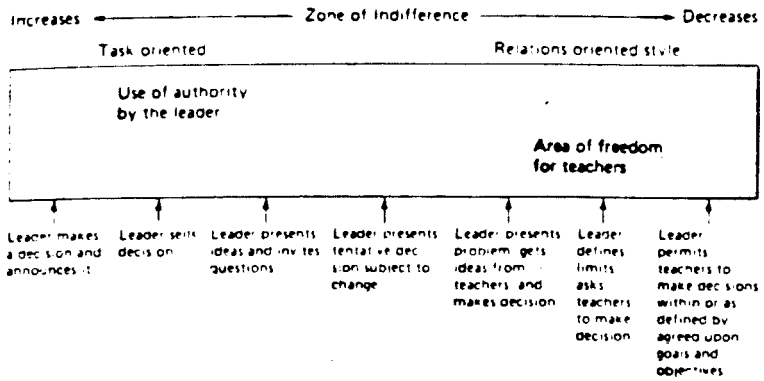
Organizational Behavior

Power has been described as an "ugly" word, one that connotes dominance and submission, control and acquiescence, one man's will at the expense of another's self-esteem (Zaleznik, Kets de Vries; 1975). Yet power - the ability to control and influence others - also provides the basis for the direction of organizations and for the attainment of social

goals. Leadership is the exercise of power. Over the years, the literature on organizational administration supports the importance of a cooperative superior-subordinate relationship and the association with informal authority (Johnston, Mullins; 1985). According to Barnard (1938) the legitimate, conscious willingness of subordinates to accept and comply with the decisions and orders from a superior is fundamental to the effective superior-subordinate relationship. Furthermore, Barnard suggests that personal authority will enable the superior to extend authority beyond the unquestioned limits acceptable to the subordinate and beyond the limits of the subordinate's "zone of indifference".

Barnard explained the zone of indifference as one of these possible zones in which subordinates can receive communication: 1) a clearly unacceptable zone where communication will not be obeyed, 2) a somewhat neutral zone within which the individual or group may vacillate, and 3) the zone of indifference where the communication will be unquestionably acceptable.

Figure 5. The zone of indifference.



The Zone of Indifference. *(Adapted from Robert Tannenbaum and Warren Schmidt, "How to Choose a Leadership Pattern," Harvard Business Review, vol. 36, no. 2, 1957.)*

Barnard (1938) posited two underlying assumptions concerning authority and the zone of indifference: He recognized that authority legitimized through position is more than a right to command. Authority, to be effective, has to have the willing compliance from the subordinates. He also suggested that the willing compliance is the zone of indifference which can be manipulated by the superior to be wide or narrow depending upon the degree to which the subordinates believe "the inducements exceed the burdens and sacrifices which determine the individual's adhesion to the organization." The implication for principals is that they can influence the width of the zones of indifference of teachers by attending to the teacher-principal relationship in a proactive manner.

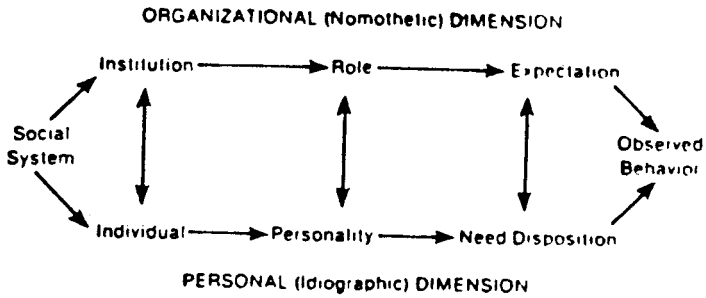
Blau and Scott (1962) reasoned that the scope of authority over subordinates could be extended through

domination and close supervision; however, the prolonged use of formal sanctions or threats of using those sanctions would tend to undermine the authority in the long run - particularly with professionals. Given this approach, they hypothesized that authoritarian supervisors would not easily command the loyalty of their professional subordinates.

In Getzels and Guba's (1957) classic research, they described schools as examples of social systems involving two major classes of phenomena, which are at once conceptually independent and phenomenally interactive. There are, first, the institutions with certain roles and expectations that will fulfill the goals of the system. Second, inhabiting the system are the individuals with certain personalities and need dispositions, whose interactions comprise what is generally called "social behavior."

To understand the behavior of individuals in an organization, both the role expectations and the need-dispositions need to be known. Indeed, needs and expectations may both be thought of as <u>motives</u> for behavior, the one deriving from personal propensities, the other from institutional requirements. What we call social behavior may be conceived as ultimately deriving from the interaction between the two sets of motives. The general model described by Getzels and Guba is shown in Figure 6.

Figure 6. Getzels-Guba model of organizations as social systems.



Model of the organization as a social system (the so-called "Getzels-Guba model") Adapted from Jacob W. Getzels and Egon G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," *The School Review*, 65 (Winter 1957), 423-41.

The nomothetic (organizational) axis is shown at the top of the diagram and consists of the institution , role and role expectations, each term being the analytic unit for the term next preceding it....Similarly, the idiographic (individual) axis, shown at the lower portion of the diagram, consists of individual, personality, and need-dispositions, each term again serving as the analytic unit for the term next preceding it. A given act is conceived as deriving simultaneously from both the nomothetic and the idiographic dimensions. That is to say, social behavior results as the individual attempts to cope with the environment, composed of patterns of expectations for his behavior, in ways consistent with his own independent pattern of needs.

Owens (1987) applied these concepts to schools. The school as an organization creates certain offices and positions that are occupied by individuals. The offices and positions represent the nomothetic dimension of the organization, and the role expectations held by the organization for incumbents are specified in a number of ways. These may range from elaborate written job descriptions to the more subtle, and often more powerful, group norms established by custom and tradition. By this means, the organization establishes not merely some formal, minimal level of job performance that would be acceptable but also communicates rather elaborate specifications of behavior in role that may well extend to the kinds of clothes worn on the job, the manner of speech used, etc.

But the individuals who are incumbent in the offices and positions have their own personality structures and needs, which represent the idiographic dimensions of the organization. To some extent, even in highly formal organizations, the role incumbents mold and shape the offices in some ways in order to better fulfill some of their own expectations of their role.

The mechanism by which the needs of the institution and the needs of the individual are modified so as to come together is the work group. There is a dynamic interrelationship in the work group, then, not only of an interpersonal nature, but also between institutional

requirements and the idiosyncratic needs of individual participants. The shaping of the institutional role, the development of a climate within the social system, and the very personality of the participants all dynamically interact with one another. Organizational behavior can be viewed as a product of this interaction.

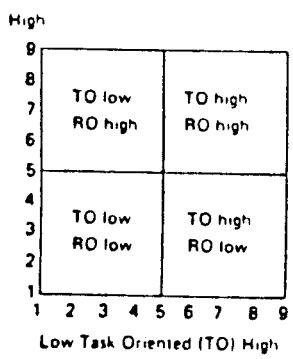
An individual's behavior, the projection of one's personality, consists of observable acts as they are perceived by others. A principal's behavior is described by the actions of the principal as perceived by the teachers in the teacher-principal relationship (Johnston, Mullins; 1985). Williams (1970) referred to style as the particular acts of a superior in the course of directing and coordinating the work of the group. Williams also suggested that the attributes of the subordinates often depend upon the style of the superior. The actions of a superior, as perceived by the subordinates in the superior-subordinate relationship, can provide a barometric measure of the feelings and attitudes in the work group, thus underscoring the importance of the superior having a clear and accurate awareness of the perceptions of his subordinates.

Leadership theorists continually point toward two dimensions of leadership behavior. The dimensions are referred to differently although the concepts are similar. Fiedler (1967) called these two dimensions "task" and "relations orientation" while Halpin (1966) referred to them

as "initiating structure" and "consideration." Likert (1978) defined these dimensions as "system one" and "system four." He also added systems two and three which contained qualities of one and four in varying degrees.

The two dimensions of leadership behavior can be plotted on a form of the grid shown in Figure 7, with the x axis representing the task-oriented dimension and the y axis representing the relations-oriented dimension. Leader behavior can then be graphed with the individual leader's style determined by the quadrant within which his scores fall. The grid is considered to be a normative theory of leadership in the sense that it prescibes the 9.9 image of leadership as the best style. Leadership theorists have since proposed that the effectiveness of a given leadership style can be understood only within the context of the leadership situation (Hersey, Blanchard, 1977). A key to this notion is that the same style expressed in different situations may be effective or ineffective.

Figure 7. The leadership grid.



These theories of leadership behavior support the observation that leadership is a complex issue. Leadership is, according to Jacobs (1970), a tool of management that can be developed. Its development must be pursued in order to improve the management of the organization. Jacobs also refers to the tools of power and authority which are usually developed together with leadership. The question of leadership improvement needs to be considered if management of an organization is to be improved (Scotti, 1988). The visions or beliefs, influenced by perceptions, of leaders are constant sources for leadership behavior. Another important but often overlooked source is that of the beliefs and perceptions of subordinates (teachers).

The Need to Consider Teacher Perceptions

An observation of leadership evaluation led Scotti (1988) to believe that such evaluation is conducted by superiors rather than subordinates. Although subordinates spend their days in direct contact with their leader, they are not usually asked for honest feedback regarding perceptions of their leader's behavior. Considering the complexity of organizations and the amount of time that subordinates spend with their superiors, it could be inferred that subordinates' feedback may be a valuable ingredient in the evaluation of

leadership effectiveness.

The need for such feedback within an organization is expressed by Getzels (1968) in his study on the social processes of education. Getzels speaks of the formation of a "feedback loop" as a necessary regulator in order to maintain a steady state among the system components. Such feedback acts as a mechanism to maintain homeostasis and ensures that the internal and external reactions to that behavior are fed back into the organization as input. Owens (1987) noted that homeostatic mechanisms in school systems and schools, such as well developed communication systems and decision-making processes, enable them to adapt and to deal effectively with changes in their environment. Systems which do not provide for the accurate transmission of feedback information to decision makers, make it difficult to react appropriately to environmental changes. Such systems tend to be in a static, rather than dynamic, equilibrium with their environments. They tend to lack the self-correcting, homeostatic processes essential to maintaining themselves in environments characterized by change.

Huber (1984) found that successful organizations implement an expanded search for feedback on decision-making, which allows for wider environmental scanning. He found that such organizations were able to access more information and a variety of input that resulted in effective decision-making. Using subordinate feedback rather than just the evaluations

of superiors will allow management to make a more realistic and grounded evaluation of the organizational leader and create a more participative environment within the school (Scotti, 1988).

Results of a study by Stimson and Appelbaum (1988) were consistent with previous research which found that most teachers lack meaningful opportunities to make decisions concerning their professional lives. When Instructor (1986) conducted a national survey of 8,000 teachers, less than 30% of the respondents reported that they make most of the basic decisions concerning textbooks and supplementary educational materials; 47% reported that they make none of the important decisions concerning inservice training; 61% claimed to have no opportunities to observe other teachers in the classroom; and less than 25% saw themselves as "meaningfully involved" in choosing the subjects and grade levels they teach. Eighty-one percent "rarely or never" received useful guidance from the principal on instructional matters.

Advantages of Considering Teacher Perceptions

Stimson and Appelbaum (1988) argue that these results have important implications for principals. The proper exercise of personal power can lead to higher levels of

teacher satisfaction. Power sharing, through collaboration and participative decision-making, can give teachers a sense of ownership and enhance their self-esteem. In their study, when teachers believed their principals cared about their opinions and responded to their concerns, the principal's influence increased. By constantly seeking ways to delegate responsibility to their teachers, the most effective principals were able to create a climate of collaboration which resulted in higher levels of teacher satisfaction.

Scotti (1988) concluded through his research that teacher feedback of the principal's leadership is a valuable tool for providing constructive feedback which can be used toward the improvement of school leadership. And while the school is a social organization whose productivity may be affected by a number of variables, Austin (1979) contends that it is the principal who has the greatest impact upon a school. This implies that teachers' perception of the principal's leadership behavior is all the more crucial to the improvement and ultimate success of the school.

A number of studies support the premise that orientations to teaching influence teacher decisions and actions in the classroom (Brophy and Good, 1974; Dweck and Bempchat, 1983; and Fisher, et al., 1978). Bunting (1984) suggests that "assuming a variance between teacher beliefs and teacher behavior, knowledge of the content of beliefs becomes an important first step in the identification of variables within

the educational context which mediate between the thinking and practice of teachers".

Various panels and commissions in the United States (e.g. National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983) have dramatized the problem of educational ineffectiveness and called for reforms to improve education. Odden, (1984) points out that their recommendations generally focus on what might be called the "hardware of educational excellence" (i.e. programs, standards, and requirements) and seem to propose "reform by addition". What may be more important to school improvement, and certainly within the purview of the principal, are reforms by reallocation of current resources and internal change by school staff.

Odden (1984) states that "reform of the process of schooling may be a prerequisite for all other educational reforms". Goodlad (1983) argues that developing the capacity of each school to change and improve may be the best and also the only effective strategy for reforming education. In the view of Brousseau, Book, and Byers (1988), a first step toward understanding how to affect the process of schooling would be to understand the values and beliefs of those who drive those processes.

This point is reinforced by Deal (1985), who states that "unless local educators understand and reckon with the existing culture of each school, the introduction of the Commissions' recommendations of characteristics of

effectiveness will probably not work; it may even do more harm than good". From this perspective, a clear description of the educational beliefs of a school's staff would be an important contribution in any effort to understand that school's teaching culture.

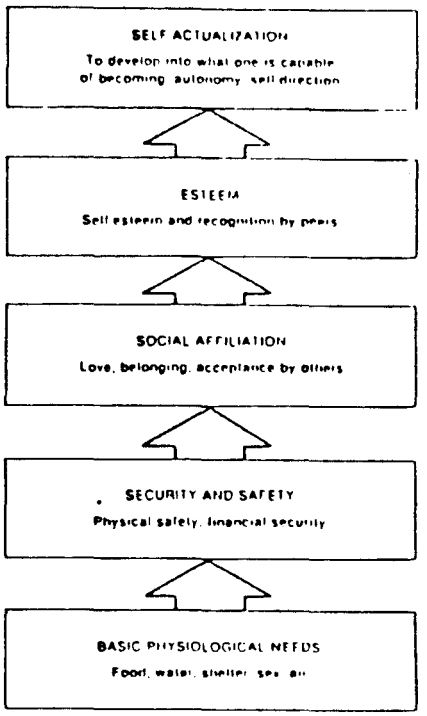
The Influence of Principal Behavior on Teacher Self-Esteem

There is evidence that within the work situation, the supervisory style of the boss plays an important role in providing the opportunity for the individual to experience satisfaction of personal needs (Thompson, 1971). Since schools are expected to achieve a wide range of goals (Goodlad, 1984), the ability of teachers to agree on the priority of goals is an indicator of the cohesiveness of a school. School cohesiveness, as assessed by goal consensus, may influence teacher morale by affecting teachers' sense of isolation and alienation and the feeling that they are contributing to the achievement of commonly shared goals and purposes.

Facilitative leadership, the degree of principal support for the professional development of teachers, was also found to contribute to the prediction of teacher morale (Nidich and Nidich, 1986). This finding supports the theoretical model

proposed by Ellett and Wallberg (1979) that suggests that principal-initiated behavior has its major influence on the attitudes and beliefs of teachers. Boocock (1973) stated that teacher morale is most directly affected by the behavior of the principal. It was also documented in this study that teachers given a greater voice in making decisions regarding classroom instruction, resulted in higher teacher morale in the school. Martin (1980) used teacher feedback to analyze the relationship between participative decision-making and teacher satisfaction. The results indicated that teachers who were less able to participate in school decision-making exhibited lower levels of satisfaction. Cameron (1984) found in his study that effective schools emphasize and reinforce the value of human resources and other internal morale issues. Feedback and participation by teachers in decision-making have been shown to be predictors of variables related to the domains of school productivity and human relations.

Figure 8. The hierarchy of needs.



Hierarchy of Needs as used in Maslow's Theory of Motivation

Self-esteem has been a construct much discussed by organizational psychologists and practitioners since the early theorizing of Maslow (1943) (See Figure 8). More recently, enhanced self-esteem has been strongly advocated as an indicator of the quality of working life (Seashore, 1975; Walton, 1975; Adams and Bailey, 1989). Some works, addressed to the promotion of worker well-being through participation in decision-making at work, have the enhancement of self-esteem as the central integrating theme (Warr and Wall, 1975; Work in America, 1973). Work in America concludes: "...yet it is clear from recent research that work plays a crucial and unparalleled psychological role in the formation

of self-esteem, identity, and a sense of order". Adams and Bailey (1989) examined the importance of self-esteem in schools and concluded that principals are a major source of the professional self-concept of their teachers. Much of how teachers feel about their jobs - which leads to psychological success - is a direct result of the leadership behavior of principals.

Esteem needs are of two kinds. Firstly, those needs that relate to one's self-esteem - needs for self-confidence, for independence, for achievement, for competence, for knowledge. Secondly, those needs that relate to one's reputation - needs for status, for recognition, for appreciation, for the deserved respect of one's fellows. Unlike the lower needs, self-esteem needs are rarely satisfied. The typical organizational hierarchy (e.g. school or district) offers few opportunities for the satisfaction of these esteem needs to people at lower levels of the organizational hierarchy (e.g. teachers).

Further up the hierarchy of needs are the needs for autonomy and self-fulfillment. These are the needs for realizing one's own potential, for continued self-development, for being creative in the broadest sense of the term. While it is clear that the conditions of modern life give only limited opportunity for these needs to obtain expression, teachers generally desire or even expect a high level of control over their work environment. Teachers, in particular,

display strong credentials in terms of professional expertness as justification for expression of this need.

Self-esteem is defined as "the evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to the self: Self-esteem expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval, and indicates the extent to which the individual believes the self to be capable, significant, successful and worthy" (Coopersmith, 1967). Psychological research suggests that low self-esteem individuals have certain charateristics which would seem to inhibit creativity, performance, and effective interpersonal relations and conflict resolution at work. Low self-esteem individuals are more likely to a) exhibit anxiety, depression, and neurotic behaviors (Wylie, 1961; Fitts, 1972), b) perform less effectively under stress and failure (Schalon, 1968; Shrauger and Rosenberg, 1970), c) exhibit poorer social skills and less sociability (Berger, 1955; Fitts, 1972; Rosenberg, 1965), d) be more persuadable and conforming (Wells and Marwell, 1976), e) lack initiative and assertiveness (Crandall, 1973), and f) have lower aspirations and expectations of success (Rosenberg, 1965).

It has also been suggested that certain types of organizations promote low self-esteem in individuals who initially varied in self-esteem (Argyris, 1964; Korman, 1977; Work in America, 1973). The findings of at least a few authors would indicate schools to be among these. Maeroff (1988) indicates that the circumstances of teaching cause

teachers not to respect themselves, much less each other. Research by Jolley (1985) indicates that as many as 95% of teachers studied may have low self-esteem. Argyris (1957) found in many instances subordinates will not experience a high level of self-efficacy and psychological success in a bureaucratic structure. He observed that in such a structure, conditions necessary for the development of trust and psychological success are rarely met because of the inherent conflict between the productive goals of the organization and the psychological needs of employees. Therefore, Argyris argued, hierarchy in organizations is inevitably hostile to the development of personal autonomy which is, in turn, necessary for psychological success.

Thomas Sergiovanni (1973) and his associates conducted studies which sought to find out "at what level teachers are with respect to the hierarchy [of prepotent needs]". Sergiovanni asserted that administrators need to know teachers' levels of prepotency for the simple reason that we cannot motivate insecure teachers by offering them greater autonomy or, on the other hand, motivate teachers seeking autonomy by offering them security. School administrators who overestimate the operating need level of teachers are as ineffective as others who underestimate operating need levels. In these studies Sergiovanni found that in general, esteem seems to be the level of need operation showing greatest need deficiency for educators. Large deficiencies were also

reported for autonomy and self-actualization.

In other words, these studies suggest that teachers, as a group, had satisfied the lower-order needs and were generally ready to respond to higher-order needs. Were these teachers given opportunities to feel better about themselves and opportunities to have greater influence in the processes of making decisions, these would likely be highly motivating opportunities. There is strong support for believing that job security, salaries, and benefits, though far from being irrelevant to teachers, have little likelihood of motivating them. A greater motivational need, it seems clear, is for teachers to achieve feelings of professional self-worth, competence, and respect; to be seen increasingly as people of achievement, professionals who are influential in their workplaces, and individuals desiring opportunities to develop even greater competence and a sense of accomplishment.

Self-esteem has been shown by Thompson (1971) to be significantly related to numerous work-related outcomes, such as performance and job satisfaction. He also states that organizations can take actions that successfully enhance employee's self-esteem. Adams and Bailey (1989) cite recent literature that supports the argument that successful businesses and effective schools are managed by leaders who promote psychological success for their employees. Leaders who promote feelings of self-efficacy, give support to and facilitate the preferences of subordinates, and focus on the

general well-being of organization members through enhanced working conditions bring about such feelings of psychological success.

Adams and Bailey (1989) go on to say that the principles for building teacher self-esteem can be of enormous value to principals. As designated leaders, sensitive principals see themselves as partners with teachers in the enhancement of a positive school climate. Teachers who feel good about themselves automatically become more motivated. Teacher self-efficacy enhances teaching skills (Adams and Bailey, 1989). By building on teacher self-esteem, principals can help create and maintain a more efficient teacher. Therefore, when principals concentrate on building teacher self-esteem, they are doing two things: they are contributing to teacher satisfaction, and providing for more effective learning in the classroom through enhanced teacher motivation (Adams and Bailey, 1989).

Implications for Schools in the Study of Perceptions

Perceptions of individuals and their relationships and behavior are more complex - and often less accurate - than

those of inanimate objects and other social events; for individual perceptions embody impressions of "intentions, attitudes, emotions, ideas, abilities, purposes, traits, thoughts, perceptions, memories - events that are inside the person and strictly psychological" (Tagiuri, 1969). Four "experimental principles" seem to guide most perceptions of behavior and attributes: a) initial individual perceptions are "gut level", generally positive or negative feelings that usually are subsequently confirmed; b) perceivers initially notice and seek explanations for unusual attributes or behaviors; c) first impressions focus on observed characteristics and behaviors, although perceivers quickly progress to perceptions based on personality traits; and d) individuals view others in terms of generally "unified, organized collections of traits that usually 'hang together'" (Krech et al., 1982).

According to proponents of "attribution theory", perceivers not only observe and describe individuals and their behaviors, but they often seek greater understanding by attempting to determine causes for behaviors (Shaver, 1975). Attribution theory has attracted attention among social psychologists since the 1970's (Hewstone, 1983), yet educational researchers continue to ignore this avenue for investigating perceptions and behavior among educational policy-makers, administrators, educators and students (Frasher and Frasher, 1981).

An attribution is an inference about why an event occurred or about a person's dispositions (Harvey and Weary, 1981). Our attributions often result in erroneous perceptions. Actors are conscious of environmental constraints and circumstances involved in making behavioral choices: observers, however, usually have to speculate about the actors' "circumstances, history, motives, and experiences", so they focus on and over-attribute behavior to personal factors (Jones and Nisbitt, 1971) - "the fundamental attribution error" (Ross, 1971).

We also engage in self-attribution to form impressions about ourselves. Knowing our own conceptual factors, we tend to "blame the environment" for our own behavior, but observers blame our personal characteristics (Jones and Nisbitt, 1971). Moreover, feeling confident that external circumstances are responsible, we rarely seek confirmation of self-attributions (Olsen and Ross, 1985). Further self-attribution bias arises out of our explanations of academic, vocational, and social successes (Shaver, 1981; Wrightsman, 1977; In Search of Excellence, 1983). In a school setting, Rogers (1982) reported and observed the tendency for classroom teachers to describe students as "odd," "disturbed," or "peculiar" when explaining their students' failures. Self-attributions also affect our behavior: attributions to "stable" or long-lasting qualities, such as ability or hard work, motivate future effort; attributions to transient personal factors, such as luck,

mood, or fatigue, do not provide motivation (Weiner, 1979).

Attributional principles have substantial relevance for educational settings. They signal a need for open communication within faculties, staffrooms, and classrooms, and help in understanding educators' and stakeholders' explanations for organizational and personal successes, failures, and behavior. Educators can utilize their perceptual skills and interactive behavior in order to approach their daily tasks and social interaction more fully and more accurately informed. Beyond awareness, practitioners can act directly to improve the quality of their perceptions. Initially, they need to be aware of the factors that distort impressions of people and bias judgments of events as common sources of differing and inaccurate perceptions (Johnson, 1987).

Educators need to test their perceptions against those of colleagues, students, administrators, and stakeholders with whom they associate; this calls for a concerted strategy of frank, non-judgmental communication in the school with regular invitations to others to express support or present contrary perspectives. Kurmey (1986) commented that school-level evaluators who "actively solicit the perceptions of those whom they are evaluating" can improve understanding, communication, and the quality of evaluations, and can relieve teachers' work stress and feelings of anxiety about supervision. Johnson (1987) concludes that there remains a need for extensive study

of the extent of individual differences in perceptions in educational settings. Exploration of these avenues should provide greater insight than is now available about life in educational organizations.

This review has examined the concept of perception and perception formation processes both generally and in regards to the social organization of the school. It highlighted the link between perception and behavior, and underscored the importance of school leader behavior in countering the traditional top-down organizational hierarchy of the school. Schools in which teacher input and feedback are actively and regularly solicited by the principal are more likely to be schools with teachers who have higher levels of satisfaction, self-esteem, and more positive perceptions of the principal. In seeking such feedback, principals will afford themselves opportunities to gain meaningful insights into not only the perceptions of their teachers, but their attitudes and beliefs as well.

In summary, the review supports the premise of this research, namely that perceptual consistency cannot be assumed to exist within a school. If principals want the shared awareness regarding attitudes and beliefs that is perceptual consistency, they will need to give regular attention to processes that promote shared decision-making and responsibility. It is such processes that lead to higher levels of teacher effectiveness and school performance as

well. Specific recommendations in this regard can be found later in this paper.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURE

Introduction

This study was designed to apply perception theory previously described to the context of a school situation in order to investigate the function of teachers' perceptions of the principal's leadership behavior and to note the relationship between the level of perception consistency and teacher self-esteem.

The instruments used in this study were selected to a) generally assess the self-esteem of all participants, b) allow teachers to determine their own perceptions about what is important to them as teachers and their perceptions of the leadership behavior of the principal, and c) allow principals to determine their own perceptions about their leadership behavior and their perceptions of what is important to their teachers. The statistical methods used in the study were t-tests, ANOVAS and correlation coefficients.

Perceptions regarding principals' behavior and teachers' beliefs about teaching were assessed. In each school, the principal's and teachers' perceptions of principal's leadership behavior and teachers' beliefs about teaching were compared. Perception consistency was determined by comparing the responses of the entire faculty in each school with its respective principal on each of the two perception assessment instruments. In other words, each principal's responses were compared to the collective individual responses of his faculty. In so doing, it was possible to determine whether or not in each school there was consistency between the perceptions of the teachers as a group with their principal. Schools were then grouped based upon the determination of whether or not there was perception consistency. Comparisons relative to teacher self-esteem were also made.

Hypotheses

1) There is no significant difference between principal's perceptions of teachers and teachers' self-perceptions as measured by the Dransoff Educator Perception Scale (DEPS).

2) There is no significant difference between teachers' perceptions about principal leadership behavior and

principals' self-perceptions as measured by the Educator LBA in the following areas:

a) Style

b) Effectiveness

c) Flexibility

3) There is no significant difference between the level of teacher self-esteem as measured by the Rosenberg Scale and the level of perception consistency as measured by the DEPS.

4) There is no significant difference between the level of teacher self-esteem as measured by the Rosenberg Scale and the classification of leadership style as measured by the Educator LBA.

5) There is no significant difference between the level of teacher self-esteem as measured by the Rosenberg Scale and the level of perception consistency as measured by the Educator LBA in the following areas:

a) Style

b) Effectiveness

c) Flexibility

Instrumentation

Three measures were administered to teachers and principals, one of which was designed specifically for this study.

1) The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (see Appendix A) which is a 10-item Guttman Scale that measures self-esteem using self-acceptance and self-worth statements. The scale is based on contrived items that deal with a general favorable or unfavorable global self-attitude. The Rosenberg has a Coefficient of Reproducibility of 92% and a Coefficient of Scalability of 72% which suggest that the items have satisfactory reliability and face validity. Even though it is a Guttman Scale, the Rosenberg is frequently scored according to the Likert format (as in this study).

2) The Educator Leader Behavior Analysis (LBA) is a leadership behavior assessment (see Appendix B) designed by Kenneth Blanchard, Ron Hamilton, and Drea Zigarmi and produced by the Blanchard Mangaement Corporation (1987). "Self" and "Other" forms were used. The Educator LBA is a special form of the LBA used extensively in past years with administrators and their subordinates in both business and education. Alpha Coefficients for the LBA Self range from .49-.56 and for the LBA Other from .62-.84.

The Educator LBA consists of 20 situations that represent various aspects of the principalship. Each situation

describes a specific event or set of events that require a decision on the part of the principal. Each situation is followed by four possible decision choices. Principals were directed to choose, for each situation, the response that most closely matched the decision they would actually make if in these situations. The Educator LBA yielded three separate scales relative to the leadership behavior of the principal: Leadership Style, Effectiveness and Flexibility.

3) The Dransoff Educator Perception Scale (DEPS) is a rating scale designed specifically for this study (see Appendix C), based on indicators identified by Jolley (1985) as those that most effect teacher self-esteem. It is a 5 point scale scored according to the Likert format. In the construction of the statements an attempt was made to produce items that conveyed a clear meaning, but that were also general enough so as to accurately represent the diversity of the school situation.

The underlying notion on which this instrument is based has to do with the fulfillment of teachers' needs. The satisfaction of these needs is dependent in large part on the leadership behavior of the principal in a school situation. The assumption implicit here is that there is a direct relationship between the consistency of perceptions among the people in the school (teachers and principal) and the fulfillment of teachers' needs. That is, the higher the level of consistency between the perceptions of teachers and

principal relative to what is important to teachers, the better the chances that the principal will be able to structure his leadership behavior to consciously reinforce and support those needs.

The Dransoff Educator Perception Scale was designed to give teachers the opportunity to rate the importance of 20 items relative to the overall school situation, the principal, and the group of teachers with whom they work. The scale was piloted with teachers and professors of education to determine content and face validity and inter-judge rating agreement. The Cronbach Alpha Coefficients were .89 (See Appendix D).

Piloting the DEPS

As previously stated, the Dransoff Educator Perception Scale (DEPS) was piloted to get the general reaction of participants to the instrument and to see if in fact the items were true indicators of job aspects that were of importance to teachers. In the process, the wording of the statements was refined and ambiguities eliminated. The respondents recorded deficiencies as they detected them and statements were re-examined and rephrased as a result of the pilot study.

Twenty-nine persons participated in this pilot study. Twenty-three of these were elementary school teachers. The other six were professors of education. Teacher participants were asked to complete the DEPS in relation to how important

each of the 20 items was to them as teachers. The professors participating were asked to complete the scale in relation to how important they thought each of the 20 items was to teachers.

When this information had been gathered, correlation coefficients were calculated and indicated that the deletion of any of the items from the scale would have had a negligible effect. The total alpha coefficient was .89. It was thus determined that the 20 items on the DEPS reasonably represented job aspects that are important to teachers.

Sample

For reasons of convenience, the specifications for the selection of sample school groups was held to a minimum. It was felt that for purposes of this study it would not be necessary to look for participants from widely diverse populations or areas. There seemed to be no need to justify sampling technique on the basis of random sampling since the researcher was operating under small sample theory and was making no assumptions of normality of trait distribution among any given population or even among the sample chosen. He proposed to examine the sample selected in terms of the constructs set up and then at a later time, if expedient, to look further for more general application of the findings.

Twenty-two school principals were contacted and asked to

submit their schools for participation in the study. As a result of these contacts, 15 schools were designated for study. All were Catholic elementary schools. Fourteen were located in an urban setting while one was in a suburban area. These schools will be referred to hereafter as schools 1-15.

Each of the 15 schools used in this study had a principal participant. There were a total of 164 teacher participants. Faculty sizes for each school ranged from a low of 7 to a high of 21. Characteristic differences in faculty members from school to school were insignificant.

Collection of Data

An appointment was made to meet with the principal and faculty of each school at regularly scheduled faculty meetings, most of which were conducted immediately after school. After a few brief preliminary remarks, the groups including the principals were given brief instructions concerning completion of the instruments. Participants were assured that their responses would be kept anonymous. They were instructed not to place their names on the instruments. The researcher had previously coded each instrument by assigning it a school and participant number.

The principal of each school completed the Educator Leader Behavior Analysis. For each of the 20 situations,

principals were directed to choose the response that most closely matched the decision they would actually make in those situations. It was expected that some situations in the survey would closely match the actual experiences of the principal. In those instances principals made decision choices based on that first hand experience. For situations in which principals did not have direct experience, they were instructed either to imagine themselves in the given situation or to relate it to actual experience involving similar dynamics or relationships.

Teachers in each school were given the identical 20 situations. For each situation teachers were directed to select from the four possible decision choices the one that most closely matched the behavior they would expect their principal to exhibit. The teacher's choice was based on their direct experience with the principal as well as their general awareness of the principal's behavior patterns.

In addition to assessing perception consistency betweeen teachers and the principal regarding the principal's leadership behavior, perception consistency was also assessed regarding the importance of selected areas related to teaching. A second survey, The Dransoff Educator Perception Scale, was administered to teachers and principals. The 20 items selected for use in the survey were based on indicators found by Jolley (1985) as those that most affect teacher self-esteem.

The DEPS directed teachers to indicate for each item, its level of importance to them based on their beliefs about teaching. Each principal was given the same instrument but directed to indicate how important he expected each of these items would be to his teachers. Principals were to make these determinations based on their experience with these teachers and on the principal's awareness of the importance of these items to their teachers.

In addition to the Educator LBA and the DEPS, the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale was administered to all participants. In most cases participants were able to complete all three instruments in 20-30 minutes. The instruments were immediately given to the researcher as they were completed.

Data Analysis

In order to test hypothesis 1, three aspects of principals' leadership behavior were assessed for both principals and their respective teachers. Teachers' perceptions of their principals' leadership style, effectiveness, and flexibility were compared to their principals' self-perceptions for each of the three areas.

For the area of leadership style the results of a simple tallying of teacher perceptions in each school were compared to the principal's self-perception to determine whether or not

there was consistency. For the areas of effectiveness and flexibility t-tests were used to compare mean teacher scores in each school to the principal's own score (significance at .05).

In order to test hypothesis 2, t-tests were used for each school to compare mean teacher scores on the Dransoff Educator Perception Scale to the principal's own score (significance at .05).

In order to test hypothesis 3, an ANOVA was used to determine whether mean teacher self-esteem scores for each school were related to consistency levels as measured by the Dransoff Educator Perception Scale. Schools were placed in one of two groups dependent upon whether or not teacher and principal perceptions on the DEPS were consistent (significance at .05).

In order to test hypothesis 4, an ANOVA was used to determine whether mean teacher self-esteem scores for each school were related to a principal's particular leadership style (according to the principal's self-perception without regard to whether the self-perception was consistent with teachers' perceptions). Schools were placed in one of three groups dependent upon the self-perceived leadership style of the principal (significance at .05).

In order to test hypothesis 5, an ANOVA was used to determine whether mean teacher self-esteem scores for each school were related to perception consistency between teachers

and principals for the area of leadership style. Schools were placed in one of two groups depending upon whether or not teacher and principal perceptions regarding principal leadership style were consistent (significance at .05).

In addition, Pearson and Spearman Correlation Coefficients were computed to assess relationships between mean teacher self-esteem levels and mean teacher scores for the areas of principal effectiveness and flexibility.

Summary

This study assessed levels of teacher self-esteem, levels of perception consistency between teachers and principals, and subsequently compared perception consistency levels with levels of teacher self-esteem. Were levels of teacher self-esteem any different in schools with high levels of perception consistency than in schools where this was not the case? Teacher self-esteem levels were assessed using the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. Perceptions of the principal's leadership style , effectiveness and flexibility were assessed using the Educator Leader Behavior Analysis. Perceptions of the importance to teachers of selected items regarding the overall school situation were assessed using the Dransoff Educator Perception Scale. Fifteen principals and 164 teachers from 15 Catholic elementary schools participated in this study. The researcher visited each school to personally administer

the instruments. T-tests, ANOVAS and Correlation Coefficients were used to analyze the data collected.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The central purpose of this study was the investigation of teachers' and principals' perceptions of one another. Teachers' perceptions of their principal's leadership style, effectiveness and flexibility were compared for consistency with the principal's self-perception. Also, each principal's perceptions of what is important to teachers about teaching were compared with his teachers' self-perceptions in that regard. A secondary question investigated teachers' self-esteem levels. Teachers' self-esteem levels were assessed and compared for significance to the levels of perception consistency between principals and teachers. Tracey (1984) believed that teachers' and principals' perceptions of one another were often assumed to be consistent when in actuality they were not.

This alleged oversight has implications for both researchers and practitioners. Both Tracey and Gallagher

(1984) further contended that without efforts toward narrowing this perception gap, well-intentioned efforts on the parts of principals to increase the effectiveness of schools would fall short of their goals.

Research by Jolley (1985) cited generally low self-esteem levels of teachers. Was it possible to replicate these findings and, furthermore, were the self-esteem levels of teachers any higher in schools that evidenced greater perception consistency than in those schools that did not?

This study centered on three main issues-- 1) Are teachers' and principals' perceptions generally consistent regarding both the principal's behavior and teachers' perceptions about teaching? 2) What are actual levels of teachers' self-esteem? and 3) Is there any relationship between levels of perception consistency in schools and the self-esteem levels of teachers?

Three instruments were used to gather information regarding self-esteem levels of teachers and the perception consistency levels between principals and teachers. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale was used to assess self-esteem levels of individual teachers, which were subsequently used to compute mean self-esteem scores for each school. The Educator Leader Behavior Analysis (LBA) was used to assess the behavior of principals in typical school situations. Self (principals) and Other (teachers) forms were used in order to compare principal's self-perceptions to those of their

teachers. The LBA is composed of three subscales: leadership style, effectiveness and flexibility. The third instrument used, one designed specifically for this study, was the Dransoff Educator Perception Scale (DEPS). The DEPS compared teachers' self-perceptions about the importance of job aspects related to teaching to their principal's perceptions in this regard.

These instruments were selected to address the following research hypotheses:

1) There is no significant difference between teachers' perceptions about their principal's leadership behavior and the principal's self-perceptions of style, effectiveness and flexibility as measured by the Educator Leader Behavior Analysis.

2) There is no significant difference between each principal's perceptions of teachers and teachers' self-perceptions as measured by the Dransoff Educator Perception Scale.

3) There is no significant difference between teachers' self-esteem levels as measured by the Rosenberg Scale and the level of perception consistency as measured by the Dransoff Educator Perception Scale.

4) There is no significant difference between teachers' self-esteem levels as measured by the Rosenberg Scale and the classification of leadership style as measured by the Educator Leader Behavior Analysis.

5) There is no significant difference between teachers' self-esteem levels as measured by the Rosenberg Scale and the levels of perception consistency for style, effectiveness and flexibility as measured by the Educator Leader Behavior Analysis.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 stated in the null format that there is no significant difference between teachers' perceptions about their principal's leadership and principal's self-perceptions. These were measured using the Educator Leader Behavior Assessment (Educator LBA) which assessed three areas of principals' behavior: Style, flexibilty, and effectiveness.

The Educator LBA (see Appendix A) was administered to teachers and principals. Principals assessed their own leadership style, effectiveness, and flexibility by responding to 20 school situations with multiple choice answers. Each principal's faculty responded to the same situations with their perceptions of how the principal would behave.

Style

One area assessed by the Educator Leader Behavior Analysis was that of style. On the basis of each principal's responses to the self-assessment, he was assigned a style type (1,2,3, or 4). In some cases principals were assessed as having two primary styles. These self-assessments were then compared to each principal's faculty assessment of his leadership style. Consistency was defined as an exact match in situations in which principals perceived themselves as having one primary style and as an either/or match for principals who perceived themselves as having two primary styles (see Appendix E).

It is important to note that while percentages of responses for each style category were computed, the determination of whether or not the majority of teachers' perceptions in a given school were consistent with the self-perception of the principal was done by simple tally (match or no match). Results of the style tally indicated that in eight of the fifteen schools, teachers' perceptions of the principal's leadership style (1, 2, 3, or 4) were consistent with that of the respective principal's self-perception (see table 1). In situations where consistency was not obvious (schools 9,11,13,14,15) from the tally, i.e. a difference of only one between agree/not agree, the percentages referred to previously were used to determine whether perceptions were consistent. If the faculty as a whole perceived the principal's style in the same order of

priority as he/she did, perceptions were deemed to be consistent. This decision rule was developed in consultation with Dr. Jack Kavanagh (1990).

For example, the principal of school nine rated himself a style 2. Out of nine teachers, five agreed and four disagreed. Yet when examining the percentage of responses falling under each style, both the faculty and the principal ranked the styles for the principal in the same order (2, 3, 1, 4). Therefore, perception consistency for leadership style was assumed to exist.

In the other seven schools, teachers' perceptions of their principal's leadership style were not consistent with the principal's self assessment. These results regarding principals' leadership style suggest that principals in these seven schools see themselves differently than their respective teachers see them. It is also evident, that even in schools in which teachers' and principals' perceptions of leadership style were considered to be consistent, there still were individuals who saw their principal's style differently than the principal, himself, did. From these results it is apparent that perception consistency between principals and faculty cannot be assumed. Implications of these findings will be discussed in the next chapter.

Table 1

Comparison of Principal Leadership Style Perceptions

School	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Prin.	3	2/3	2	2	3	2	2	2/3	2	3	2	2	2	2	2/3
Techr.	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y

Note. Prin. = Principal self perception (style #)

Techr. = Teachers' collective perception of principal (Y = agree with principal's self perception).

Effectiveness

In this analysis, mean effectiveness scores for the faculties of each school were compared with individual scores of respective principals. For purposes of this study, effectiveness is defined as the ability of the principal to make the most appropriate choice for each of the given situations on the Educator Leader Behavior Analysis.

Results of t-tests indicated that in only four of the fifteen schools were teachers' perceptions of their principal's effectiveness consistent with the principal's own perceptions of his effectiveness (schools 2, 6, 7, 11). In the other eleven schools, teachers' perceptions of their principal's effectiveness were not consistent with the principal's self-perceptions (see table 2). Findings were significant at the .05 level. In nine of these eleven schools, principals perceived themselves being more effective than did their teachers. In two schools, principals perceived themselves as being less effective than did their teachers.

These results indicate that in more than two-thirds of the schools studied, perception consistency for principals' effectiveness between teachers and principals was significantly weak. As might be expected, principals generally saw themselves as having more effective leadership

behavior than their teachers perceived. This is especially disturbing in that effectiveness is arguably the most important measure of leader behavior, yet it was the area with the lowest perception consistency between teachers and principals in this study. Implications of these findings will be discussed in the next chapter.

Table 2

Comparison of Principal Effectiveness Perceptions

School	Prin. Score	Teacher M	SD	n	t-value
1	60	55.06	4.37	16	4.53*
2	57	55.8	2.53	10	1.50
3	59	51.8	5.79	20	5.58*
4	50	57.9	4.88	8	4.59*
5	48	55.1	5.64	14	4.70*
6	59	57.43	4.79	7	.87
7	57	56.1	3.76	7	.63
8	62	52.88	7.77	9	3.52*
9	70	58.88	5.13	9	6.5*
10	56	53.33	3.87	12	2.38*
11	56	56.33	5.79	9	.17
12	65	52.11	5.01	9	7.72*
13	62	55.88	3.02	9	6.06*
14	61	54.64	4.72	11	4.48*
15	57	54.19	4.89	21	2.63*

*p.<.05.

Flexibility

In this analysis, mean flexibility scores for the faculties of each school were compared with individual scores of respective principals. For purposes of this study, flexibility is defined as the ability of the principal to utilize a variety of leadership styles in carrying out the duties and responsibilities of the position. Results of t-tests on flexibility scores indicated that in seven of the fifteen schools teachers' perceptions of their principal's flexibility were consistent with principal's self-perceptions relative to flexibility (schools 6, 7, 8, 9, 12, 13, 14). In eight schools teachers' perceptions of their principal's flexibility were not consistent with principal's self-perceptions (see table 3). Results were significant at the .05 level. In four of these eight schools, principals perceived themselves as being more flexible than did their teachers. In the other four schools principals perceived themselves as being less flexible than did their teachers.

These findings indicate that significant discrepancies existed in more than half of the schools studied regarding perception consistency for flexibility. Based on these results, it would be faulty reasoning to assume perception consistency between teachers and their principals. In particular, it would seem that some principals may be exhibiting patterns of leadership behavior that do not reflect

an appropriate balance of approaches to problem solving situations. Further implications of these findings will be discussed in the next chapter.

Table 3

Comparison of Principal Flexibility Perceptions

School	Prin. Score	Teacher M	SD	n	t-value
1	18	20.38	4.35	16	2.18*
2	18	20.4	2.53	10	3.08*
3	28	17.6	6.15	20	7.54*
4	14	20	2.83	8	6.0*
5	24	20.3	4.07	14	3.39*
6	22	22.6	2.51	7	.63
7	22	21	3.11	7	.85
8	22	19.44	4.22	9	1.82
9	24	22	2.65	9	2.27
10	22	20.17	2.48	12	2.54*
11	16	21.77	3.07	9	5.66*
12	22	20.88	4.91	9	.68
13	22	20.88	3.76	9	.90
14	20	20.36	3.2	11	.37
15	26	21.33	3.43	21	6.23*

*p.< .05.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 stated in null form that there would be no significant difference between principals' perceptions of teachers and teachers' self-perceptions as measured by the Dransoff Educator Perception Scale (DEPS). In this analysis mean faculty DEPS scores for each school were compared to the individual scores of principals.

Results of the correlated t-tests indicated that in eight of the fifteen schools significant differences at the .05 level were found (see table 4). In the eight schools in which significant differences were found to exist, five principals rated job aspects on the DEPS less important to teachers than their teachers rated the aspects. In the other three schools, principals perceived these aspects to be of greater importance to their teachers than the teachers, themselves, perceived these aspects.

These results indicate that principals in eight of the fifteen schools studied did not have a clear understanding of the importance their teachers attributed to job aspects related to teaching as measured by the DEPS. This is a significant finding in that the aspects assessed have direct implications for a principal's decisions regarding his leadership behavior as well as how those behaviors are perceived by his teachers. In cases in which the principal's understanding of the importance his teachers attributed to

these job aspects regarding teaching is weak, it is less likely that his leadership decisions will meet the needs of those teachers. Implications of these findings will be discussed in the next chapter.

Table 4

Comparison of Perceptions for the Importance to Teachers of Job Aspects Related to Teaching

School	Prin.Score	Teacher M	SD	n	t-value
1	27	28.69	5.53	16	1.22
2	23	27.2	4.94	10	2.69*
3	27	27.89	7.28	19	.53
4	31	34	7.31	8	1.16
5	36	31.71	5.88	14	2.73*
6	38	28.86	8.49	7	2.86*
7	19	30.86	6.31	7	4.98*
8	29	32.33	7.58	9	1.32
9	25	30.11	6.07	9	2.53*
10	33	33.27	5.55	11	.16
11	36	31.77	8.01	9	1.58
12	23	35.33	4.18	9	8.87*
13	33	22.66	4.66	9	6.67*
14	35	32.09	5.26	11	1.84
15	13	29.71	7.64	21	10.0*

*p.<.05.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 stated in the null format that there is no significant difference between the self-esteem levels of teachers as measured by the Rosenberg and the level of perception consistency as measured by the DEPS. Mean self-esteem scores for each of the fifteen schools were used in this analysis. This question compared mean self-esteem levels of teachers to perception consistency levels between teachers and their principals regarding the importance (to teachers) of specified job aspects related to teaching. Were self-esteem levels of teachers any different in schools in which there was perception consistency in this regard than in schools in which there was none?

Schools were placed in one of two groups, depending on whether or not there was perception consistency. The group mean for the consistency group was 35.07, while it was 34.16 for the group for which perceptions were not consistent. A one-way ANOVA was performed. Results were not significant at the .05 level (see appendix F). The null hypothesis, therefore, was substantiated. There was no discernable relationship between perception consistency levels regarding the importance teachers attributed to job aspects related to teaching (and principal's perceptions of that importance) and the self-esteem levels of teachers.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 stated in the null format that there is no significant difference between the self-esteem levels of teachers as measured by the Rosenberg Scale and the classification of leadership style as measured by the Educator LBA. This question compared teachers' mean self-esteem levels to principals' self-perceptions regarding their own leadership style. For example, were teachers' self-esteem levels any different in schools with principals who exhibited one style as opposed to another?

A one-way ANOVA was performed with schools placed in one of three categories: Style 2 schools, Style 3 schools, and Style 2/3 schools. Style category was determined by principals' self-perceptions regardless of whether or not teachers agreed. Total self-esteem scores for each of the fifteen schools were used in this analysis. Results were not significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was, therefore, substantiated (see appendix G). Self-esteem levels were not significantly different between schools when grouped by the self-perceived leadership style of the principals.

Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5 stated in the null format that there is no significant difference between the levels of teachers' self-esteem as measured by the Rosenberg Scale and the levels of perception consistency as measured by the Educator LBA. Leadership was scored in three areas: style, effectiveness and flexibility with each area being compared separately to self-esteem scores. Comparisons were made for each school.

Perceived Style Consistency/Self-Esteem

Two issues relative to teachers' self-esteem were examined in this study. First, were teachers' self-esteem levels generally low as reported by Jolley (1985) and second, were teachers' self-esteem levels significantly different in schools in which there was more consistency between the perceptions of teachers and principals than in schools in which there was less perception consistency?

Mean self-esteem scores for teachers are listed by school in Table 5. Scores ranged from a low of 31.42 to a high of 37.27 with a mean of 34.59. Generally, scores were not generally low for the group. In addition, mean self-esteem scores for teachers by school did not seem to indicate a relationship to perception consistency levels. To illustrate:

schools 7 and 14 represent the schools with the lowest and highest mean self-esteem scores for teachers respectively. Yet both schools evidenced perception consistency in only two of the four areas assessed.

However, when examined another way an interesting pattern emerged between self-esteem levels and perception consistency levels. The schools were ranked from highest to lowest by mean teacher self-esteem scores and then compared with perception consistency indicators. The seven highest ranking schools have an @1-1 ratio between Yes and No indicators for perception consistency, while the eight lowest ranking schools have an @ 2-1 ratio (No to Yes). Therefore, there was generally less perception consistency in lower-scoring schools than in higher-scoring schools for self-esteem levels.

When ranked mean teacher self-esteem scores by school were compared with each perception consistency category individually, a pattern emerged in the style category (see table 5). It was interesting to note that in the seven schools with higher self-esteem scores (i.e. those schools whose scores were higher than the total group mean), six of the seven reported perception consistency between teachers and principals relative to principal leadership style. In the eight schools with lower mean teacher self-esteem scores (i.e. those falling below the total group mean), perception consistency relative to principal leadership style was reported in only two schools. Such a pattern did not emerge

for any of the other areas assessed. Further implications of these findings will be discussed in the next chapter.

Table 5

Comparison of Perception Consistency for Leadership Style in Schools above and below the Total Group Mean for Self-Esteem

Schools above Mean			Schools below Mean		
School	SE Score	Match	School	SE Score	Match
14	37.27	NO	5	34.57	NO
4	36.5	YES	13	34.55	YES
8	36.22	YES	12	34.11	NO
15	35.9	YES	1	33.88	NO
11	35.86	YES	10	33.33	NO
9	35.0	YES	6	32.83	YES
2	34.9	YES	3	32.47	NO
			7	31.42	NO

In addition, data from the ANOVA in hypothesis 4 was reorganized into two groups, regardless of style, to reflect schools in which teacher and principal perceptions relative to the principal's style were consistent and those that were not consistent. Individual teacher's self-esteem scores for each school were used in this analysis. The mean score for the consistency group was 35.22, while it was 33.86 for the group for which perceptions were not consistent. A one-way

ANOVA was performed to determine if significant differences existed. Results were significant at the .05 level and are depicted in table six. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 6

Comparing Teacher Self-Esteem in Schools with and without Leadership Style Perception Consistency

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between	140.66	1	140.66	5.83*
Within	3954.21	164	24.11	
Total	4094.87	165		

*p.<.05.

Effectiveness/Self-Esteem

Pearson and Spearman Correlation Coefficients were computed for effectiveness scores from the LBA and Rosenberg self-esteem scores by school. In nine of the fifteen schools, there was either no relationship or a negative relationship

between leadership effectiveness of the principal and teacher self-esteem. In schools where a positive relationship between perceived leadership effectiveness of the principal and teachers' self-esteem existed, it was moderate at best (.53). The null hypothesis was not rejected due to the mixed findings.

Flexibility/Self-Esteem

Pearson and Spearman Correlation Coefficients were computed for flexibility scores from the LBA and Rosenberg self-esteem scores by school. There was either no relationship or a negative relationship between leadership flexibility of the principal and teachers' self-esteem in 13 of the fifteen schools. In the two schools where a positive relationship between perceived leadership flexibility of the principal and teachers' self-esteem existed, the correlation was no higher than .45. The null hypothesis was not rejected due to the mixed findings.

Summary

In the 15 schools studied, the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale was used to assess levels of teachers' self-esteem. In addition, the Educator Leader Behavior Anaysis (LBA) and the Dransoff Educator Perception Scale (DEPS) were used to assess

perception consistency levels between principals and their teachers in four areas: Leadership Style, Effectiveness, Flexibility and Job Aspects Related to Teaching. Table 7, below, summarizes the following by school: a) mean teacher self-esteem scores, and b) consistency of perceptions between the principal and teachers in each school in the four assessed areas (a "no" indicates significance at .05). As demonstrated in Table 7, no school exhibited perception consistency in all four areas. In fact, only in three schools (6,8, and 11) was consistency found in three of the four areas. In six schools (2,4,7,9,13, 14) principals' and teachers' perceptions were consistent in two of the four areas. In five schools (1,3,10,12,15) principals' and teachers' perceptions were consistent in only one of the four areas, and in one school (#5) there was no perception consistency in any of the areas.

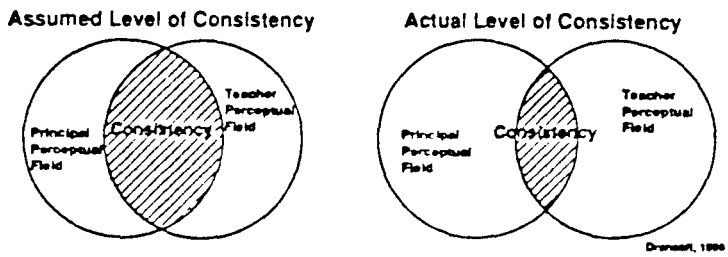
Table 7

Summary Results for Perception Consistency

School	M Rosenberg	Style	Effec.	Flex.	DEPS
1	33.88	No	No	No	Yes
2	34.9	Yes	Yes	No	No
3	32.47	No	No	No	Yes
4	36.5	Yes	No	No	Yes
5	34.57	No	No	No	No
6	32.83	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
7	31.42	No	Yes	Yes	No
8	36.22	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
9	35.0	Yes	No	Yes	No
10	33.33	No	No	No	Yes
11	35.86	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
12	34.11	No	No	Yes	No
13	34.55	Yes	No	Yes	No
14	37.27	No	No	Yes	Yes
15	35.9	Yes	No	No	No

In summary, it seems that these results add credence to the findings of Tracey (1984) regarding the discrepancy between assumed and actual perception consistency levels.

That is, one cannot assume perceptions of individuals within the school organization to be consistent. These results indicate that for leadership style, effectiveness and flexibility, and for job aspects related to teaching, at best there was perception consistency in approximately half of the schools studied. These findings fall far short of the ideal of shared awareness discussed in previous chapters.



While perception consistency seemed weak in most schools studied, levels of teachers' self-esteem did not differ significantly from school to school. However, a pattern did emerge regarding teachers' self-esteem when schools were ranked from highest to lowest by mean self-esteem score and then were examined for perception consistency. In general, in schools with mean teachers' self-esteem scores above the total group mean of 34.59, there was perception consistency between teachers and principals with regard to leadership style. Schools with mean teachers' self-esteem scores below the total group mean did not exhibit consistency for

leadership style. Also, there were no consistency patterns related to self-esteem in any of the other areas assessed in this study. In order to fully comprehend these results and examine their potential implications for the school principal, a comprehensive discussion is presented in chapter five.

CHAPTER V

Conclusions and Implications

Introduction

The central purpose of this study was the investigation of teachers' and principals' perceptions of one another. Teachers' perceptions of their principal's leadership style, flexibility, and effectiveness were compared for consistency with the principal's self-perception. Also, principals' perceptions of what job aspects of teaching are important to teachers were compared with teachers' self-perceptions in that regard. A secondary question investigated teachers' self-esteem levels. Teachers' self-esteem levels were measured, and compared for significance to the levels of perception consistency between principals and teachers. From the findings of this study, important conclusions can be drawn and implications suggested for further research.

Conclusions

Perceptions

Conclusions related to the hypotheses in this study focus on the major variables of perceptions of principal behavior, teachers' perceptions about teaching, and general levels of teachers' self-esteem. In each school, the principal's and teachers' perceptions of the principal's leadership behavior and the importance of job aspects to teachers were compared. For both principals' behavior and teachers' job aspects, perception consistency was weak at best. On the issue of principals' awareness of what was important to their teachers about teaching, principals in over half of the schools studied had significantly different perceptions than their teachers (at .05 level). While this may not seem to be an important finding, one need only consider the nature of the job aspects assessed on the Dransoff Educator Perception Scale (see appendix) and the potential implications for a principal not clearly aware of the true sentiment of a faculty in this regard. Imagine, for example, the effect of a principal who diminishes the importance of his positive feedback given to teachers; while teachers think this is extremely, or even moderately, important. At another level, consider the principal who agrees with his faculty that positive feedback is important and thinks he does a good job of this; when in

fact his teachers are dissatisfied with his feedback performance. In either case, a principal is basing decisions on faulty information. Decisions based on such information will likely fall short of attaining their desired effect.

This study did not assess pre-existing assumptions of teachers or principals regarding the consistency of their awareness levels for the areas examined in this study. To have directly addressed this issue with participants would have strengthened the researcher's ability to draw conclusions about the relationship between these pre-existing assumptions held by principals and teachers and actual levels of perception consistency. Though not assessed in this study, it would not surprise this researcher if the majority of principals involved in this study felt their perceptions of what was important to their teachers about teaching were consistent with their teachers' own perceptions. If this feeling on the parts of principals exists, principals could develop a false sense of confidence about their levels of awareness of the needs and wishes of his faculty.

The results of comparing teachers' perceptions of their principal's leadership behavior to the principal's self-perceptions were even more disturbing. Using the Educator LBA, the leadership behavior of principals was assessed in terms of leadership style, flexibility, and effectiveness. Leadership style is defined as the pattern of behavior of a principal in a given situation. Flexibility

levels represented the proportional balance of all four possible leadership style choices reflected in the behavior of a principal. Effectiveness levels assessed how appropriate the selected leadership behavior was for the given situation.

In the areas of leadership style and flexibility, there was consistency between principals and teachers in only half of the schools. In the area of effectiveness, less than one-third of the schools had perception consistency between principals and teachers. Looking at the results across the three areas (style, flexibility, effectiveness) by school, in eight of the fifteen schools there was a significant lack of perception consistency in at least two of the three areas. In three of the eight there was no consistency in any area. In only one school was there perception consistency in all three areas between principals and teachers.

In the sample schools lacking significant consistency between teachers' perceptions of their principal's behavior and the principal's self-perception, two factors were involved separately or in combination. Either principals' self-perceptions were inaccurate or teachers' perceptions were inaccurate. These results are disturbing because, given the significant amount of interaction between teachers and principals, one would expect higher levels of consistency.

One example from these results should serve to underscore the potential impact such inconsistency could have for those involved. In the area of effectiveness, there was consistency

in only four of the fifteen schools. Of the eleven that had no significant consistency, nine principals perceived themselves as being more effective than did their teachers. These principals have the impression that they are doing a better job than is perceived by their teachers - a significant reference group for their performance assessment. Are these principals really less effective than they believe themselves to be? Possibly, but more information is needed before such a determination is made. A problem develops, however, when principals do not seek confirming information about their leadership behavior from their faculties, but instead, operate in isolation, assuming that their teachers see their performance as they, themselves, do. Therefore, these principals may see no need to obtain feedback from their faculties regarding their own performance. If so, these principals are at risk of becoming complacent in their decision-making. Interestingly enough, two principals perceived themselves as significantly less effective than did their faculties. If teachers' perceptions are accurate in these cases, the principals could certainly benefit from the moral support in knowing that others perceive them as highly - or even reasonably - effective administrators.

Much has been written on the topic of teacher burnout--its causes, effects, and potential solutions. School principal burnout occurs also, but receives much less attention and debate. Principals who see themselves as less

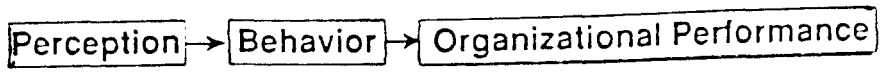
effective may well need the overt support and reassurance of teaching staff and others that they are doing an effective job. But again, if such feedback is not actively sought by the principal, it likely will not be forthcoming.

One might ask, "How can such perceptual inconsistency be present within a school? These are people who see each other and work together every day." As stated previously, the hierarchical organizational structure of schools generally allows limited formal opportunities for meaningful teacher interaction, much less opportunities to interact with the principal. Many researchers (e.g. Lortie, 1975; McPherson, 1972; Sarason, 1982) found that teachers typically work in isolation. While they see one another in the lunchroom, in staff meetings, and throughout the building, teachers seldom employ these interactions as opportunities to discuss their work or to collaborate on shared problems. With such lack of opportunity to discuss and act on important school issues, it is not surprising that perceptual inconsistency exists in schools.

While these circumstances may be prevalent, they appear to vary from school to school. For example, Little (1982) describes schools where a norm of collegiality prevails. The cultures of these schools support such practices as teachers observing each others' teaching, providing suggestions for improvement, and discussing professional problems. The principal is key to the development of such a school culture.

Schools are not different than other organizations in their tendency to become overly concerned about the product at the expense of the process. The bottom line in education (e.g. the development of productive citizens with internationally competitive skills as measured by standardized tests and perhaps other measures) can become such an all-consuming endeavor that the process of education gets lost. Therefore, effective leadership on the part of a principal includes activities that regularly address the importance of such processes: the development of school-wide goals, the implementation of the school mission statement, the encouragement of new ideas, etc. Alloting time for these activities would give teachers formal opportunities to develop and express ideas about the process of educating, as well as the product of education. As a result, teachers and principals would have clearer conceptions of each others' perceptions and attitudes.

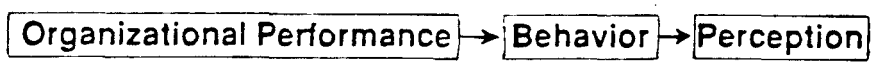
Another possible reason for the low levels of perception consistency in schools is the lack of a clear understanding by principals of the perception formation processes at work in the school. Also lacking on the parts of principals is a clear awareness of the difficulty in determining the perceptions of others. If one agrees that the following process is true,



then it is evident that a principal who possesses a clear awareness of perceptions is likely to increase the effectiveness of a school.

Levels of perception consistency can be improved in two ways. The principal can regularly seek teacher feedback. This can be done formally (e.g. surveys, work with teachers on committees, etc.) and informally (e.g. casual conversation, recreating,etc.). The difficulty with this method of seeking feedback is its haphazardness. The feedback elicited may provide information that is not the most important to the improvement of the school.

Another approach has the potential to be more effective. Reversing the process discussed above,



begin by examining the performance of the school in light of previously determined criteria (goals, etc.). Identify some areas of perceived success and perceived need. Then identify the behaviors that give support to the perceived successes and needs. After identifying these behaviors, the assessment of

perceptions becomes more focused, and, ideally, more useful to those involved.

Either way, the examination of perceptions takes time and needs to be done regularly in organizational settings. In the case of schools, more information about how teachers perceive instructional processes, principal behavior, and school goals is needed to provide clues for making schools more effective. The school principal will continue to be central to such efforts.

Self-Esteem

Generally, results for self-esteem levels were not significant and no definitive patterns emerged (see Appendices F-I). In schools with less perceptual consistency (i.e. consistency in fewer areas), teachers' self-esteem levels were not necessarily higher or lower than of teachers in schools in which there were higher levels of perception consistency. In addition, self-esteem levels for teachers as a group were not found to be as low as initially hypothesized.

Perception consistency in the area of leadership style, regardless of style type, was the only one for which any patterns relative to teachers' self-esteem emerged (see Tables 5 and 6). In schools for which higher levels of perception consistency existed, teachers' self-esteem levels tended to be higher than in schools that did not exhibit such

consistency. While such patterns were not pervasive enough to warrant general conclusions by the researcher, they do point to the need for further research.

Even though in most cases in this study self-esteem was found to be unrelated to perception consistency, other research supports the fact that self-esteem of teachers may indeed be a factor in teacher motivation and school climate, both of which can have an impact on school effectiveness (Adams and Bailey, 1989). The assessment of self-esteem is complicated by the fact that the definition of the term in the literature has many variations. Further, there is much debate over the identity and impact of factors that influence one's self-esteem. These difficulties evidence themselves readily in the available self-esteem assessment instruments, most of which have narrow ranges of applicability. It is possible that another self-esteem measure might have yielded different results regarding the self-esteem levels of teachers in relation to their perceptions.

Implications

Principals' Behavior

From this study's findings it is clear the assumption

that perceptions between principals and teachers are generally consistent is an erroneous one. In all the schools studied, perceptions were inconsistent in at least one area. For most schools, perceptions were inconsistent in more than one area. A principal who formulates policies and makes decisions assuming he knows how others think and feel, is essentially operating in a vacuum.

There is a serious need to seek confirming information regarding perceptions of self and others, as well as perception formation processes in schools. It will fall to the principal to actively seek out and provide regular opportunities for feedback from teachers on his performance and that of the school. This will, of course, take time from an already overloaded schedule for all involved. But unless a commitment is made to such efforts, it is unlikely that a school can attain some common agreement on direction, priorities, and effectiveness of policies and procedures.

While this study focused on perception consistency levels between teachers and principals, this comparison alone is not enough to foster effective schools. School principals need to look for ways to create a more favorable personal and professional image so that the faculty has an increasingly positive perception of them. In the following sections, some brief but practical strategies are offered that a principal could implement in seeking confirming information regarding perceptions of self and others. They can also serve to

increase positive perceptions of principals by their faculties. This list of strategies may appear to be simple common sense approaches to working with people in schools. While this may be true, based on the findings of this study, it is the researcher's opinion that such common-sense approaches generally are not used by principals regularly. Reflecting upon these strategies will assist a principal in re-examining his own efforts in this regard.

Ways to Enhance Faculty Perceptions of the Principal

The keys to faculty job satisfaction include lowering stress, decreasing friction, increasing morale, elevating competencies, and gaining high productivity. Teacher job satisfaction results from the pleasurable emotional state the teacher experiences when he perceives that his job contains specific characteristics which he desires and values. Teacher job satisfaction is also closely tied to personal and professional perceptions that the faculty have of their principal. The more favorable each teacher's personal and professional perception of the principal, the greater his job satisfaction.

1) Principals should increase efforts to actively

solicit teachers' opinions and feelings on work-related problems. Part of the principal's job is to seek solutions for the problems being experienced by the faculty. A principal who fails to actively solicit opinions and feelings from teachers likely will be unaware of such problems. Without such efforts on the part of the principal, teachers may become frustrated by problems they don't have the authority to resolve.

2) Principals should make every effort to continually improve and refine principal-faculty relations. These efforts should be visible to all faculty. There is nothing more disconcerting to teachers than not receiving help from the principal. The methods used to offer assistance also matter. For instance, subjective standards or evaluation techniques that fail to recognize the professionalism of the teacher make the principal appear as an enemy, rather than an advocate.

3) Principals should seek to discover the aspects of classroom and school management and decision-making in which teachers want, and need, to become more involved. Then principals should increase efforts to clearly communicate this information to the faculty, develop a plan which facilitates meaningful faculty involvement, and communicate to everyone the efforts to gain faculty involvement.

4) Principals must emphasize and publicize the work of the entire faculty. Faculty members need, and want, to be recognized for both regular and extraordinary efforts aimed

at meeting goals for both classroom and school. Furthermore, principals should never give teachers any reason to feel that they, or their work, are considered less important than the principal's.

5) Principals should make the effort to increase their daily visibility with every member of the faculty. Principals need to get out of the offices, visit classrooms, and be in the halls between classes as well as before and after school. Likewise, faculties need to see their principals in the cafeteria, on the playground, at practices, at rehearsals, at activities, and at other times when faculty members congregate. This increased visibility serves several important purposes. It indicates to others that these activities are significant, and worthy of the principal's time. It also gives others more varied opportunities to see the principal's leadership behavior. Finally, it gives the principal added opportunities for interaction with others and, therefore more opportunities to influence others.

Ways to Enhance Teachers' Perceptions of Their Work

The principal should do everything possible to increase faculty members' awareness of the positive aspects of both their work and their mission in an effort to develop and maintain perception consistency between teachers and himself. He must also emphasize the success that individuals, the

school or the district are enjoying. Critics constantly tell teachers they are failures. Helping them recognize specific positive aspects of their work is vital to increasing job satisfaction. Principals can play an important role in promoting a professional perspective among faculty, and increase the faculty's positive perception of the principal as well. One way to accomplish this is for the principal to pay close attention to the following factors that affect teachers' attitudes and, ultimately, their performance.

1) Define responsibilities as clearly as possible. Teachers can be granted a considerable degree of autonomy. In many ways, they operate as separate entities in the school. They have the autonomy to decide what happens in their classrooms, and to decide when it happens. Yet if teachers act on their own while they're unsure of their responsibilities, they may make incorrect decisions with disastrous consequences. A principal should never give a teacher the responsibility to do a job without giving a corresponding degree of authority, so that the teacher can complete the job successfully. Otherwise, teachers' opinions of principals likely will be lower.

2) Principals must make sure faculty have enough information to get the job done. If they need more information in order to complete a task, a principal should not let them begin until they have it.

3) Principals must be sure teachers have enough freedom

to decide how to do the job. If a task must be done following specific procedures which are unfamiliar to teachers, it is best not delegated. Task assignments should allow for individual input in accomplishing the task, with the emphasis placed upon the end result.

4) Principals must be certain faculty have enough time to get the job done and must help faculty avoid conflicting demands on their time. There are countless examples of conflicting demands on teachers in a school. Principals must establish priorities and create time for teachers to accomplish classroom, committee and extracurricular tasks. In addition, principals need to avoid overloading teachers with excessive amounts of work, including paperwork. Principals must realize when too much is being asked of faculty members, and then confer jointly with them to determine what can be accomplished in the time available and according to agreed upon priorities.

5) Principals need to provide faculty with the resources and equipment to get the job done. At times it may be necessary to alter the assignment or increase the number of people working on the job. It is also the principal's job to provide the tools. Simply telling teachers to use their ingenuity and creativity to get a job done does not provide the support needed.

6) Principals should use all training sessions, evaluation meetings, and faculty meetings as vehicles to

implement discussion of mutual expectations. Teachers must know the principal's viewpoint on goals, objectives, and mission in order to establish mutual esteem, and subsequently perceptual consistency. The degree to which expectations are articulated by principals to the faculty is very important to the success or failure of the teacher-principal relationship. Unfortunately, specific expectations often remain unarticulated for several reasons: lack of time, lack of common or overlapping reference frames, lack of communication skills, fear of conflict, unawareness of the importance of explicit communication, and lack of principal's motivation to communicate expectations. The discussion of mutual expectations leads to better perceptions of principals and enhances teacher job satisfaction.

The study of perceptions in schools, or any organization, is an ongoing process, not an event. It is a process that results in a better understanding of individual motivations and behaviors. Roles and expectations become more realistic, better understood, and more widely accepted. Such a process recognizes the school as a social system in this researcher's opinion. The school administrator who acknowledges this aspect of the school organization will have the best chance of leading a school that is built on professional trust, and is committed to developing dynamic, self-renewing systems of operation.

Implications for Further Research

It is evident to this researcher that further study in the area of perceptions in schools is necessary. Questions arose as the data in this study was being reviewed and interpreted. How would principals have responded if asked the question "How often do you formally seek teacher feedback regarding your own leadership behavior in the school? How do you accomplish this?" Also, how might teachers have responded when asked, "How often are you given opportunities to give meaningful feedback to your principal regarding his leadership behavior?" Such background information would have given added insights into levels of perception consistency, the accuracy of the perceptions themselves, and the nature of perception formation processes present in the school.

Another approach in the study of perceptions would be to compare perception agreement levels to levels of school effectiveness. Much research has been conducted in recent years on the characteristics of an effective school. Effective school correlates have been developed to assist those associated with schools in assessing their particular school in areas that could increase effectiveness. Perception assessment instruments could be developed that are structured around these effective schools correlates. Such instruments might be tied to perceptions of specific events or behaviors evident in effective schools.

It is also apparent to this researcher as a result of this study that there is a need for further study in the area of teachers' self-esteem. Better instruments are needed to measure self-esteem. Instruments are needed that identify psychological constructs that would clearly define self-esteem, and isolate factors that contribute to self-esteem formation and development. Such instruments will lead to a better understanding of the concept, as well as make clearer the connections that exist between self-esteem and individual behavior. Hopefully, the fact that self-esteem is difficult to define and measure for purposes of study will not prevent others from endeavoring to discover the relationships between self-esteem and human behavior.

Chapter VI

Summary

This research concerned the assessment of perception consistency levels between teachers and principals in 15 elementary schools and the subsequent relation of consistency levels to levels of teachers' self-esteem. Perceptions of the importance of job aspects to teachers were assessed. These job aspects were characterized by 20 statements related to the function of teaching that were also believed to be related to teachers' feelings of self-esteem. In addition, perceptions of principals' behavior were assessed in terms of each principal's leadership style, effectiveness and flexibility.

Self-esteem is defined as the feeling of self-worth based on self-appraisal. It was hypothesized by the researcher that perception consistency between teachers and principals in schools would be related to teachers' self-esteem levels (e.g. the greater the level of consistency, the higher the level of

teachers' self-esteem). Self-esteem was assessed by self report using the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. Perceptions of principals' behavior were assessed using the Educator Leader Behavior Analysis. Perceptions of the importance to teachers of job aspects related to teaching were assessed using the Dransoff Educator Perception Scale. Fifteen principals and 164 teachers participated in this study.

Statistical comparisons for perception consistency between teachers and their principals yielded insignificant consistency levels in the majority of the areas assessed. None of the schools showed significant perception consistency between teachers and principals for all four areas assessed. In only three schools was there significant consistency in three of the four areas. Six of the schools demonstrated significant perception consistency in two of the four areas. In five schools significant consistency levels were evident in only one area, and in one school significant perception consistency was not present for any area.

An examination of mean self-esteem scores by school indicated that generally teachers' self-esteem levels were not any higher or lower in relation to perception consistency levels with the exception of the area of principals' leadership style. In this area, schools with mean self-esteem scores above the population mean generally evidenced significant perception consistency levels with regard to leadership style. Schools with mean self-esteem scores below

the population mean did not generally exhibit significant perception consistency levels.

Conclusions indicate that perception consistency in schools between teachers and principals cannot be assumed to exist. In the majority of cases in this study principals and their teachers did not possess a shared awareness in regards to principals' behavior or important job aspects related to teaching. The results suggest that perception consistency is not present by chance. Rather, it is likely the result of conscious efforts on the parts of teachers and principals to involve themselves in activities and practices that promote the development of mutual expectations. This often occurs only when such efforts are initiated by the school principal and coordinated in an ongoing manner. In schools which make such activities and practices a priority, it is likely that there exists the potential for the shared awareness necessary to bring about higher levels of organizational performance.

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Appendix A

New York State Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg Self-Esteem)

The RSE is a 10-item Guttman scale with a Coefficient of Reproducibility of 92 percent and a Coefficient of Scalability of 72 percent. Respondents are asked to strongly agree, agree, disagree, or strongly disagree with the following items (asterisks represent low self-esteem responses):

(1)	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	SA	A	D*	SD*
(2)	At times I think I am no good at all.	SA*	A*	D	SD
(3)	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	SA	A	D*	SD*
(4)	I am able to do things as well as most other people.	SA	A	D*	SD*
(5)	I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	SA*	A*	D	SD
(6)	I certainly feel useless at times.	SA*	A*	D	SD
(7)	I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.	SA	A	D*	SD*
(8)	I wish I could have more respect for myself.	SA*	A*	D	SD
(9)	All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	SA*	A*	D	SD
(10)	I take a positive attitude toward myself.	SA	A	D*	SD*

Appendix B

EDUCATOR'S LBAII OTHER

LEADER BEHAVIOR ANALYSIS

Kenneth Blanchard
Ron Hamilton
Drea Zigarmi

Directions: The purpose of the Educator's LBAII Other is to provide a leader with information about your perceptions of his/her leadership style. The instrument consists of twenty typical job situations that involve a leader and one or more staff members. Following each situation are four possible actions that a leader may take.

Assume

_____
(name of leader)

is involved in each of the twenty situations. In each of the situations you must choose one of the four leader decisions. CIRCLE the letter of the decision which you think would best describe the behavior of this leader in the situation presented. Circle only one choice.

1. This administrator has assigned four teachers per week the responsibility of supervising the arrival and departure of the buses. The duty roster is posted in the mail room. This administrator knows that most teachers don't like this task very much, and has noticed that some teachers do not get out on duty on time. There have been reports from the bus drivers that there are problems and recently there has been an increase in the number of parent complaints about student behavior on the buses. This administrator would....

   a. Clearly redefine what the teachers' responsibilities are, outline required student conduct, and closely supervise teacher performance in the area.

   b. Describe the problem to the teachers and let them determine a course of action.

   c. Discuss the problem with the teachers, ask for teacher input, re-emphasizing the teachers' roles and responsibilities, and monitor their performance.

   d. Ask the teachers for their advice on the problem, support their suggestions and solutions to the problem.

2. This administrator has the responsibility of coordinating the year end recognition ceremonies. Because the district has combined two middle schools into one, this year's ceremonies will be the first with the schools combined. At the first planning meeting most teachers and parents seem enthused and interested in creating a first rate recognition ceremony, yet they have not worked together and no one has experience with the recognition ceremonies. This administrator would....

   a. Tell the group how he/she wants the ceremonies to be conducted, lay out the basic activities desired, the timelines, and then ask for an agenda with the key responsible people designated.

   b. Ask the group how they want the ceremonies to be conducted, explore the alternatives, and encourage their creativity. Listen to their ideas and draw them out.

   c. Discuss his/her ideas with the group, ask them what they want to see, encourage their enthusiasm and efforts, but make the final decisions on the program activities.

d. Tell the group he/she is available to them at any time, give them time to get acquainted, and check in periodically in case they have questions.

3. Due to illness of the assistant principal, this administrator decided to take over supervision of the assistant principal-student planning board until he recovers. After two meetings he/she has become aware that the assistant principal was much too directive with his students. This administrator plans to discuss the matter with him, but in the interim, wants to begin to make the situation more productive and enjoyable for the students. This administrator would....

a. Continue to direct the participation of the students on the planning board.

b. Involve students in decision making, but maintain control over the areas in which their assistance will be accepted.

c. Do what he/she can to make the students feel important and involved.

d. Take a very passive role at the meetings and allow some student leadership to emerge.

4. Last week the local police found a group of students hanging out on a street corner a few blocks from the school. This administrator now knows that they left the school grounds during a fire drill because they were <u>not</u> adequately supervised. There have been problems with fire drills in the past. Teachers don't seem to take them seriously and, on occasion, certain teachers are not even leaving the building. This administrator has felt it necessary in the past to remind them of their responsibilities. When he/she has done so it has helped. This administrator would.

a. Remind teachers in a friendly manner of their responsibilities during fire drills but would <u>not</u> be directive.

b. Get suggestions from teachers about the fire drills, but see that procedures are followed.

c. Redefine fire drill procedures to teachers and emphasize the necessity for them to meet their responsibilities.

d. Avoid confrontation with teachers; let this particular situation pass.

5. This administrator has asked the department heads to come up with a new grading policy. Parental pressure has dictated a change, at least for some subjects. This administrator feels that department heads should suggest the change, but now finds that they are unable to come up with a proposal. In the past, the administrator has given the group important assignments and they have solved them without any direct intervention. This administrator would....

   a. Involve the department heads and together draft a new grading policy.

   b. Leave it to the department heads to draft a proposal.

   c. Encourage the department heads to work on a grading policy and be available for discussion.

   d. Act quickly and firmly to direct the department heads to propose a plan.

6. This administrator is considering changing to a team teaching approach rather than the usual single teacher - single subject approach. Members of the teaching staff have made suggestions about this needed change. Most teachers have worked in team teaching settings in other schools. The teachers have generally proven to be competent and open to change in the past. This administrator would....

   a. Announce the changes and then implement them by providing close supervision.

   b. Allow a committee of teachers to consider changes and make recommendations. Also, allow the committee to organize the implementation of recommendations that they approve.

   c. Incorporate teacher recommendations in the change, but direct the implementation of the change himself/herself.

   d. Encourage teacher involvement in developing the change in structure and let them suggest implementation strategies.

7. This administrator has been asked to take over the chairpersonship of a task force responsible for making recommendations for changing the inservice teacher training in the school system. Because of a lack of leadership on the part of the previous chairperson, the task force is way behind in the generation of its report. Task force members are enthused about the job of the task

force, but most of the members know little about what needs to be done. This administrator would...

a. Try to work for group involvement in setting goals and not push his/her leadership role at this time.

b. Redefine the goals of the task force and direct and carefully supervise their work.

c. Let the task force continue to operate as it has while he/she begins to informally get to know the individuals in the group.

d. Incorporate suggestions from the group on how to run the task force, but assume direction and leadership of the group.

8. A recent article published in the local newspaper discussed the academic achievement of schools in your area. The results of test scores for the past five years were used to rank order the schools. It was found that your school ranked next to last. This administrator formed a committee to investigate possible changes in curriculum for the students, and has allowed the committee to function without much involvement. This administrator now feels it necessary to become involved due to parental pressure and a deadline which has been missed. This administrator would....

a. Learn more about the committee's work and be sure to praise that which he/she thinks has been done well.

b. Meet with the committee to learn more about their activities and then recommend future operating procedures to them.

c. Take steps to ensure that the committee follows a set of procedures which this administrator sets forth.

d. Continue to let the committee work on its own but attend their meetings to become familiar with their activities.

9. For the past two years this administrator has taken an active part in establishing a PTA. He/she feels it is now time to reduce his/her involvement. PTA members are aware of the administrator's many responsibilities and respect his/her time commitments. The PTA has been productive in planning activities, and except for a few members, the group has been flexible. This administrator would...

a. Provide encouragement and support to the group but let the PTA plan future directions.

b. Involve the PTA in planning future directions but implement the changes himself/herself.

c. Allow the PTA to formulate its own direction without any further assistance or support from him/her.

d. Announce the change in his/her role and then propose and direct the implementation of a new structure.

10. In response to a plea for accountability from the school board, this administrator has decided that all teachers, both tenured and non-tenured, must submit lesson plan books to department heads each Friday. In the past he/she has required only non-tenured teachers to do this. Some of the teachers who usually respond to his/her directions are not responding to this redefinition of standards. This administrator feels strongly that this directive should be followed. This administrator would...

a. Send the staff a memo describing the new procedure and allow time for a period of adjustment.

b. Clearly redefine the directive and then personally follow up to see that all teachers are following it.

c. Explain his/her rationale for the decision, ask the teachers for suggestions in this area, but see that new standards are met.

d. Encourage teachers to meet the new standards and solicit their reactions and comments.

11. In his/her capacity as a coordinator, this administrator has just attended a meeting of the planning committee for a Regional Curriculum Conference. Committee members were excited about planning the conference and many excellent ideas were discussed. He/she did not need to exert much leadership with the committee. Everybody seemed to enjoy the interaction and to think that many important matters were settled. Because the meeting went so well, this administrator now feels unsure about the role he/she should take in future meetings. This administrator would...

a. Let the committee continue to work as it has been, with little direction from him/her.

b. Try to assume a leadership role with the committee.

c. Discuss the situation with the committee and then take whatever role he/she feels is necessary.

d. Support their efforts when possible by sharing information, facilitating problem solving and praising their progress.

12. Recently this administrator gave one of the teachers the responsibility of reviewing several commercial curriculums with the mandate to make recommendations to the department as to the relative merits of these programs. This teacher lacks energy and enthusiasm for this assignment. In the past this teacher has been very dependable. However, this teacher is experiencing difficulties in performing this task and seems discouraged. This administrator would...

a. Provide substantial direction to enable this teacher to carry out the new responsibilities.

b. Discuss the situation with the teacher, but allow the teacher to decide how to proceed with these new responsibilities.

c. Provide support and encouragement and, at the same time, be far more directive with the teacher.

d. Give the teacher more time to learn how to do the work.

13. The district has finally granted this administrator the funds needed to purchase 6 small computers for your building. Most of the teachers are anxious to learn how to use the computers and get the children working on the computers, but most have had no experience or training with PC's. This administrator has had a great deal of experience with all types of computers and even owns one of the type selected for your building. This administrator would...

a. Ask the staff to read the computer manuals that came with the software and call him/her if they have any questions.

b. Hire a computer expert, tell them when the inservice will start, and make sure those who participated in the classes know what is expected of them.

c. Ask the teachers how they want to proceed and after incorporating their input, make sure that those teachers participating in the inservice know what is expected of them.

d. Ask them to help each other, try to encourage their mutual problem solving and praise their progress.

14. Your fellow teachers are being pressured to solve a problem raised by the school board. In the past this administrator explained a problem to the teachers and they have always managed to find a suitable solution, and without direction or support. This time, however, they do not seem to be interested. This administrator would...

a. Discuss the problem further with the teachers and encourage them to develop a solution.

b. Work with the teachers and together solve the problem.

c. Give the teachers more time to work on the problem by themselves before intervening.

d. Solve the problem himself/herself.

15. Recently this administrator has learned that there may be some internal difficulties among the janitorial staff. The group has an excellent work record and has worked in harmony the past year. All members of the staff are qualified for their respective tasks. In fact, it is the best group of janitors this administrator has ever seen in a school. This administrator would...

a. Act quickly and firmly to correct the problem.

b. Make himself/herself available to the janitors for discussion, but be careful to not push possible solutions on them.

c. Meet with them to discuss the problem, being sure to provide a solution before the meeting is over.

d. Allow janitors to work out any internal difficulties themselves, but continue to monitor what's going on.

16. The last two faculty meetings have turned into teacher-led discussions of school problems. Usually the teacher who introduces a particular problem has acted as a coordinator of the discussion. This administrator feels these meetings have been very productive. There has been no problem with teacher performance during this period. Teachers are beginning to talk more with each other, both at the meetings and during the regular school day. This administrator is now wondering what role he/she should play at future faculty meetings. This administrator would...

a. Let the teachers continue to run the faculty meetings and participate as little as possible in the meetings.

b. Set a definite agenda for faculty meetings and act as chairman.

c. Join in the discussions at faculty meetings and supervise the teachers' behavior, being careful not to lead the discussions.

d. Discuss how the meetings will be run with the teachers and then initiate necessary changes.

17. This administrator has recently been put in charge of a mathematics department. The past record of the department has been excellent. All the teachers are well trained and are committed to their jobs. This administrator is not sure what his/her role should be in this situation. This administrator would...

a. Discuss the department with the teachers and base any changes on their recommendations.

b. Step in and quickly establish the direction of the department.

c. Provide minimal direction and support to teachers in the department.

d. Discuss the department with the teachers and then initiate any changes that he/she feels are necessary.

18. In the past, your fellow teachers have been able to implement curriculum changes without any intervention from this administrator. Now they want to implement an objectives-based instructional program, but it appears that they are unable to implement it smoothly. The teachers were excited about the program and have spent a great deal of time on the change, but it is evident that they are becoming discouraged. An objectives-based instructional program has been endorsed by the school board and needs to be implemented soon. This administrator would...

a. Intervene and supervise the new program's implementation carefully.

b. Incorporate any recommendations from the teachers, but direct their efforts to implement the program.

c. Involve the teachers in a discussion session and be supportive of any of their suggestions.

d. Do not intervene except to postpone the date of implementation.

19. The past detention policy was a failure. All teachers would send the students to a central location and then a few teachers would supervise the detention hall on a rotating basis. Recently it was decided to allow teachers to be responsible for their own detention policies. This administrator has made sure each teacher is aware of the school policy regarding detention, but has not watched their behavior in this area closely. This administrator is concerned now because this plan does not seem to be working either, even though the teachers seem to agree it is a better plan. This administrator would...

a. Encourage the teachers to keep after detention problems and praise them for their cooperation.

b. Tell them the new policy is not working and why, re-emphasize the new procedures and follow up to see if these procedures are followed.

c. Explain to them that the new policy is not working and why, then ask them to work together to solve the problem. Tell them to call him/her if there are any problems.

d. Be more open now to suggestions from the teachers in this area, but continue to make sure that all teachers are aware of their roles and responsibilities.

20. Over the last two months this administrator has observed several unsupervised classes immediately after the lunch period. Teachers are not returning from their lunch period in time for afternoon classes. This fact has been brought to the attention of the Advisory Council. The Council seems reluctant to move quickly on this issue. They want more information about who the offenders are and the number of occurrences. This administrator would...

a. Give the needed information to the Council, and after getting their recommendations, decide what needs to be done.

b. Give the needed information to the Council and let them work on the solution.

c. Discuss the problem further with the Council after providing them with the needed information, and support their efforts to reach a solution to the problem.

d. Assume responsibility for the issue and send a directive to all teachers emphasizing punctuality and responsibility to start classes on time. Follow up and make sure this is done.

Appendix C

The Dransoff Educator Perception Scale (DEPS)

Teachers: How important is each item to you as a teacher?

Principals: How important do you think each item is to teachers?

Circle one number that best describes your response to each item.

hardly important	somewhat important	rather important	extremely important		
2	3	4	5	1)	Competence as a teacher.
2	3	4	5	2)	Success as a teacher.
2	3	4	5	3)	Pride in work as a teacher.
2	3	4	5	4)	Overall professional satisfaction.
2	3	4	5	5)	Specific personal goals.
2	3	4	5	6)	Personal growth.
2	3	4	5	7)	Opportunity to help children.
2	3	4	5	8)	Use of own capabilities.
2	3	4	5	9)	Determination of own teaching methods.
2	3	4	5	10)	Determination of own teaching materials.
2	3	4	5	11)	Pleasant work environment.
2	3	4	5	12)	Realistic expectations by principal.
2	3	4	5	13)	Positive evaluation by principal.
2	3	4	5	14)	Positive feedback from principal.
2	3	4	5	15)	Support provided by principal.
2	3	4	5	16)	Faculty cohesiveness.
2	3	4	5	17)	Credit for job well done.
2	3	4	5	18)	Prestige of teaching profession.
2	3	4	5	19)	Realistic expectations by community.
2	3	4	5	20)	Support from school parents.

Appendix D

Pilot Study
Dransoff Educator Perception Scale (DEPS)
Reliability Analysis

Variable	Label	Alpha if Item Deleted
Q1	Feeling Competent	.8980
Q2	Feeling Successful	.8925
Q3	Pride in Work	.8965
Q4	Professional Satisfaction	.8957
Q5	Personal Goals	.8892
Q6	Personal Growth	.8923
Q7	Helping Children	.8897
Q8	Using Capabilities	.8891
Q9	Determine Methods	.8869
Q10	Determine Materials	.8876
Q11	Pleasant Environment	.8794
Q12	Real Xpectations Prin.	.8841
Q13	Positive Eval. by Prin.	.8873
Q14	Positive Feedback Prin.	.8862
Q15	Support from Prin.	.8787
Q16	Faculty Cohesive	.8870
Q17	Credit for Good Job	.8878
Q18	Prestige of Teaching	.8967
Q19	Real Xpectations Commun.	.8829
Q20	Parent Support	.8839

Appendix E

Perceptions of Leadership Style

			Style	1	2	3	4	
School 1	Prin. Style 3	A = 5; NA = 11	Prin.	0%	35%	45%	20%	NO MATCH
			Fac.	29%	30%	27%	14%	
School 2	Prin. Style 2/3	A = 8; NA = 2	Prin.	20%	40%	40%	0%	MATCH
			Fac.	28%	38%	25%	9%	
School 3	Prin. Style 2	A = 8; NA = 12	Prin.	25%	30%	25%	20%	NO MATCH
			Fac.	43%	33%	19%	5%	
School 4	Prin. Style 2	A = 7; NA = 1	Prin.	10%	60%	30%	0%	MATCH
			Fac.	19%	41%	33%	7%	
School 5	Prin. Style 3	A = 3; NA = 11	Prin.	30%	25%	35%	10%	NO MATCH
			Fac.	26%	35%	24%	15%	
School 6	Prin. Style 2	A = 6; NA = 1	Prin.	20%	40%	30%	10%	MATCH
			Fac.	24%	35%	32%	9%	
School 7	Prin. Style 2	A = 2; NA = 5	Prin.	10%	40%	30%	20%	NO MATCH
			Fac.	24%	34%	36%	6%	
School 8	Prin. Style 2/3	A = 7; NA = 2	Prin.	25%	35%	35%	5%	MATCH
			Fac.	29%	36%	23%	12%	
School 9	Prin. Style 2	A = 5; NA = 4	Prin.	20%	40%	25%	15%	MATCH
			Fac.	21%	36%	29%	14%	
School 10	Prin. Style 3	A = 2; NA = 10	Prin.	25%	20%	45%	10%	NO MATCH
			Fac.	32%	33%	21%	14%	
School 11	Prin. Style 2	A = 5; NA = 4	Prin.	15%	45%	40%	0%	MATCH
			Fac.	24%	33%	28%	15%	
School 12	Prin. Style 2	A = 2; NA = 7	Prin.	30%	40%	25%	5%	NO MATCH
			Fac.	26%	24%	29%	21%	
School 13	Prin. Style 2	A = 5; NA = 4	Prin.	30%	35%	30%	5%	MATCH
			Fac.	24%	37%	29%	10%	
School 14	Prin. Style 2	A = 5; NA = 6	Prin.	15%	40%	35%	10%	NO MATCH
			Fac.	15%	35%	31%	19%	
School 15	Prin. Style 2/3	A = 11; NA = 10	Prin.	25%	30%	30%	115%	MATCH
			Fac.	23%	29%	32%	16%	

Appendix F

Comparison of Teacher Self-Esteem Levels with Perception Consistency on the Dransoff Educator Perception Scale

ANOVA Table

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between	3.13	1	3.13	1.20
Within	33.82	13	2.60	
Total	36.95	14		

*p.<.05.

Appendix G

Comparison of Teacher Self-Esteem Levels with Perception Consistency for Leadership Style

ANOVA Table

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between	140.66	2	70.33	2.90
Within	3954.21	163	24.26	
Total	4094.87	165		

*p.<.05.

Appendix H

Correlations of Leader Effectiveness with Teacher Self-Esteem

School	N	Effectiveness	Self-Esteem
1	16	-.28	.28
2	10	-.01	.97
3	8	.03	.94
4	20	.22	.33
5	14	-.11	.69
6	7	.43	.33
7	7	-.48	.47
8	9	.49	.17
9	9	-.55	.11
10	12	.17	.58
11	9	.31	.40
12	9	.39	.28
13	9	.53	.13
14	11	-.54	.08
15	21	.11	.62

*p.<.05.

Appendix I

Correlations of Leader Flexibility with Teacher Self-Esteem

School	N	Flexibility	Self-Esteem
1	16	-.07	.78
2	10	-.42	.22
3	8	-.39	.08
4	20	-.45	.25
5	14	.30	.29
6	7	-.09	.84
7	7	-.28	.53
8	9	.45	.21
9	9	-.02	.94
10	12	-.07	.81
11	9	.01	.98
12	9	.22	.55
13	9	-.42	.24
14	11	-.03	.91
15	21	.04	.84

*p.<.05.

APPROVAL SHEET

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The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation is now given final approval by the Committee with reference to content and form.

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.

April 21, 1992
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