Industry, business, military and other government agencies are increasingly recognizing the significance of human factors in the productivity of complex organizations. Educational institutions are no exception to this fact. It is assumed that morale and productivity are related to the managerial style of the supervisor. Leaders are faced with the challenge of directing the work group toward the target of increased productivity while at the same time maximizing member satisfaction.

The basic research problem of this study was to investigate the relationship between leadership style of high school principals (in terms of their Concern for Production and Concern for People)
and certain dimensions of teacher morale. The null hypothesis which guided this study was that there was no significant relationship between teacher perceptions of administrative behavior and teacher morale.

A stratified random sampling technique was used to select 132 teachers from ten high schools in the state of Oregon. The results are based on 126 returns, 90 male and 36 female respondents. Principal Leadership Style Questionnaire was used to measure two dimensions (Concern for People and Concern for Production) of administrative behavior. Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire was used to measure ten factors of teacher morale.

All hypotheses were tested at .05 level of confidence. The first primary hypothesis asserting that there would be no partial correlation between administrative dimensions and Teacher Rapport with Principal was rejected. The second primary hypothesis that there would be no partial correlation between administrative dimensions and Satisfaction with Teaching was accepted. Partial correlation was applied to analyze the primary hypotheses by eliminating the effects of secondary hypotheses (Rapport Among Teachers, Teacher Salary, Teacher Load, Curriculum Issues, Teacher Status, Community Support of Education, School Facilities, Community Pressures, Age and Sex). T-test based on regression coefficients was applied to analyze the secondary hypotheses. Out of 20 secondary
hypotheses tested, five of them were rejected.

Analysis of the primary and secondary hypotheses concluded that Curriculum Issues, Rapport with Principal and Teacher Salary are positively related to both the dimensions of administrative behavior. Rapport Among Teachers was positively related to Concern for People but not Production. Satisfaction with Teaching, Teacher Load, Teacher Status, Community Support of Education, School Facilities and Services, Community Pressures, Age and Sex of the teachers are not related to the perceived leadership style of the principal. Teachers Satisfaction with Teaching is probably related mostly to those things that happen directly with pupils inside the classroom over which principals have little influence.

Results of the two administrative dimensions indicated that a principal's leadership behavior is perceived by his faculty in various ways. However, on the average, administrators were rated high on both the "Production" and "People" dimensions of administrative behavior and perceived as having a "6, 7" or "7, 8" leadership style as described by Blake and Mouton (1964).

Analysis of this research further suggest that educational administrators investigated in this study seem to have above average skills in the eyes of their faculty in promoting both goal achievement and member satisfaction. It is recommended that the design of this study be replicated on a larger teacher population and sample size in different geographical areas.
An Investigation of the Relationship Between Administrator Leadership Style and Teacher Morale

by

Surjit Kaur Bhella

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AN INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ADMINISTRATOR LEADERSHIP STYLE AND TEACHER MORALE

CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Industry, business, military and other government agencies are increasingly recognizing the significance of human factors in the productivity of complex organizations. Educational institutions are no exception to this fact. The school is a complex social organization, having many different persons interacting to perform many different functions within a policy framework that is often unclear, ambiguous, or under criticism by the public. Many studies indicate that social factors and above all, morale are the most important determinants of productivity and success in human enterprises.

Student Achievement and Teacher Morale

The question is why does morale seem so important for the health of the organization. Obviously, increased productivity is one of the major goals of any complex organization. Although the scope of educational activities that should take place in schools may be a matter of controversy, few would disagree that the major
objective of the schools is to promote scholastic achievement of the pupils. There is little doubt that teachers are directly involved in the academic progress of their students. Evidently teacher morale could be one of the most important factors that helps student achievement.

In this era of collective bargaining, negotiations, accountability and intense school budget disputes, the problem of teacher morale has left the administrators deeply concerned. It has been established that when high morale exists, productivity is increased. Anderson (1953) conducted a study in 20 Iowa secondary schools to determine the relationship between teacher morale and student achievement. His findings were that teachers in secondary schools whose pupils achieve relatively high scholastically have higher morale than do teachers in schools with relatively low pupil achievement. These results are supported by another study in which Koura (1963) studied 12 secondary public schools in Dearborn, Michigan, to compare the achievement of students with the morale of their teachers. In conducting the study, Koura found that student achievement increased under teachers with high morale and decreased under teachers with low morale.

It seems plausible to assume, therefore, that morale of teachers does make a difference in the scholastic achievement of
their pupils. Apparently teachers with relatively high morale can be expected to teach more effectively.

Managerial Style and Teacher Morale

Morale affects more than just productivity or student achievement. Morale assists in establishing the character of a school and is one of the factors which may determine whether a school functions in an optimum manner, demanding and receiving the utmost from the students or whether the school plods along happy just to see the passing of another day. Morale, which could be interpreted as rapport, spirit, enthusiasm, morale or whatever, is something easy to overlook and yet morale can make a school stand ahead of the rest. (Ellenburg, 1972).

After comprehensively reviewing the research carried out over a period of 25 years into teacher morale or job satisfaction, Blocker and Richardson (1963) concluded that the administrator was the key figure. Whether teachers were satisfied or dissatisfied depended greatly on the quality of the administrative relationships in which they were involved and on the quality of the leadership they were given within this structure.

Research on leader behavior had its earliest beginning in the industrial and business setting. More recently, researchers and
educators in school administration have found this topic to be of significant concern. Invariably the focus of attention is: what type of leadership behavior produces organizational excellence? Admittedly an organization's structure, plan, and concept are basic to its effectiveness, yet beyond these the greatest single variable lies with the behavior of the management team. Its members must act as leaders. They must accomplish their objectives through their ability to guide, motivate, and integrate the efforts of others (Blake and Mouton, 1964).

Management Theory and research of the last two decades have focused on two behavior styles, variously referred to as "democratic", or "autocratic"; "most preferred co-worker" or "least preferred co-worker"; "consideration" or "initiating structure" (Wofford, 1971). Initiating structure emphasizes goal or task functions of the organization whereas consideration behavior is more concerned with member satisfaction. Initiating structure and consideration correspond essentially to the rubrics of Concern for Production and Concern for People. A recurring focus in these investigations has been the simultaneous use of concepts relating to people dimensions and to task dimensions. Several studies, such as those of Halpin (1954), Halpin and Winer (1957), and especially those of Fleishman and Harris (1962), have indicated that leaders who score high on both of these dimensions, i.e., consideration and initiating structure are more likely to be rated high by their supervisors and to have desirable effects on productivity and group morale.
Fleishman and Harris (1962) also found that for production supervisors scoring high on both dimensions, the negative effects of initiating structure were minimal, and they concluded that high consideration foremen could increase their concern for production with very little increase in grievances and no increase in turnover. This research suggests that the effective leadership style is not an either/or proposition but is dependent upon both of the dimensions i.e., consideration and initiating structure of leader behavior.

Studies in education dealing with the dimensions of leadership behavior have been based primarily on the findings of the Ohio State Leadership Studies and the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) Halpin (1957). The LBDQ identifies initiating structure and consideration as the two key leadership dimensions, which, taken together, depicts a leader's administrative style. The leadership behavior research strongly suggests that ideal style is one which integrates the task dimension and the people dimension in the day-to-day management of an institution or organization.

Blake and Mouton (1964) have attempted to conceptualize the task dimension and the people dimension of leadership behavior in a formulation they refer to as the "managerial grid." The grid focuses on five-ideal type theories of supervisory behavior, each based on two major variables found in organizations. One variable
reflects concern for production or output (task oriented, goal emphasis); the other variable reflects concern for people (employee or satisfaction emphasis). The managerial grid method of designating various styles of leadership shows how a leader can simultaneously maximize both the methods which are production-oriented and those which are people-oriented.

The study of business and industrial organizations provide evidence that morale and productivity are related to the managerial style of the supervisor. Effective leadership seems to face the challenge of directing the work group toward the target of increased productivity while at the same time maximizing member satisfaction. A review of the literature concerning leadership convinced the investigator that the proper way to study the leader was through the behavior he was perceived as eliciting which furthered organizational purposes (Halpin, 1966). The research demonstrating the importance of teacher morale to student achievement, and the relationship of morale and productivity to the leadership style in complex organizations, prompted the investigator to study the administrative behavior exercised by high school principals. The study of leadership style to ascertain whether any relationship existed between administrative behavior and morale status of the teachers is the basis of this investigation.
Statement of the Problem

The prime objective of this study was to analyze the leadership style of the high school principal and determine its relationship to certain dimensions of teacher morale. The managerial grid technique, developed by Blake and Mouton (1964) was adapted and applied to an analysis of the school principal's behavior in terms of his Concern for Production and Concern for People dimensions.

Hypotheses

General Hypotheses. The general hypotheses which guided this study are:

(1) There is no significant relationship between teacher perceptions of administrative behavior and teacher morale.

(2) There is no significant relationship between the set of administrative dimensions and the set of morale dimensions.

The specific hypotheses of this study has been divided into two sets: Primary and Secondary. This scheme of differentiating hypotheses allowed the application of partial correlation to the analysis of primary hypotheses. This method of analysis eliminated the
effects of other variables, which are in the set of secondary hypotheses on the primary hypotheses. The secondary hypotheses were analyzed using T-test based on regression coefficients.

Specific Hypotheses.

(1) Primary Hypotheses

(a) There is no partial correlation between teacher perceptions of administrative behavior and teacher rapport with principal.

(b) There is no partial correlation between teacher perceptions of administrative behavior and satisfaction with teaching.

(2) Secondary Hypotheses

(a) There is no correlation between teacher perceptions of administrative behavior and rapport among teachers.

(b) There is no correlation between teacher perceptions of administrative behavior and teacher salary.

(c) There is no correlation between teacher perceptions of administrative behavior and teacher load.

(d) There is no correlation between teacher
perceptions of administrative behavior and curriculum issues.

(e) There is no correlation between teacher perceptions of administrative behavior and teacher status.

(f) There is no correlation between teacher perceptions of administrative behavior and community support of education.

(g) There is no correlation between teacher perceptions of administrative behavior and school facilities and services.

(h) There is no correlation between teacher perceptions of administrative behavior and community pressures.

(i) There is no correlation between teacher perceptions of administrative behavior and sex of teachers.

(j) There is no correlation between teacher perceptions of administrative behavior and age of the teacher.
Importance of this Study

Teacher morale is a perennial problem for the administrators. Research (Kaura, 1963; and Anderson, 1953) indicates that there is a clear relationship between teacher morale and pupil achievement. If it can be shown that some of the related variables of teacher morale are susceptible to manipulation by administrators, then the management of the problem becomes more possible. If it can be established that leadership style of the principal correlates with teacher morale, then principals as administrators might feel the necessity to analyze their leadership behavior in order to fulfill the objectives of the most cherished public institutions.

Definition of Terms

Principal/Administrator. These terms are used interchangeably in reference to the one person who is responsible for the administration of the educational activities of the institution. He is the recognized head of the school staff in a three or four year high school situation. He must also have served as administrator in the same school for the previous year as well.
Leadership Style/Administrative Style/Administrative Dimensions.

These terms are used interchangeably and refer to the administrative behavior of the school principal in terms of his "concern for production" and "concern for people" as perceived by his staff.

Concern for People. This term refers to administrative behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of the staff. For the purposes of this study, concern for people is operationally defined as the measured level on the Principal Leadership Style Questionnaire (PLSQ by Utz, 1972).

Concern for Production. This refers to principals' behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and members of the staff. Concern for production may be demonstrated in the kind of policies which are established and the character of direction given to the staff, workload and efficiency measurements. Production as used here is not limited to things. Its proper meaning covers whatever it is that organizations engage people to accomplish.

The concern for production, in this study, is operationally defined as the measured level on the PLSQ.

Perception. Perception is defined as the cognitive judgment of the administrator's behavior by his staff.
Morale. The definition of morale used in this study is the one provided by Bentley and Rempel (1970) authors of the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire, i.e., "morale is the extent to which an individual's needs are satisfied, and the extent to which the individual perceives satisfaction as stemming from the total job situation."

For purposes of this study morale is operationally defined as the measured level on the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire.

Morale Dimensions.  

"Teacher Rapport with Principal" deals with the teacher's feelings about the principal -- his professional competency, his interest in teachers and their work, his ability to communicate, and his skill in human relations.

"Satisfaction with Teaching" pertains to teacher relationships with students and feelings of satisfaction with teaching. According to this factor, the high morale teacher loves to teach, feels competent in his job, enjoys his students, and believes in the future of teaching as an occupation.

"Rapport Among Teachers" focuses on a teacher's relationships with other teachers. The items here solicit the teacher's

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1Definitions of the Morale Dimensions used in this study are the same as those provided by Bentley and Rempel (1970, p.4).
opinion regarding the cooperation, preparation, ethics, influence, interests, and competency of his peers.

"Teacher Salary" pertains primarily to the teacher's feelings about salaries and salary policies. Are salaries based on teacher competency? Do they compare favorably with salaries in other school systems? Are salary policies administered fairly and justly, and do teachers participate in the development of these policies?

"Teacher Load" deals with such matters as record-keeping, clerical work, "red tape," community demands on teacher time, extra-curricular load, and keeping up to date professionally.

"Curriculum Issues" solicits teacher reactions to the adequacy of the school program in meeting student needs, in providing for individual differences, and in preparing students for effective citizenship.

"Teacher Status" samples feelings about the prestige, security, and benefits afforded by teaching. Several of the items refer to the extent to which the teacher feels he is an accepted member of the community.

"Community Support of Education" deals with the extent to which the community understands and is willing to support a sound educational program.
"School Facilities and Services" has to do with the adequacy of facilities, supplies and equipment, and the efficiency of the procedures for obtaining materials and services.

"Community Pressures" gives special attention to community expectations with respect to the teacher's personal standards, his participation in outside-school activities, and his freedom to discuss controversial issues in the classroom.

In summary, Chapter I has explained the importance of morale and school administrative problems that may relate to morale. An attempt has been made to describe leadership styles and their impact on the group morale and organizations, as discovered by various researchers in the field. Finally, the problem and the importance of the study along with the research hypotheses and definitions of terms have been presented.
CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter will provide a review of the important research pertaining to administrative behavior, member satisfaction, and morale organized under the following headings: (1) theories of organization, (2) theories of leadership, and (3) school leadership.

Theories of Organization

Organizations are usually created to achieve objectives that can best be met with cooperative efforts. One of the greatest challenges confronting managers and administrators in the organization is to solve human problems associated with achieving maximum production through the productive utilization of human resources. The question is how can this be best accomplished? Various theories have been developed to help the organizations achieve its objectives which could be satisfying to the organizations as well as to the individuals. One of the earliest formal examinations of organizational productivity has been done by Fredrick Taylor.

The Scientific Management School. Taylor (1911) has been generally recognized as the father of the school of scientific management.
Working as a chief engineer, he was consistently concerned with the failure of men under him to produce at the level at which he thought they were capable. He stated that it is no single element, but rather this whole combination, that constitutes scientific management, which may be summarized as:

Science, not rule of thumb. Harmony, not discord. Cooperation, not individualism. Maximum output, in place of restricted output. The development of each man to his greatest efficiency and prosperity (p. 140).

Underlying the school of scientific management are the principles such as task specialization, chain of command, unity of direction, rationality, and others. These are the basic assumptions that are supported by, and at times modified, in varying degrees, by the technology, the kinds of managerial controls, and the patterns of leadership used in the organization.

Taylor also argued that cooperative organizational structures, where all men are expected to share in the profits, were destined to failure since personal ambition always has been and will remain a more powerful incentive to exertion than a desire for general welfare. The utilization of man by the factory system in a scientific manner to increase output was the ultimate goal of Taylor. He further stated that the interests of the employers and the employees are not antagonistic. Scientific management, on the contrary has firm conviction that the true interests of the two are one and the same.
It is possible to give the worker what is most important to him, high wages, and to give the employer what is important to him, a low total labor cost for his manufactures.

Although many elaborations have been made on Taylor's basic formulations, writers such as Gulick and Urwick (1937) relied heavily on Taylor's original assumptions.

The Theory of Scientific Management has been criticized on many grounds. Most glaring is the basic view of organizational members as creatures motivated solely by economics.

The Human Relations School. During the late 1920's, a series of experiments were conducted at the Hawthorne Works of Western Electric Company by Elten Mayo to discover new ways in which to increase production. Mayo (1933) drew many conclusions, but his major finding was that workers were social creatures, an idea that had no place in the philosophy of Scientific Management. Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) supporting the findings of Mayo contended that people would work hard and put up with difficult working conditions if they feel that the objective is worth doing. Results reported by Mayo produced no evidence that workers are solely motivated by economic interests. A key to the solution, Mayo suggests, is to help the employees feel that they belong to the work group, that they are important. If people could be helped to feel that they belong,
that they are important for the organization, he suggested, human relations would be better. Mayo's conclusions had a strong impact upon management strategies of that era. Many executives could see the value of relating to the workers socially and individually.

The Hawthorne Studies. Originally, the studies at Hawthorn plant were started to study the effects of different intensities of illumination on worker output. These studies seem to show that production varied without any direct relationship to the amount of illumination provided in the work area. In some cases, productivity went up when the bulbs were changed—without change in actual intensity of light—and in other cases, productivity was maintained even when illumination was reduced to low levels. When no consistent relationship was found between light intensity and work efficiency, a series of research studies were conducted by a group of behavioral scientists including Mayo (1933) and Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) to gain more insight into the puzzling problem. Other variables such as working conditions, fatigue, length of working day, number and length of the rest periods were also studied. A group of six girls, relay assemblers, was set apart from others and observed very closely. It was found that with variations in conditions of work such as increase or decrease in rest pauses, decrease or increase in illumination on their desks increases in production continued to
occur. The researchers concluded that the increased productivity was the result of the girls somehow being motivated to work harder. The question was, where was that motivation being encouraged. Mayo and his fellow researchers concluded the motivation for increased productivity in this work group originated in the girls knowledge that they were being observed with interest, treated as important, and that their ideas were being taken into consideration. Since the girls had the freedom to develop good relations with peers and supervisors, these conditions in turn created an increased motivation to achieve high work productivity.

The idea that man is solely motivated by economic interests was discredited by the Hawthorne studies. They showed that physiological factors are less important than psychological factors on the job and that social pressures from peers have a great impact on productivity. The results of these studies, attracted the attention of researchers and psychologists to questions such as: What factors make for satisfying work relationships and job satisfaction? What are the needs that people satisfy by their jobs? What are the factors that motivate people to achieve their personal and organizational goals? After these questions were raised researchers began placing more emphasis on the study of groups and group behavior. Individuals were seen to be motivated basically by social needs
and strives to align himself with others. The results of Hawthorne studies also support the idea that interpersonal relationships are important for the health of the organizations. Some writers (Abraham Maslow, 1943), saw man as having two kinds of needs, physiological and psychological. The greatest single obstacle that management had to overcome was to recognize that men possessed separate and opposing needs.

**Self-actualization.** Self-actualizing man, is a concept of motivation originally developed by Maslow (1943). The assumption is that man is more than a social being striving for acceptance and love; he is not simply an organism seeking self-serving ends and motivated solely by economics. The theory of self-actualization assumes that the human personality is constantly striving for fulfillment, to become what it is capable of becoming! The basic assumption underlying this theory is that man behaves in relationship to a hierarchy of needs: physiological, security, social or belonging, esteem, and self-actualization. As his lower level needs are met, the higher level needs are activated. It is possible to be responding to more than one need simultaneously.

**Motivation-Hygiene.** An interesting approach to need orientation (motivation-Hygiene) extended by Herzberg is closely related to
Maslow's need hierarchy theory. The motivation-hygiene theory emerged from two studies published in 1950 which had great impact on motivational research. These studies, by Brayfield and Crockett (1955) and Herzburg, Mausner, and Snyder (1959), indicated that there is little or no relationship between productivity and morale. These findings came as a shock to other researchers who had always believed that these two factors were closely related. Herzberg (1966) conducted research concerned with the motivational basis of man's behavior and concluded that some of the factors which make people happy on the job are not necessarily the same factors which make people happy in general. The five areas of critical incidents cited most frequently by those who liked their work were: achievement, recognition, nature of the work, responsibility, and advancement, all of which pertain to job content and are motivating factors. Workers who were dissatisfied with their job described incidents related to job context or environment. The most important of these dissatisfiers, or hygiene factors, was company policy and administration. Other factors were supervisor's lack of competence in carrying out their functions (poor directions or poor interpersonal relations) and poor working conditions. Herzberg's theory has stimulated a great deal of controversy among researchers. One of the criticisms of Herzberg's study was that since only engineers and accountants were interviewed, the
results may not be applicable to other occupational groups. Secondly, the motivating and dissatisfying factors vary with the individual's personality and his type of job.

**Theory X and Theory Y.** The foremost contemporary investigator of the nature of man within the organizational framework is McGregor (1960). He describes the widely held managerial assumptions regarding the view of man and motivation in terms of Theory X and Theory Y. His Theory X and Theory Y are classic and are implicit in most of the contemporary literature on organizational theory. The assumptions underlying Theory X are as follows:

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can.

2. Most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate work.

3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all (p. 33-44).

Implications of Theory X for the kind of leadership or management required in an organization are clear. It suggests strong control over workers, coercive methods and use of power and authority by the manager or supervisor. These techniques are his only means of getting the job done. Although McGregor believes that Theory X provides an explanation of some human behavior in
industry, he aptly points out that it is not an adequate motivator in our society today because it fails to tap modern man's complex human behavior and need system. Once lower level needs such as food, shelter, clothing etc., have been met, the motivational system is expanded to embrace secondary reinforcers. The social and emotional needs of the individual become the overriding motivators. Athos and Coffeey (1968) believe that most workers will find management, based on Theory X assumptions unbearable and some may actively seek to resist and even sabotage it. Others may become disinterested and unproductive. The philosophy of management that relies exclusively on coercive methods, authority and sole control over workers, and threats with little or no attention to social and emotional needs of the workers is eventually doomed to fail.

The second set of assumptions, termed by McGregor as Theory Y, recognizes the worker's social and emotional needs. Theory Y tries to fill the vacuum between the individual and the organizational goals. He describes this theory in terms of integration of individual and organizational goals. The basic assumptions underlying this theory are:

1. External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort toward organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-control and self-direction in the services of objectives to which he is committed.
2. The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but seek responsibility.

3. Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partly utilized (p. 44-57).

These assumptions suggest sharply different implications for managerial policies than do those of Theory X. They are dynamic rather than static and take into consideration the individuality of the worker. Theory Y assumes man to be reliable, capable of self-direction and control in achieving organizational and personal objectives. The manager or administrator who believes in the second set of assumptions will tend to be a facilitator, supporter and sympathizer and will behave quite differently from the administrator holding Theory X assumptions.

Theories of Leadership

The systematic study of leadership paralleled the development of organizational theory. Katz and Kahn (1966) state that the concept of leadership has an ambiguous status in organizational practice, as it does in organizational theory. But among social scientists, (Tead, 1935 and Titus, 1950) who emphasize the concept of leadership there is no close agreement on conceptual definition or on the theoretical significance of leadership processes.

Gross and Herriott (1965) commenting upon the complexity of
the definition of leadership said,

...social scientists and practical men of affairs are intrigued by the phenomena of leadership. Yet, despite a considerable body of speculative and scientific writings on its meaning, its determinants, and its effects, our knowledge of the nature and correlates of leadership remains quite limited. (p. 1)

Various theorists have indicated (or stated) what they think underlies the phenomena of leadership and some have emphasized the importance of leadership for the efficient functioning of the organization. Tead (1935) defines leadership as the activity of influencing people to cooperate toward some goal which they come to find desirable. It seems obvious even to the casual observer that patterns of leadership based upon such a definition would be utterly different from patterns based on leadership defined as the art of getting what one wants and making people like it (Titus, 1950). Evidently, the functions of leadership consist of influencing a group toward achieving the goals of the institution.

**Trait Theory of Leadership.** The most common approach to leadership characterization throughout the centuries has been the personal qualities or trait approach. According to this theory, leaders are born, not made. It stresses the personal, individualistic qualities of the leader. The qualities of the leader include dependability, friendliness, enthusiasm, forcefulness, and perseverance. Physical
size is often thought to be related to leadership (Lane, Carwin and Monahan, 1967).

The research application of the trait theory started with gathering personal data from leaders and comparing the findings with non-leaders. Cox (1926) studied the early mental traits of 300 geniuses and reported that youths who achieved positions of leadership have excellent heredity and superior advantages in early childhood. She reported that the ten traits which ranked highest were (1) desire to excel, (2) intelligence, (3) persistence, (4) strength of will, (5) belief in one's own powers, (6) originality, (7) forcefulness, (8) insight, (9) memory, and (10) keenness of observation.

While much writing and research in the field of leadership has been concerned with characteristics of leaders and many studies have tried to discover physical, intellectual, and personality traits of leadership, the results have been quite disappointing. Stogdill (1948) analyzed 124 research studies in an effort to determine the characteristics of leaders. He reported that studies of traits of leadership produced contradictory findings and that leaders apparently excel non-leaders in only a few fields, such as intelligence, scholarship, dependability, responsibility, activity, social participation, and socio-economic status.
The concept's validity is questioned for the following reasons. Personality is not what makes the person important; the job does. The fact that he coordinates and formulates policy makes him important. There is a whole range of leadership personalities; most people with adequate motivation and intelligence could learn to be effective leaders (Fiorello, 1973).

Gouldner (1950) presents five important criticisms of the trait theory:

1. There is no discrimination between most important and least important traits.

2. Personal qualities or traits are not mutually exclusive.

3. Studies lack evidence that traits are essential to ascend to leadership or to the maintaining of leadership.

4. The traits assigned to leadership have been developed, to a large extent, in terms of traits of particular leaders.

5. None of the research proves whether the traits are inherent in the individual or acquired (p. 23).

Even though the trait theory has been accepted for centuries, research casts serious doubts upon this theory as an adequate explanation of leadership. Nevertheless, the trait theory has had significance as the first attempt to study leadership from a systematic and quantitative perspective.
Social Relations Theory of Leadership. According to this theory, a leader's acts cannot be understood out of the context of his interaction with his subordinates. Leadership depends on one's function in a group and should be judged by its impact upon the group. The major research in support of this theory was conducted by Lewin, Lippitt, and White in 1939. In this study four groups of ten year old boys were divided into five-member clubs. Adult leaders were trained in three styles of leadership, i.e., autocratic, democratic, and laissezfaire. Their conclusions were that most boys expressed their preference for the democratic leader. The boys were greatly motivated and showed signs of originality under the democratic leader. The striking difference between laissezfaire and democracy were very much in favor of democracy. Autocracy created feelings of discontentment, aggressiveness, and apathy.

A leader with autocratic style believes in strict control and discipline and tends to use force and coercion in directing his efforts to achieve organizational goals. The democratic leader assumes that people want to do the right thing and are capable of self-direction without the need for coercion and force to achieve organizational objectives.

In educational administration the democratic leadership was thought to be a must within the profession. Literature in the
field of education extolled the virtues of the democratic leadership. But research has indicated that there are teachers who do not favor this model. Knezevich (1969) reports that some teachers find it difficult to accept the democratic model of leadership when their previous experience has been under an autocratic principal. Some people, who lack maturity to make independent decisions, appear to function more effectively in a planned and controlled environment.

Situational Theory of Leadership. Most contemporary students of leadership are inclined to the theoretical assumptions of the situational theory of leadership. According to this theory the quality of leadership is dependent upon the leader, the group, and the situation. Davis (1951) emphasizes that three major variables must be considered in a study of leadership: (1) the characteristics of the leader, (2) the situation, and (3) the people involved in the situation.

Subsequently he hypothesized what he calls the "law of the situation" in which effective executive leadership depends upon the executive's ability and courage to face the facts in the situation, interpret the facts properly in the light of the situation's requirements, and follow the course of action they dictate.

The situational theorists asserted that there was no ideal leader. One style of leadership may be effective in one situation or with one set of individuals but not effective in another situation or
with one set of individuals but not effective in another situation or with another set of individuals. Fielder (1965), contends that the style needed for any given situation depends upon three critical dimensions: (1) leader-member relations, (2) task structure, and (3) position power of the leader.

Thus, the trait theory, while providing some insights into the nature of leadership, is far from the final answer. By the same token, situational theory is also inadequate since it asserts that leadership is socially and situationally determined, with leaders varying from group to group and situation to situation, and thereby makes leadership a highly unpredictable entity (McCleary, Hencley, 1965).

As discussed previously, early investigations of leadership had undertaken to describe either the traits of leaders or the situations within which leaders operated. However, researchers in the Ohio State Leadership studies assert that research on either variable apart from the other is meaningless. Stogdill (1948) provides the support for this view on the basis of his comprehensive review of the literature. He concluded that a person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits, but the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities and goals of the followers. Thus, leadership must be conceived in terms of the interaction
of variables which are in constant flux or change (Stogdill, 1948).

Working from the above frame of reference, a series of leadership studies was conducted by the Personnel Research Board of the Ohio State University. This series of investigations was known as the Ohio State Leadership Studies. The major objective of these investigations was to study the behavior of leaders. Halpin (1966) gives reasons for emphasizing the study of leader behavior rather than the traits of the leader. He said,

... there are two major methodological advantages. In the first place, we can deal directly with observable phenomena and need make no prior assumptions about the identity or structure of whatever capacities may or may not undergird these phenomena. Secondly, this formulation keeps at the forefront of our thinking the importance of differentiating between the description of how leaders behave and evaluation of the effectiveness of their behavior in respect of specified performance criteria (p. 86).

The leadership behavior research strongly suggests that ideal style is one which integrates the task dimension and the people dimension. Blake and Mouton's (1964) managerial grid method of designating various styles of leadership indicates how a leader can simultaneously maximize both the methods which are production-oriented and those which are people-oriented. For Blake and Mouton, this relationship is maximized through the "9, 9" management style (Appendix A). There are several different models for examining administrative styles. The most promising of which in education, seems to be
the work of Getzels and Cuba (1957), whose primary thrust has been in the realm of leadership behavior, and more specifically in the area of distinct leadership-fellowship styles. Their model provides a three-dimensional format: (1) the nomothetic, (2) the ideographic, and (3) the transactional. The nomothetic leader emphasizes the task function of the organization, the ideographic concentrates on member satisfaction. The transactional leader follows a middle-of-the-road stance. According to this view the best each of the two methods (organizational goal fulfillment and individual goal fulfillment) is used when one goal becomes synonymous with the other.

The Managerial Grid. One of the best researched models for studying leadership strategies have been developed by Blake and Mouton (1964). They designed an elaborate method of studying the relationship between different managerial styles based on their theory of managerial behaviors. The methodology they applied to the examination of leadership styles provides a philosophical and theoretical base for viewing both the worker as an individual with unique needs and the organization as an economic force with highly structured needs of its own. More specifically, the method provides a rationale for the systematic observation of the managerial process. Blake and Mouton labeled their technique "The Managerial Grid" (Griffin, 72).

The managerial grid is a well accepted model for orienting
managerial actions. In its various versions it has been well tested and utilized in industry, manufacturing, business, government and the military. It can be applied to the study of union organizations, industrial facilities, research development as well as to community activities such as welfare organizations and public institutions. The managerial grid techniques have not only been applied to the managerial dilemmas in the U. S. but also in various other countries. It seems to be culture-free and, therefore, of general relevance for understanding problems of management.

Blake and Mouton states three organization universals: (1) purpose, (2) people and (3) hierarchy. All organizations have a "purpose" though it may differ for different types of organizations. The second characteristic of the organization is "people". No organization can exist without people. Therefore, management of the people is one of the major objectives of the organization. The third attribute of the organization is "hierarchy". Some people are more responsible than others and are better able to lead the organization. According to their theory hierarchy is seen to be an essential condition of organization. The three universals interact with each other in the process of organization. One of the three is concern for production; the amount of emphasis supervision places on achieving production. A second is concern for people; the productive
unit of organization. The third is hierarchy; the boss aspect. Whenever a man acts as a manager, he is in some way making assumptions about how to solve problems of achieving organization purposes of production through people.

The words production or people cover a range of consideration. Attitudes of concern toward production may be demonstrated in the quality and thoroughness of staff services; workload and efficiency measurements. Production as used here is not limited to things. Its proper meaning covers whatever it is that organization engage people to accomplish. Concern for people can be expressed in a variety of different ways. Accountability based on trust rather than obedience; self-esteem or the personal worth of an individual; establishing and maintaining good working conditions and an equitable salary structure and fringe benefits; desire for security in work; social relations or friendships with associates; etc.

The Managerial Grid configuration (Appendix A) shows these two concerns and a range of possible interactions between them. The horizontal axis indicates concern for production while the vertical axis indicates concern for people. Each is expressed as a nine-point scale of concern. The number one in each instance represents minimum concern. The nine stands for maximum concern.
The Five Major Grid Theories. Five sets of key managerial orientations are described by the authors to demonstrate the flexibility and comprehensiveness of the grid theory. It is noted that these orientations are not to be considered as personality theories though grid positions may result from deep-rooted personality characteristics and manager's assumptions about human nature and motivation. They have attempted to analyze some of the personality dispositions that may be traced in a given managerial style. Blake and Mouton (1964) describe each of the five pure theories in terms of the kinds of problems a manager or administrator may face and how he may approach their solutions.

An examination of the grid configuration (Appendix A) will demonstrate the five major managerial theories. At the lower left corner of the grid is the 1,1 style. This has a minimum of both concerns, i.e., low concern for production and equally low concern for people. Going up the grid from the 1,1 style to the upper left corner is found the 1,9 style. Here there is a minimum of concern for production coupled with a very high regard for people. In the lower right corner is 9,1. This style has a maximum concern for production and a minimum concern for human aspects. In the upper right corner is the 9,9 style, where concern for both people and production reaches maximum. Then, in the center is the 5,5 style,
which is the middle of the road or an intermediate amount of both kinds of concern (Blake and Mouton, 1964).

Actually, 81 different patterns of managerial behaviors can be pictured on this grid using the nine-point system. But five major categories analyzing the assumptions at the corners and mid-point indicate how a manager expresses his values, beliefs and attitudes for managing situations of production that involve people. In this section, only three of the styles will be described briefly to give the reader a frame of reference for the theoretical assumptions and managerial orientations that guide the manager's or administrator's behavior under other grid styles.

The 9, 1 theory is described here to illustrate the theoretical assumptions which guide the managerial strategies of the administrators. It has already been stated that a manager with a 9, 1 style places a high value on production, 9, coupled with a low concern for people, 1. The major assumption underlying this managerial style is that there is an inevitable conflict between organizational needs of the production and personal needs of the people. One can only be met to the detriment of the other. Yet people must be used to achieve the organizational goals for which the manager is responsible. The manager is all in all. Subordinates have no say in the decisions and the policies that affect the organization as well as the
workers. Subordinates do not decide what to do, they are there just to carry out the orders of the superordinates. Under 9, 1 style, the manager arranges the conditions of work in a way that minimizes workers expression of attitude and feelings in an effort to avoid any conflict which may hinder the production, since increased production is the sole objective of the manager.

Under 9, 1 theory, the manager has a position of authority in the hierarchy and he knows it. He feels his responsibilities are to plan, direct, assign and control in whatever manner is necessary to meet production objectives and find out who failed and punish him properly.

Under 9, 1 style, power, control and authority is the order of the day. The relationship of supervisor to a subordinate is along lines of authority and obedience. Theory X assumptions, discussed in the beginning of the second chapter, are the guiding principles of 9, 1 style. Theory X assumed man to be unreliable, subservient, irresponsible, and to consider work distasteful. Mistakes are considered human error that must be corrected immediately. Mistakes on the part of the subordinates are quickly located and appropriate disciplinary action is taken against the individual who is found responsible for the mistakes. According to this theory, subordinates are likely to be viewed in the following manner.
My subordinates are a means to the organization's success and to my own as well. As such they are useful in getting the job done. Human relations are okey, but in the final analysis it is a produce-or-perish reality that people must learn to recognize (Blake and Mouton, 1964, p. 24).

Conflict between workers (subordinates) is viewed as a barrier to production and will be suppressed quickly. Worker's emotions, feelings and attitude has no room as long as they are even a slight hindrance to production. The 9, 1 theory of management does not encourage creativity on the part of subordinates. Little concern is given to the development of subordinates or to communicating with them beyond issuing orders or instructions.

As discussed perviously, Western Electric Research Studies conducted at Hawthorne Plant (Mayo, 1933, Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1939) has proved that managerial style described under 9, 1 theory of management which relies exclusively on threats, promises, coercive methods of control and authority with little or no consideration to social and emotional needs of the subordinate is eventually self-defeating. They further concluded that this philosophy of management is detrimental to the morale of the subordinate and eventually to the organizational purpose of production.

Studies conducted by Survey Research Center of the University of Michigan in an attempt to discover the causes and conditions which affect worker productivity and worker morale, indicate that
employees with highest production records were more likely to report a good over-all relationship with their foreman, in terms of his quality of supervision and his interest in the social and emotional needs of the workers (Kahn and Katz, 1960).

The 1, 9 Managerial Style. The managerial philosophy guiding 1, 9 theory of management involves sharply different assumptions than that of 9, 1 theory of management. Behavior of the manager is indicative of friendship and cooperation. Manager with a 1, 9 style places a low concern for production, 1, and high concern for people, 9. Feelings and attitude of the subordinate are important and valuable in their own right. They are the top priority. Under this theory conditions of work are arranged so that personal social and welfare needs of the subordinates are met. The subordinates are supposed to be responsible and turn out some work to avoid trouble and because of loyalty and acceptance.

The 5, 5 Managerial Style. The middle of the grid demonstrates 5, 5 leadership style. A manager with this style exhibits intermediate concern for production, 5, matched with moderate concern for people, 5. This style also assumes conflict between organization purpose of production and satisfaction of individuals. Rather than resolving the issue in the direction of production as in 9, 1 style or
of people as in 1, 9 or staying out of the way as in 1, 1 style of leadership, satisfactory or workable solutions are found which are productive to the goals of the organization and equally productive and satisfying to the subordinates. The guiding philosophy of the manager is to maintain balance between concern for people and concern for production. The social behavior is effective for both concerns. Enough concern is shown at the people level so that adequate production can be achieved.

The grid method of analyzing leadership behavior indicates how a leader can simultaneously maximize both the concerns i.e., production oriented as well as people oriented without adapting either styles. With the grid technique it is also possible to gauge the degree to which any administrator employs each of these aspects of management and integrates it into his behavior. Therefore, it should be useful in the investigation of managerial behavior of school administrators.

The managerial grid, a well documented technique, has primarily been utilized by business, government and industrial organizations to study the leadership behaviors. More recently, researchers in educational administration have attempted to study the leadership style of the school principals utilizing managerial grid techniques. Griffin (1972) conducted a study to determine
whether teachers' and principals' perceptions of managerial behavior are congruent. One of the major goals of his study was to establish whether managerial grid technique developed by Blake and Mouton (1964) could be successfully adapted to the study of managerial style of the school principal. Secondly, the purpose of his study was to determine the relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions of ideal managerial behavior. Measuring instrument was developed using grid dimensions to represent the expression of meaningful behavior of the school principal. The questionnaire was administered to the teachers as well as to the principals. The questionnaire consisted of two sets of items: one for "ideal" behavior and one for "real" behavior. His findings were:

1. There was no difference between teachers' and principals' perceptions of the ideal principal's behavior.

2. Principals perceived a closer relationship between their "ideal" and "real" managerial behavior than did teachers.

3. The "real" managerial behavior of the principal was perceived by the teachers quite differently than it was perceived by the principals.

The investigator concluded that the results of this study contribute to the growing evidence that leadership behavior of educational administrators can be studied systematically and that the
managerial grid techniques used in studying the managerial process in industry and government can be successfully applied to the educational domain.

In a similar study, Utz (1972), in his study of "principal leadership style and effectiveness as perceived by teachers" sought to provide information concerning existing and ideal leadership styles and assessed the relevancy of the Concern for "Production" and Concern for "People" grid concepts to a more global evaluation of principals. A sample consisted of 115 experienced teachers enrolled in graduate courses at two universities located in two midwest urban centers. Teachers were asked to evaluate their principals, using a 12-item Principal Leadership Style Questionnaire to: (a) rank his overall effectiveness, (b) rate his consideration for teachers, development of learning programs, and plant management skills, and (c) respond to a scale operationalizing the concepts of concern for "Production" and "People", adapted from Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid. His major findings were that a positive linear relationship was found between the teacher's ranking of the principal (e.g., Excellent) and both the "Production" and "People" scores. Principals ranked in the higher categories had significantly higher mean scores (with significance at least $P < .02$) in both the production and people dimensions than did principals ranked in lower categories.
A parallel relationship was also found between the principal's rank on his degree of perceived excellence and his ratings with regard to consideration for teachers, concern for plant management, and concern for the learning program. Principals perceived below "Average" ranked lower on "People" skills than on "Production" skills.

Utz (1972) suggests that the results of the study demonstrate the feasibility of utilizing leadership evaluation schemes incorporating "task" and "social-emotional" dimensions in evaluating the performance of educational leaders. This study has contributed substantially to the direction and focus of the present investigation.

A review of selected leadership studies by Bowers and Seashore (1966) revealed that leadership concepts tended to sort themselves into two general categories. One category was concerned with people and the other category with getting the job done. The researchers reviewed by Bowers and Seashore (1966) see the primary or theme dimensions of leadership behavior as work facilitations goal-oriented behavior and group interaction behavior, initiating structure and consideration, production oriented and employee oriented, providing for organizational needs and providing for individual needs, management skills and human relations skills, high performance goals and group supportive relationships, and goal achievement and group maintenance. This research generally suggests
that the two dimensions of leadership behavior, focusing on people and focusing on the job, are not at opposite ends of the same continuum, but they are mutually inclusive. That is, effective leadership style is not an either/or proposition but is dependent upon both dimensions (Sergiovanni, Metzcus, and Burden, 1969).

Review of the literature has indicated that the ideal leadership style was characterized by high scores on both the dimensions, i.e., concern for production and concern for people. A comprehensive research of the literature has revealed some evidence of the utilization of managerial grid techniques in the study of leadership patterns (Utz, 1972, and Griffin, 1972). No studies were found which had ever attempted to ascertain the relationship between administrative behavior and dimensions of morale status in an educational organization.

Studies of Educational Organization, Leadership and Morale

Leadership and morale have been the subjects of much inquiry. The assumption has long been held that morale, group effectiveness, and leadership were intimately related (Cartwright and Zanders, 1953). Several studies have been undertaken to study the effects of leadership behavior on teacher morale and job satisfaction, and subsequently on student achievement.
Leadership and Teacher Morale. A number of studies have attempted to identify factors influencing teachers' morale and job satisfaction. Redefer (1959) conducted an extensive study involving 5000 teachers - to get their opinion of the factors that affect teacher morale. He found that a close relationship existed between morale and the quality of education present in individual schools and the evaluation of the teachers by the administrators. He also found that salary was not a factor in determining the morale status of teachers. Gragg (1955) surveyed all teachers in one system and asked them to list the items that affect high or low morale. According to his findings the most frequently mentioned item that contributed to high morale was confidence in the leadership of the principal and other administrators. Other items that seem to contribute to high morale were cooperation among members of the staff and rapport and friendly atmosphere among teachers. Gragg also stated that while administrators often think salaries are the chief source of concern for teachers, teachers may actually feel that their salaries are satisfactory. The conclusion about the relation of salary to morale is in agreement with the findings of Redefer (1959).

Hand (1948) studied 400 teachers in an effort to determine "What makes for high teacher morale?" He found that teachers with high morale felt that they were consulted regarding school policies
affecting them, and felt they were part of the organization, and were getting enough help from their supervisor and that their work load was fairly distributed. His major conclusion was that those factors which are associated with high morale are also situations over which supervisors and principals have a large measure of control.

In some studies efforts have been made to analyze the characteristics and activities of leaders as related to morale status. Silverman (1957) described 69 items which affect teacher morale. His major conclusions were that those items which relate to principals personality and human-relations were the most important in influencing teacher morale. Principals professional background, his role as instructional leader and his activities as an administrator had more affect on the teacher morale than his physical or mental characteristics.

Schultz (1952), surveyed graduates of the University of Illinois to identify the factors that affected teacher morale and reported that administrator was the major determiner of morale. He further reported that morale was related to sex and marital status as more male teachers were found dissatisfied than female teachers. In a similar study Ross (1960) concluded that supervisory personnel were key factors in morale status. He also found that
married female teachers tended to have higher morale than married males. The results of both the above mentioned studies regarding sex and the marital status might well relate to the difficulties of the married male teacher in supporting his family on the generally low salaries that prevailed in the 1960's.

Barber (1970) stated that the single most important factor determining the "climate" or the "morale" of a faculty in a building is the building principal.

Although personal factors are the most important of all factors in determining the individual morale level of the teacher, the research suggests that the principal is the key non-personal factor in the professional environment of the teacher.

Administrative behavior of the school principal and superintendent may also affect satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the teachers toward their job. Bidwell (1955) conducted a study involving 368 teachers. The questionnaire consisted of two parts. The first part which had 13 items attempted to describe teacher-administrator interactions by having teachers select one of the various alternatives categorizing administrative behavior as democratic, autocratic, or laissez-faire. In the second part of the questionnaire 19 items developed by Chase (1951) were used to measure teacher satisfaction. His findings were that those teachers who perceive the administrative
behavior as consistent with their expectations tend to be satisfied with their teaching positions. Those who see administrative behavior as inconsistent with their expectation tend to be dissatisfied.

Administrative Style as a Factor in Morale and Job Satisfaction

Morale studies have consistently pointed out the importance of administrator as a factor in morale and job satisfaction. Sweat (1963) studied the relationship of morale to the authoritarian-democratic traits of high school principals in Arkansas. Although the differences were not statistically significant, he found that the faculties of the neutrally administered high schools made the second highest scores, and the faculties of the authoritarian administered high schools made the lowest scores.

According to the research by Napier (1966), high teacher morale is associated with: (1) the administrator's understanding and appreciation of the teacher as an individual; (2) the confidence the teacher has in the administrator's professional competency; (3) the support the teacher receives from the administration regarding discipline problems; (4) teacher participation in the formulation of policies that affect them; (5) adequate facilities and equipment; (6) adequate teaching supplies, (7) teaching assignments which are commensurable with training; (8) fair and equitable distribution
of extracurricular assignments; (9) professional training provided through the inservice program; (10) job security; (11) an adequate policy for leaves of absence; (12) a fair and equitable distribution of the teaching load; and, (13) salaries that are comparable with professions requiring equal training.

Another approach to the study of leadership and morale has been taken from the standpoint of role theory. It is assumed in this theory that job satisfaction and morale are directly related to the congruence between teachers' role expectations and perceptions of the principal. Cuba and Bidwell (1957) conducted a study of teachers and principals in eight secondary and 16 elementary schools to determine the relationships between role expectations, teachers effectiveness, job satisfaction, and confidence in leadership of the principal. Some of the conclusions they arrived at are:

1. The satisfaction with the teaching situation exhibited by a teacher depends to a large extent upon the degree to which the expectations perceived by the teacher coincide with the expectations that the teacher feels ought to be held for him.

2. The confidence in the principal's leadership which is exhibited by a teacher is a function of the congruence between the teacher's idealized version of those expectations.

3. All aspects of staff relations dealt with in his study -- satisfaction, confidence in leadership and effectiveness on the job, seem closely related to the extent to which the perceptions, both of expectations and of behavior, held by principals and by teachers coincide.

Hood (1965) studied the congruence of perception concerning
factors which affect teacher morale. The research revealed that the teacher-principal relationship is more important in determining morale level than is the teacher's relationship with other teachers. The terms morale and job satisfaction are used as synonyms in the literature. There is no doubt that they are closely related. The difference between the two, if any, is that job satisfaction is commonly used to refer to the reactions of individuals to specific elements in their working environments, whereas, morale often is applied to the general level of satisfaction and enthusiasm of individuals and groups (Gordon, 1963). Any division of studies into these two categories is hard to define and contains a considerable amount of overlapping.

While many different instruments to measure morale and job satisfaction have been developed, each of these methods has taken one of two forms. One method is to ask the individual to estimate his own morale and job satisfaction. The other approach is ask the individual to make qualitative judgements and express his feelings about the persons and things in his environment that may be related to his morale. These responses are appropriately weighed and quantified so that a total score or index can be assigned.

In education, Hoppock (1935) is considered a pioneer in conducting of job satisfaction studies. He utilized the first method
above and asked 500 teachers to estimate their own morale and job satisfaction. His findings were that the satisfied teacher enjoyed better relationships with associates and superiors, showed less signs of emotional instability, and taught in cities with population of 10,000 or over.

Johnson (1967) conducted a study which attempted to apply Herzberg's satisfaction-dissatisfaction analysis to the educational enterprise. The purpose of the study was to determine which factors affect teacher satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their job. His findings were that achievement, interpersonal relations, recognition, work itself, and responsibility are related to job satisfaction. Four factors: policy and administration, working conditions, status and personal life - showed statistical relationship to teacher dissatisfaction. Chase (1951) in his study "Factors for Satisfaction in Teaching", like Johnson, attempted to determine the factors that satisfy teachers. His conclusions were that satisfaction was affected by freedom in planning work, adequacy of salary, feelings about quality of leadership, and participation in educational and personnel policy planning. It is interesting to note that salary is one of the factors in this study which affected teacher satisfaction while Johnson's findings indicate that salary is one of the five factors which did not show statistical relation to either satisfaction or dissatisfaction.
The term morale has always proved elusive to define. But for any person who has held a position of responsibility in a business organization - or any organization for that matter - the word morale comes to have real meaning; that is, it refers to something which is felt to be of great importance, even if that something remains vague and illusive. It pertains to the relations of individuals in a group or larger organizations, rather than to the individual alone (Roethlisberger, 1941).

Bentley and Rempel (1970) have defined morale in a very broad sense which not only considers the job aspect but the whole environment of the individual. Their definition is . . .

Morale is the extent to which an individual's needs are satisfied, and the extent to which the individual perceives satisfaction as stemming from the total job situation. High morale is evident when there is interest in and enthusiasm for the job. What is important in morale is what the person believes and feels, rather than the conditions that may exist as perceived by others (p. 1).

Some writers view morale within the framework of organizational theory. This approach sees the role of the individual as working productively and effectively for the organization while deriving satisfaction for his own needs as well. Lonsdale (1964) contends that morale is maintaining the organization in dynamic equilibrium. Mathis (1959) sees morale as a feeling of general well being and psychological comfort relative to attitudes and about
one's self and work environment. Thus, morale has been conceived as a function of successful interaction among individual needs and organizational goals.

The problem of the multidimensional nature and the difficulty of operationally defining morale has been a problem to the researchers. Review of related literature indicates rather conclusively that morale is the result of many interrelated factors.

An administrator exerting positive influence would create a social climate conducive to the development of high morale in teachers. His attitude would not only affect teacher morale but also the goals of the organization, that is, pupil achievement. A number of studies have attempted to relate teacher morale to student achievement.

Morale and Student Achievement. Gross and Herriott (1965) conducted a nationwide study of elementary principals. One of the purposes of the study was to determine the organizational effects and determinants of variation in the performance of the administrators of schools. The instrument used was designated Executive Professional Leadership (EPL) which was described as the effort of an executive of a professionally staffed organization to conform to the definition of his role that stresses his obligation to improve the quality of staff performance. Gross and Herriott (1965)
assumed that the professional leadership of the principal would be positively associated with teachers' morale, because a principal who exhibits a high degree of professional competency would serve as a symbol of group goals and a facilitator of their achievement. His attitude would magnify the importance of the education tasks performed by his staff, and he would strive to maximize their unique skills and talents to develop a colleague relationship among them based on their common concern for pupils. The underlying objective was to test if there is any relationship between EPL scores, teachers' morale, and teachers' professional performance. EPL scores significantly correlated with the following factors:

1. Displaying a sense of pride in the school.
2. Enjoy working in the school.
3. Sense of loyalty to the school.
4. Work cooperatively with fellow workers.
5. Accept educational philosophy.
6. Respect judgment of administrator of the school.

Gross and Herriott (1965) further examined the relationship between teacher morale and pupil performance and concluded that high morale in the teachers is associated with high productivity in the pupils. The findings suggested that not only does the leadership of the principal influence the satisfaction dimension of teacher morale but also their performance and consequently pupil achievement.

No doubt some of the importance attached to teachers'
morale is associated with the assumption generally held by educators that high morale leads to high performance in the pupils. "Others such as Gross and Herriott (1965), Anderson (1953) and Koura (1963) discussed in Chapter One, have reported similar findings."

These studies are of interest to educators because they represent an attempt to objectively demonstrate that high teacher morale is good for schools, an assumption upon which all morale research rests. Secondly those results present a challenge to all school administrators to improve those conditions in their school which affect teacher morale.

Review of the preceding studies sheds some light on the complex phenomena of morale. Generally the findings of the studies are inconsistent. Morale seems to be affected by a multitude of interrelated variables. However, the administrator appears consistently as a key factor affecting morale. It seems that the administrator could play a significant part in the establishment and maintenance of morale among the staff of a school. How he works with his staff, whether he treats them as individuals with worth and dignity, or merely as a part of the machine, will determine to a great extent the morale of his faculty. After comprehensively reviewing the research, carried out over a period of 25 years, concerning teacher morale or job satisfaction, Blocker and Richardson
(1963) concluded that the administrator was the key figure. They further suggested that research concerning morale might provide a means for evaluation of administrative behavior - a long standing need. As stated previously, one of the purposes of this study is to study the leadership behavior of the high school principal as perceived by his staff in terms of his concern for people and production dimensions.
CHAPTER III
MATERIALS AND METHODS

The purpose of this study as stated previously is to determine the leadership style of the high school principal and to relate this to certain dimensions of teacher morale. To investigate the relationship two kinds of instruments were employed. First an instrument was used which measured the perceptions of the teachers regarding their principal's leadership style from the group member's frame of reference. Second, an instrument was used which measured the teacher morale in a multidimensional manner.

Design and Description of the Instruments

Principal Leadership Style Questionnaire. A questionnaire was sought which utilizes the "concern for people" and "concern for production" dimensions as developed by Blake and Mouton (1964). The grid dimensions utilized in construction of this questionnaire are modifications of dimensions from management. The particular questionnaire (Appendix B) used for this study to determine the leadership style of the high school principal was devised and adapted by Utz (1972) from Blake and Mouton's The Managerial Grid (1964).

In the PLSQ, "five managerial styles" relating to "concern for production" and "concern for people" were built into a scale
relating to the principal's school performance.

The original scale of 15 items was given to a sample of ten graduate students and university professors (all familiar with the Managerial Grid), who were asked to rate the five behaviors described in each of the 15 items as to their relation to the components of "concern for production" and "concern for people". Additionally, the scale was given to 28 people with teaching experience to determine the relevance of principal activities and responsibilities (e.g., orienting new teachers) to the principal's job as they perceived it in their school. Feedback from this pilot data resulted in the removal of three items and the partial or total revision of seven others. The final scale was 12 items, each with five statements relating to the five managerial styles developed in the Managerial Grid (Utz, 1972).

Validity. It is content valid to the extent that it has been assessed as a valid measure of Blake and Mouton, and is perceived as relevant to principal tasks (in the pilot process conducted by Utz).

Reliability. Utz (1972) administered this questionnaire to a sample of 28 teachers. Later he again, administered this test to the same teachers. The test-retest correlations for total scores was found to be .90. He further obtained inter-rater reliability (i.e., two
people rating the same principal, with a sample of eight teachers only) of .70. These results are counted only for total "people" and "production" scores on the PLSQ.

**Scoring the PLSQ.** The PLSQ consists of 60 statements. These statements reflect the administrative behavior of the school principal, i.e., his concern for "people" and his concern for "production". A teacher circles the statement that best reflects the administrative behavior of the principal as perceived by the teacher.

Each item appears with a statement germane to that particular set of administrative behavior as follows:

1. The relationship of most teachers to the principal involved:
   a. staying out of his way as much as possible.
   b. that of supervisor and subordinate.
   c. a give and take, one to one exchange.
   d. a friendly and jovial relationship.
   e. a synchronized and cooperative effort.

For example, on this item, if the principal was perceived as having the relationship with his faculty "that of supervisor and subordinate" he would be rated high in "production" concerns and low in "people" concerns; by contrast, if the teacher perceived principal's behavior with faculty "a synchronized and cooperative effort" he would be rated high in both the "production" and "people" dimensions; but if the principal's relationship with faculty was
perceived by the teachers as "staying out of his way as much as possible", the principal would be ranked as low in both the "production" and "people" dimensions. The maximum point any principal can score on any dimension is 108:

The Purdue Teacher Opinionaire. The second instrument used in this study is the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire (Appendix C) developed by Bentley and Rempel, 1970. It has been tested with 10,000 teachers and its value has been well established. This instrument is designed to measure teacher morale. Not only does the opinionaire yield a total scores indicating the general level of the teacher's morale, but it also provides meaningful sub-scores which break down morale into some of its dimensions. The ten categories included are: (1) Teacher Rapport with Principal; (2) Satisfaction with Teaching; (3) Rapport Among Teachers; (4) Teacher Salary; (5) Teacher Load; (6) Curriculum Issues; (7) Teacher Status; (8) Community Support of Education; (9) School Facilities and Services; and (10) Community Pressures.

The instrument is useful to school administrators, school staffs, and researchers who desire an objective and practical index of teacher morale in particular schools or school systems. Comparison can be made among teachers when grouped by schools, grade levels, subject areas, tenure status, etc. The opinionaire
provides specific and valid information about crucial problems and tensions which concern the faculty and have an adverse effect on their morale.

Development of the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire. The first form of the opinionaire, developed in 1961 (by Bentley and Rempel), consisted of 145 items selected and logically grouped to sample eight categories pertaining to the teacher and his school environment: (1) teaching as an occupation; (2) relationship with students; (3) relationship with other teachers; (4) administrative policies and procedures; (5) relationships with community; (6) curriculum factors; (7) working conditions, and (8) economic factors.

In the development of the instrument an experimental form was administered to a large representative sample of high school teachers. The final choice of items for the opinionaire was based on internal consistency item analysis techniques. The Kuder-Richardson internal consistency reliability coefficients for the eight categories ranged from .79 to .98, with an overall reliability coefficient of .96.

To make certain that the items were working effectively at various morale levels, factor analysis procedures were applied
to "high", "middle" and "low" teacher morale groups. These additional analysis made it possible to identify ten rather than eight factors.

Reliability. The revised form was administered to high school faculties with 20 or more teachers in Indiana and Oregon. The 60 Indiana schools were a stratified random sample and the 16 Oregon schools were selected primarily from the eastern part of the state. Four weeks later the instrument was administered in all of the schools included previously. Altogether, test-retest data were obtained for 3023 teachers. The overall reliability was .87, with a range in factor scores from .62 to .88 as shown in Table I.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Teacher rapport with principal</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Satisfaction with teaching</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Rapport among teachers</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Teacher salary</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Teacher load</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Curriculum issues</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Teacher status</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Community support of education</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. School facilities and services</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Community pressures</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total score</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Validity. The first form of the instrument was validated against peer judgments made by fellow workers. On the basis of the judgments, "high", "middle", and "low" teacher morale groups were identified - with significance at the .05 level. The present form of the instrument was further validated by asking principals to react to the opinionnaire items as they believed the faculty would respond. No significant differences were found between the median scores for teachers and the median scores for principals, as given in Table II.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Teachers Indiana</th>
<th>Teachers Oregon</th>
<th>Principals Indiana and Oregon</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rapport with Principal</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with Teaching</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapport among Teachers</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Salary</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Load</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum Issues</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Status</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Support</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities and Services</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Pressures</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Principals reaction to the PTO as they felt their staffs would react.
**Administration.** The directions for completing the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire are given on the cover page of the opinionaire and are self-explanatory. No time limit is imposed, however, most teachers complete the instrument in 20-30 minutes.

**Scoring the PTO.** The PTO consists of 100 statements, to which the teachers respond by one of four choices: agree, probably agree, probably disagree, or disagree. With form A, the one used in this study, the responses are recorded directly on the opinionaire. The items are scored from left to right or from right to left respectively. Values for items are assigned as listed:

A. When "A" agree is the keyed response the values are:

```
A   PA   PD   D
4    3    2    1
```

B. When "D" disagree is the keyed response, the values are:

```
A   PA   PD   D
1    2    3    4
```

Factor scores can be obtained by summing all the weights or values which have been assigned to the items belonging to a given factor. Ten factors with the number of items in each factor and the total scores with possible range for each factor are shown on Table III.
### TABLE III. Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire Scores.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Number of Items</th>
<th>Possible range of factor scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rapport with principal</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20-80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with teaching</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20-80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapport among teachers</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14-56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher salary</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7-28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher load</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11-44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum issues</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5-20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher status</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8-32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community support</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5-20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities and services</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5-20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community pressures</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5-20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Totals</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>100-400</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Characteristics of the Schools

All the schools involved in the study would be considered "small" or "medium" size in the number of staff and student population. The staffs studied were responsible for students in three or four year high schools. The population of the high school students, varied from 67 to 1532 according to the school. The range of the staff members is from 10 to 92. A proportionate number of teachers from each faculty was selected randomly based on the total number of teachers from each school. The total number of teachers sampled was 132 and the number of teachers
responding was 126. All the schools were within a radius of 40 miles from Oregon State University and were operated by different school districts with the exception of two schools, which were controlled by the same school district. The sample consisted of 90 male and 36 female teachers. The median age of the teachers was 38 years.

**Procedures for Administration and Description of Sample**

A letter explaining the problem and the purpose of the study was written to the high school principals of Linn and Benton counties of Oregon to seek their cooperation and support (Appendix D). Two weeks after sending the letters, the investigator visited all the schools and conferred about the study with the principals. In this way all the principals had the opportunity to see the proposal and the questionnaires in detail before they made any decision. In the beginning some of the principals were a bit reluctant. But after the investigator discussed with them the importance of the study and assured the confidentiality of the results all of the principals requested, agreed to cooperate with the exception of one. One school in Linn county refused to cooperate on the basis that their teachers were too busy to spare anytime for this project. There are 13 high schools in both the counties. Two schools in Linn
county have different administrators for the 1974-75 school year. This means that those administrators did not serve as principal in the same school for the previous school year, i.e., 1973-74. These two schools having new principals were dropped from the sample on the grounds that the teachers did not yet have a firm opinion of their principals' leadership style. This left a sample of ten schools.

**Description of the Sample.** After receiving the consent of the ten principals, lists of the teachers were obtained from the schools. Then a school directory for 1973-74 was obtained from Linn-Benton Intermediate Education District. The investigator then compared the names of the teachers to make sure that population of this study consisted of teachers who had served in the same schools for the previous year. Newly employed and transfer teachers for the year 1974-75, in every participating school, were not involved in this investigation. The idea behind this scheme was that those teachers who were to participate in this project must have known their principals for at least one academic year. A proportionate stratified random sampling scheme was used to select 150 teachers. With the refusal of one school, 132 teachers were left to be involved in the study. A faculty roster was obtained from each school. These rosters indicated the department or the subject matter taught by
each teacher. Using this information the faculty of each school
was grouped into six categories: (1) humanities, (2) social sciences,
(3) sciences, (4) business and home economics, (5) physical educa-
tion and health, (6) driver education, special education, library
science etc. Every teacher in each group was numbered. A ran-
dom selection, using random digit tables, was made from each
category. A sample of 150 teachers from the eligible teacher popu-
lation of 372 teachers was considered an adequate sample. This
size made possible the inclusion of 40 percent of the teachers from
each faculty. This plan of sampling was used so that representation
of each department faculty would occur.

Data Collection. A memorandum (Appendix E) was prepared for
the participating teachers. Teachers and the schools were identi-
fied by code. A package containing the memorandum, along with
the questionnaires i.e., Principal Leadership Style Questionnaire
and the Purdue Teachers Opinionnaire was mailed to every teacher.
The memorandum also served as a cover letter and explained the
intent of the study to the teachers.

Within two weeks of issuing the packages to teachers con-
taining the two instruments, 75 percent of the responses were re-
turned. The investigator visited the schools and contacted person-
ally those teachers who had not responded by this time. Most of the
teachers who failed to return the questionnaires within two weeks were concerned about the code number placed on each instrument. Some of them lost their package and were provided another set of questionnaires. The investigator again assured the teachers of their anonymity and of the confidentiality of the responses. They were further assured that this information is entirely for research purposes and the code numbers are only to help keep each teacher's and school's response separate. The second purpose of the code number was also to keep track of the responses received and follow up those who did not respond. About eight percent of the teachers did not list their age and sex. This information was obtained independently from their respective schools before analyzing the data. All these efforts yielded a 95.5 percent return from all the teachers sampled. Considering the sensitive nature of the project, the reluctance on the part of the principals and the teachers to cooperate was not a surprise. The number of the teachers sampled and the returns from each school are indicated in Table IV.

Treatment of Data. The purpose of this investigation was to determine the degree of relationships between the administrative dimensions and the morale dimensions. Multivariate analysis technique

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2 This is a correlational study. Significant correlation need not imply that there is a cause and effect relationship. The degree of relationship will be measured by correlation.
was applied to establish partial correlation coefficients between PLSQ dimensions and PTO scores. In this method of analysis no variable is specified as independent or dependent.

In summary, this chapter has provided a description of the methods and materials used in this study. It has attempted to describe the problems associated with obtaining permission to conduct the study, selection of the sample from all departments and faculties, administrations of the instruments and assuring confidentiality in data collection. Finally, the statistical design of analysis applied to the data has been explained. The next chapter will present the results of this investigation.
CHAPTER IV
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The basic research question which guided this study was whether or not there is a relationship between teacher perception of administrative behavior and teacher morale, or, in other words, if there is any relationship between the scores of Principal Leadership Style Questionnaire and the Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire. The null hypotheses that the correlation was zero versus the alternative hypotheses that the correlation was different from zero was tested at .05 level of confidence in each set of hypotheses. Of the 132 teachers sampled, 126 responded to the instruments. The results are based on 126 returns, 90 male and 36 female respondents.

Six methods of analyses were applied to the data. Results of the analyses are presented in the following order. First, means and standard deviations for the PLSQ dimensions and the morale variables were obtained separately. Second, one way analysis of variance was used to determine the degree of variance attributed to each of the variables, between schools. Third, the findings of the simple correlation between PLSQ age, sex and the PTO dimensions are reported. Fourth, the partial correlation coefficients were computed between Rapport with Principal and PLSQ dimensions, and Satisfaction with Teaching and PLSQ dimensions, to test the primary
hypotheses. Fifth, an analysis of the T-test based on regression coefficients was applied to the secondary hypotheses. Sixth, partial correlation coefficients were computed between PLSQ dimensions and the total PTO index. Finally, the tests for significance of the canonical correlations between PLSQ and the PTO dimensions are presented.

Analysis of the Principal Leadership Style Variables

It is interesting to note that teachers do not uniformly perceive a principal as behaving in the same pattern with respect to administrative behavior. Table V shows the PLSQ measures of central tendency and variation in faculty members' perceptions of administrative behavior with respect to "Concern for Production" and "Concern for People". In five schools, B, D, E, F, and H faculties rated their principals as being slightly higher on Concern for People than on Concern for Production. Only one school, i.e., G rated the principal as slightly higher on production concerns than on people concerns. Teachers in two other schools, C and I, perceived their principals as high and equal on both dimensions of administrative behavior.

Schools A and J rated their principals higher on Concern for People dimension. Both schools had small staffs, but this pattern of
TABLE V. Means, standard deviations, and ranges, for the PLSQ dimensions in each school.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Concern for Production</th>
<th>Concern for People</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 A</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 B</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 C</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 D</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 E</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 F</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 G</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 H</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>17.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 I</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>13.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 J</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
rating does not seem to be consistent for small staffs. Schools E and G also had small staffs but their ratings do not exclude their schools from the average group. Responses separated by sex and mean age do not provide any evidence of relationships to warrant any significant conclusions. The fact that these principals were high on People Concerns can only be attributed to the principals' administrative style.

A comparison of individual school means on the PLSQ dimensions indicates that the instrument did discriminate among the various administrative styles in terms of administrative behavior, i.e., administrators' Concern for Production/or People.

Leadership Style. Results indicate that, on the average, most of the administrators seem to have the managerial orientation of "6, 7" or "7, 8" style of leadership described by Blake and Mouton (1964). This means, that most of the administrators seem to have above average skills in handling production through people. The outcome is consistent with the findings of Halpin (1954) and Kahn and Katz (1960) who provided evidence that effective leaders are those who score high on both dimensions of leader behavior. Importance of both forms of leader behavior, production oriented and people oriented, is illuminated by Cartwright and Zanders (1953) with
delineation of the two fundamental objectives of all groups:

It appears that most, or perhaps all, group objectives can be subsumed under one of the two headings (a) the achievement of some specific group goal, or (b) the maintenance or strengthening of the group itself (p. 541).

Examination of the range scores shown in Table V further provides evidence that the faculty perceived the behavior of the same principal in various ways. The largest range of 76, occurred in school F and the smallest range of 27, was noticed in school C on Concern for Production.

The largest range on Concern for People dimension, 68, was in school B. The smallest range of 5, occurred in school A on the Concern for People dimension. School A also has the lowest mean scores on the Concern for Production dimension and the fewest number of respondents. All of these ranges appear as would be expected, to strongly reflect the number of respondents.

The wide differences in the range scores could be attributed to the individual differences in personalities of the teachers and their attitudes about the principal. Weldy (1961) concluded that the major factor of wide disagreement among teachers about the principals' administrative behavior usually is because of the teachers' insufficient knowledge of the administrators' activities and responsibilities on which the ratings are based, and because of the varying
philosophies of educational practice held by teachers.

Means and Standard Deviations for PLSQ Dimensions. Means and standard deviations, for the total sample on the PLSQ dimensions are presented in Table VI. Results of this analysis suggest that school administrators tend to show slightly more Concern for People than for production as measured by these instruments, with mean scores of 72 and 67, respectively. These findings regarding the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Concern for Production</td>
<td>67.30</td>
<td>18.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concern for People</td>
<td>72.55</td>
<td>16.26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b) Correlation between concern for people and production.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Concern for Production</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concern for People</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

administrative behavior, concur with findings of Halpin (1955) who reported that educational administrators were rated higher on Consideration than on Initiating structure. As defined in Chapter I the word Initiating structure and Consideration correspond essentially
to the rubrics of Concern for Production and Concern for People.

The intercorrelation matrix between Concern for Production and Concern for People exhibits (shown in Table VI (b)) relatively strong relationship between both the dimensions. For 123 degrees of freedom, and $r$ of .24 is required for significance at the .01 probability level (Snedecor and Cochran, 1967). The obtained value of .62 was significant at .001 level. This association accounted for 38 percent of the variance between the two dimensions.

The results paralleled the findings by Halpin and Winer (1957), who found correlations of .52, .48, and .38 for three groups of air commanders.

**Analysis of Morale Variables**

Means, standard deviations and number of items in various morale factors are indicated in Table VII.

Table VIII presents the ratios of variance between and within schools involving morale factors and administrative dimensions for measuring the degree of variance between schools. A one-way analysis of variance according to classification by school was computed to determine the degree of variance. With nine degrees of freedom between schools and 116 degrees of freedom within schools, an $F$ value of 2.00 was required at .05 level of significance.
TABLE VII. Number of items, means and standard deviation for morale factors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rapport with Principal</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>57.28</td>
<td>13.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with Teaching</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>65.95</td>
<td>8.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapport Among Teachers</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>43.07</td>
<td>6.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Salary</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>19.42</td>
<td>4.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Load</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>33.83</td>
<td>5.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum Issues</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14.87</td>
<td>2.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Status</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>22.04</td>
<td>4.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Support</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14.81</td>
<td>3.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities and Services</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15.74</td>
<td>2.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Pressures</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.30</td>
<td>2.53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The F test was applied to determine the level of significance. Community Support of Education had the highest degree of variation between schools significant at .001 level. This could be ascribed to the differences in level of the communities' understanding of, and support for, their school district's educational program. The second highest in degree of variance was administrator's Concern for Production. This indicates that some administrators emphasize Concern for Production more than others. Third in line is administrators' Concern for People. Although, on the average, administrators were
TABLE VIII. F ratio between school variance to within school variance from analysis of variance tables for morale factors, and administrative dimensions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Rapport with Principal</td>
<td>1.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with Teaching</td>
<td>0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapport Among Teachers</td>
<td>2.09*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Salary</td>
<td>2.50*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Load</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum Issues</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Status</td>
<td>1.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Support of Education</td>
<td>4.25**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Facilities and Services</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Pressures</td>
<td>1.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concern for Production</td>
<td>3.42**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concern for People</td>
<td>2.72**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Significance levels  F-value
*  .05  = 2.00
** .01  = 2.60
   .001 = 3.60
rated slightly higher in their Concern for People than Production, the degree of variation in administrators' Concern for People between schools was significant at .01 level. Teacher Salary, also had a variation among schools significant at .05 level showing as would be expected that some school districts pay their teachers more than do other districts. The variation of median salary among schools may also be attributed to the varying level of property bases and levies of the school districts, the relative bargaining strength, the median age and the educational level of the teachers in every school district. The last variable that had significant variation at .05 level was Rapport Among Teachers. This suggests that teachers in various schools have some differences in their degree of rapport among themselves. Faculties of some schools get along better than do others.

Results of Simple Correlations

The intercorrelations between morale factors, administrative dimensions, age and sex provide evidence that the factors were to a great extent interdependent. In total, 65 out of 91 relationships tested were significant. With 123 degrees of freedom for simple correlations, 13 relationships were significant at .05, 20 relationships at .01, and 32 were significant at .001 level. Table IX presents the degree of relationship between the various dimensions.
### TABLE IX. Simple correlations between different variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
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<td>07</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>07</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>21*</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>06</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td>04</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>21*</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>27*</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>24*</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>24*</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapport with Principal</td>
<td></td>
<td>23*</td>
<td>35*</td>
<td>47*</td>
<td>26*</td>
<td>48*</td>
<td>35*</td>
<td>27*</td>
<td>37*</td>
<td>28*</td>
<td>65*</td>
<td>63*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with Teaching</td>
<td></td>
<td>40*</td>
<td>18*</td>
<td>21*</td>
<td>29*</td>
<td>33*</td>
<td>25*</td>
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<td>30*</td>
<td>04</td>
<td>04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapport among Teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>19*</td>
<td>30*</td>
<td>32*</td>
<td>34*</td>
<td>21*</td>
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<td>27*</td>
<td>30*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Salary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>32*</td>
<td>35*</td>
<td>49*</td>
<td>48*</td>
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<td>34*</td>
<td>34*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher Load</td>
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<td></td>
<td>29*</td>
<td>37*</td>
<td>28*</td>
<td>42*</td>
<td>43*</td>
<td>20*</td>
<td>18*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum Issues</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>39*</td>
<td>47*</td>
<td>43*</td>
<td>41*</td>
<td>45*</td>
<td>40*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Status</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>53*</td>
<td>28*</td>
<td>46*</td>
<td>16*</td>
<td>25*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Support</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>28*</td>
<td>53*</td>
<td>29*</td>
<td>23*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities and Services</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>25*</td>
<td>28*</td>
<td>21*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Pressures</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concern for People</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>62*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concern for Production</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significance level at .05, the required $r = .18$  
For two tailed test  
Significance level at .01, the required $r = .24$  
Significance level at .001, the required $r = .31$
Sex of the teachers was the only variable which was not related significantly to any other factor except Teacher Status. Analysis of simple correlation coefficients indicated that women teachers are more satisfied with their status as a teacher. This would suggest that they enjoy feelings of prestige, satisfaction and security afforded by teaching. These findings are consistent with Schult's (1952) and Ross's (1960) findings that female teachers are more satisfied with their teaching positions than male teachers. In the present investigation the age of the teachers is related significantly to (1) Teacher Load, (2) Teacher Status, (3) Community Pressures, and (4) Rapport Among Teachers. The analysis suggests that the teachers who were higher on the average in age, were better able to handle activities with ease such as record keeping, clerical work and extracurricular load etc., enjoyed their status as a teacher, were better able to get along with community pressures, and had better rapport with teachers. It could also be assumed that those who do not like teaching quit before they reach older age groups. The relationship of age paralleled the findings by Franks (1963) who reported that teacher morale seems to be related to teachers' ages and age differences from principals and the extent of teaching experience.

Teacher Rapport with Principal was highly correlated with all of the other variables. However, the strongest relationships existed
between Teacher Rapport with Principal and Concern for Production and People respectively. This suggests that most of the faculties perceived their principals as effective leaders and have confidence in their professional competencies, ability to communicate, skill in human relations and their interest in teachers' and students' work and their needs. The results of this analysis suggest that these educational administrators demonstrate good leader behavior in their high consideration for the members of their staffs, while at the same time emphasize the organizational purpose of goal achievement.

The third highest correlation was found to exist between Concern for Production and Concern for People. Satisfaction with Teaching was significantly related with all other factors except School Facilities and Services, and Concern for Production and People dimensions. All other factors were significantly intercorrelated with the exception of Teacher Status which was not significantly related to Concern for Production. Concern for Production and Concern for People on the average, were highly correlated with the other factors except for Community Pressures, Satisfaction with Teaching, Age and Sex.

Discussion of Morale Factors. Examination of the intercorrelations of morale factors (excluding age, sex, people, and production) provide evidence that all the morale factors are highly
intercorrelated with the exception of Satisfaction with Teaching, which is not significantly related to Facilities and Services. It may be conjectured that teachers do not seem to be motivated towards achieving satisfaction from the availability and use of pedagogical facilities and materials. Since the practice of this acquisition frequently involves the decisions of the school boards and principals, it may leave the teacher resentful and unwilling to make a maximum use of them; therefore, it could be assumed that the rather weak correlation observed in Table IX between Satisfaction with Teaching and School Facilities and Services are the result of this phenomena.

The strongest relationship among morale factors existed between Community Support of Education and Teacher Status, and Community Pressures.

A comparison of the interfactor correlations between the morale dimensions in the findings of Kokovich (1969) and Bentley and Rempel (1970) indicate that the correlations for different populations are not the same. Hence, it may be concluded that interdependence is situational.
Primary Hypotheses. The objective of testing the primary hypotheses using partial correlation statistical procedures was to determine the relationship between (1) PLSQ dimensions (Concern for Production and Concern for People) and, (2) Teacher Rapport with Principal, and (3) Satisfaction with Teaching. This method of differentiating hypotheses into two sets (primary and secondary) and testing the first set with the partial correlation technique eliminated the effects of other variables, i.e., age, sex and the morale factors specified in the second set of hypotheses. Table X presents the results of the primary hypotheses. An analysis of partial correlation was applied to test the significance of the relationships. The test of the null hypothesis, $H_0: \rho = 0$, versus the alternative hypothesis, $H_1: \rho \neq 0$, was performed using these data. For 114 degrees of freedom, a correlation coefficient of $\rho = .19$ for a two-tailed t test was conducted to verify the null hypotheses at .05 level of confidence. The results of the analysis of primary hypotheses are as follows:

(1) The hypothesis that there is no partial correlation between teacher perception of the administrative behavior (Concern for Production) and Teacher Rapport with the Principal is rejected.
TABLE X. Results of the primary hypotheses based on partial correlations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Teacher Principal Rapport</td>
<td></td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>.547</td>
<td>.494</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Satisfaction with Teaching</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.158</td>
<td>-.190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Concern for Production</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td>.511</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Concern for People</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

d.f. 114. For a two-tailed t test required $r .32$ significant at .001 level.

(2) The hypothesis that there is no partial correlation between teacher perception of the administrative behavior, Concern for People, and Teacher Rapport with the Principal is also rejected.

(3) The hypothesis that there is no partial correlation between teacher perception of the administrative behavior i.e., Concern for Production and Satisfaction with Teaching is accepted.

(4) The hypothesis that there is no partial correlation between teacher perception of the administrative behavior (Concern for People) and Satisfaction with Teaching is also accepted.

Discussion of the Primary Hypotheses. The first primary hypotheses which assumed that there would be no partial correlation between teacher perceptions of the administrative behavior and Rapport with the Principal was rejected. The level of significance achieved in this relationship was $p .001$, not only with administrator's Concern for Production, but Concern for
People as well. This suggests that teachers rapport with their administrator is not only positively related when his leadership style reflects Concern for People, or if the administrator is people oriented, but also it is even more positively related when the administrator's leadership style demonstrates Concern for Production. This finding is not surprising in light of the relevant literature.

In this study most administrators were perceived as almost equal on both "people" and "production" concerns of school management, with the exception of two administrators who were perceived by their staffs as more people oriented. These results are consistent with Kahn and Katz (1960) findings, in a tractor company, where the foremen who were successful and had very good rapport with their workers, were those who synthesized their interest in productivity and in the needs of the employees. Halpin (1954) in his research with airplane commanders has presented evidence which suggests that the most effective commanders are those who are rated high on both these dimensions of leader behavior, i.e., Consideration and Initiating structure by their crew members. Similarly the findings of Hemphill (1955) are consistent with the results of other studies reported in this section. He reported that the departments with the best campus reputation for being well administered were those whose leaders were described as above average on both dimensions of
leader behavior. Kokovich (1969) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between teacher perceptions of administrative behavior and teacher morale using LBDQ for measuring the administrative dimensions. He found strongest correlations between Teacher Rapport with Principal and Consideration and Initiating structure respectively.

The results of the test of the second primary hypothesis supported the assumption that there is no partial correlation between Satisfaction with Teaching and the teachers' perceptions of the administrative behavior i.e., his Concern for Production and Concern for People dimensions. Surprisingly teachers' high level of rapport with principals does not seem to affect the teachers' Satisfaction with Teaching positively or negatively.

The results of this analysis may be ascribed to the assumption that teachers' satisfaction with teaching is related mostly to those things that happen directly with pupils inside the classroom and over which the principals have little control or influence. Secondly, teachers are product of culture that places heavy emphasis on self-motivation -- promoted through mass media and teacher training institutions. Therefore, it seems logical that the styles of administration have unnoticeable influence on teacher satisfaction. It is evident from this research that a school principal's administrative
behavior, in terms of his Concern for Production and Concern for People, is not related to teachers' Satisfaction with Teaching. The outcome is inconsistent with Haven's (1963) results who reported that satisfaction with teaching was positively related with administrator-teacher relationships. But he concluded that the environmental aspects such as administrator-teacher relationships, facilities and aids available to teachers, that are related to job satisfaction of teachers are not necessarily the same for all teachers. That is to say that the things which might cause job satisfaction for one person may not affect the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of another.

One possible explanation of these results can be attributed to the individual differences in personality make-ups of the teachers. Particular influences producing general satisfaction in one individual are not the ones producing it in other individuals. Individuals differ in their needs, interests and attitudes. Coffman (1951) analyzed responses of a reaction inventory of teacher morale and concluded that a teacher may enjoy teaching yet feel frustrated because the principal sets limits to the creativity of the teachers. He may enjoy teaching, but there are personal factors that frustrate him. When some teachers feel this way and others do not, it would result in intercorrelations near zero. The analysis of the present investigation also demonstrates the intercorrelations of this variable near
Coffman further concluded that an expression of general liking for teaching may not be a satisfactory index to morale.

Although teachers have good rapport with the principal, their dissatisfaction towards teaching could be ascribed to some other factors upon which the administrator may have very little control. For example, school boards may be responsible for certain policies that could affect teachers' job satisfaction. Teaching conditions, great variation of pupils, tiring nature of teaching, community attitude, etc., could also affect teachers' satisfaction with their jobs.

**Analysis of the Secondary Hypotheses**

The zero-order correlations between PLSQ and PTO dimensions along with the analysis of the tests of secondary hypotheses is exhibited in Table XI. An analysis of the $t$ test based on regression coefficients was applied to test the significance of relationships. The test of the null hypothesis, $H_0: \beta \neq 0$, was performed using the data. For 114 degrees of freedom a correlation coefficient of $r = .19$, for a two-tailed test, was needed to reject the null hypotheses at the .05 level of confidence. The results of the analysis of secondary hypotheses are shown in Table XI.
TABLE XI. Results of the test of the secondary null hypotheses with $T$ values based on regression coefficients.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concern for Production</th>
<th>Concern for People</th>
<th>Vari-</th>
<th>Vari-</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rapport Among Teachers</td>
<td>1.75 acc*</td>
<td>2.18  rej**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Salary</td>
<td>2.31 rej</td>
<td>2.44  rej</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Load</td>
<td>0.50 acc</td>
<td>0.22  acc</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum Issues</td>
<td>3.59 rej</td>
<td>2.83  rej</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Status</td>
<td>-1.62 acc</td>
<td>0.39  acc</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Support</td>
<td>0.77 acc</td>
<td>-0.18 acc</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of Education</td>
<td>0.56 acc</td>
<td>-0.28 acc</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Facilities and</td>
<td>-0.96 acc</td>
<td>-0.91 acc</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Pressures</td>
<td>-0.96 acc</td>
<td>-0.91 acc</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-0.29 acc</td>
<td>-0.90 acc</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>0.63 acc</td>
<td>-1.08 acc</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **

Discussion of the Secondary Hypotheses. An examination of Table XI shows that positive relationships are found only for the following variables: Rapport Among Teachers, Teacher Salary and Curriculum Issues. The results for the remaining variables indicate that Teacher Status, Community Support of Education, Teacher Load, School Facilities and Services, Community Pressures, Age and Sex are not related significantly to either Concern for Production or Concern for People dimensions.

Rapport Among Teachers is significantly related to
administrator's Concern for People as perceived by the staff. These results concur with the findings of Strickland (1962) and Johnson (1967) that interpersonal relations of teachers with principal was the most important factor that was related to teacher morale. Results of this study seem to consider that an administrator's behavior that shows his Concern for People could be effective in creating the atmosphere in which teachers may find their fellow-teachers interesting people to work with on professional level, and have sufficient opportunity to work with them on significant problems.

In this era of collective bargaining and negotiations, salary probably is a very significant factor in affecting teacher morale. In this study, salary is significantly related to both perceived "people" and "production" dimensions of administrative behavior. The results of this analysis parallel the findings of Kokovich (1969) who reported that salary was significantly related to leader behavior dimensions of consideration and initiating structure. However, Redefer (1959) and Johnson (1967) conclude that salary, in the opinion of the teachers surveyed, was not a factor in determining the morale status of teachers. On the contrary, Strickland (1962), and Hedlund and Brown (1951) found salary as one of the factors that lowered teacher morale.

It seems that collective bargaining and negotiations are not
detrimental to the relations between administrators and their staffs. Administrators probably are helpful to their staffs, or at least not a hindrance to their staffs, in receiving fair salaries and teachers involvement in salary policies. The high correlation between administrative behavior and Teacher Rapport with Principal appears to show that teachers and administrators enjoy better relations since principals are not involved in teachers demands at the negotiating table with the school boards.

In this study "curriculum issues" was the most interesting and significant factor related to teacher perceptions of administrative behavior. The findings are contrary to Kokovich's (1969) results who discovered no relationship between Curriculum Issues and leader behavior dimensions, i.e., neither with consideration nor with initiating structure. Coffman (1951) in a comprehensive study, utilized the Teacher Reaction Inventory, previously developed at Columbia University, in an attempt to relate teacher morale to curriculum development. He concluded that teachers are important people regarding curriculum issues. They are the ones directly responsible for the education of the children and youth of this society. Teachers are responsible for implementing the curriculum so they should have a say in what should be taught and also what they are suppose to teach in schools.

Results in this research propound that when the
administrators are rated high on both the "people" and "production" dimensions of the administrative behavior, teachers are involved in the curriculum issues of their schools. It is further conjectured that principals who have good rapport with their staffs and who are rated high on both the dimensions of the administrative behavior, are equally interested in soliciting their staffs reactions to the adequacy of the school program in meeting students' needs and may be serving the society with the best possible services that they could provide.

It is assumed that for some of the factors, which are not related to the administrative dimensions of leadership style, such as Community Pressures, School Facilities and Services, and Community Support of Education, administrators may have very little control. For these factors, school boards may have the final authority, by deciding how much budget is provided for school facilities, for number of teachers in the school, which could affect class size etc. Community Support of Education and Community Pressures may be reflected in school board decisions and public voting on the issues.

In the set of secondary hypotheses, the strongest relationship, between Concern for Production and Curriculum Issues (3,59) provided evidence that administrator's Concern for Production was highly important to morale status on that factor. The second strongest
relationship was again found between administrator's Concern for People and the morale dimension, Curriculum Issues (regression coefficient of 2.83). Concern for Production was not related to any factor of teacher morale to which Concern for People was not significantly related.

**Results of the General Hypotheses**

The data were analyzed in two forms to test the general hypotheses. First, the partial correlations between administrative dimensions and the PTO index were computed. Second, the canonical correlations between the set of administrative dimensions and the set of morale dimensions were tested for significance and the respective weight vectors were determined.

Table XII shows the simple correlations between administrative dimensions and the PTO index. As discussed previously, the correlation between Concern for Production and Concern for People is .62. The correlation between Concern for Production and PTO scores are .72. The correlation between Concern for People and PTO total scores is .68. An $r$ or .18 is required for significance at the .05 level. All of the relationships were significant at .001 level.

To ascertain which of the administrative dimensions was the
TABLE XII. Correlations between Concern for Production, Concern for People, and the PTO index.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Concern for Production</th>
<th>Concern for People</th>
<th>PTO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Concern for Production</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concern for People</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTO</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Significant at .001 level, required \( r = .30 \).

best predictor of morale status, partial correlation between the administrative dimensions and the PTO index was computed. Table XIII shows the partial correlations between administrative dimensions and the total PTO index. An \( r \) of .19 was needed to reject the hypothesis at .05 level of confidence. The partial correlation between Concern for Production and the total PTO scores was .40, significant at .001 level of confidence against .31 as the theoretical level of \( r \). The partial correlation between Concern for People and the total PTO scores was .34 at .001 significance level.

TABLE XIII. Partial correlations between Concern for Production, Concern for People and the PTO index.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>PTO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Concern for Production</td>
<td>.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concern for People</td>
<td>.34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The analysis of both these partial correlations indicate that both the dimensions of administrative behavior are equally significant to the morale status. With Concern for People partialled out the PTO total index accounted for 16 percent of the variance between PTO and Concern for Production while simple correlation between Concern for Production and the total PTO score accounted for 52 percent of the variance. The simple correlations between Concern for People and the total PTO index score accounted for 46 percent of the variance, but with Concern for Production partialled out only 12 percent of the total association, accounted for between Concern for People and the PTO scores. The examination of the partial correlations further provides evidence that both dimensions of administrative style are of equal importance to the morale dimensions of the teachers.

To test the general hypothesis of whether the set of administrator dimensions related to the set of morale dimensions, canonical analysis was applied to the data. Two canonical roots were tested for significance with the distinction that the first root be orthogonal to the second root. The method is primarily descriptive, with the analysis being based on the vectors, or weights, that contributed to the significant roots.

A chi-square test for significance was applied to the squares
of the canonical correlations which utilized the following formula:

Canonical Correlations

\[ \hat{\lambda}_1 = .77 \quad P_1 = 2 \]

\[ \hat{\lambda}_2 = .20 \quad N = 126 \]

\[ \hat{\chi}^2_1 = 113.0 \quad \text{with or for } 20 \text{ d.f.} \]

\[ .001 \text{ significance level is 45.3} \]

\[ \hat{\chi}^2_2 = .96 \quad \text{not significant} \]

(Press, 1972, p. 335)

Since the test of the second root was not significant the results of the second root will not be discussed further.

For the first root a chi-square value of 45.3 at the .001 level of confidence for 20 degrees of freedom was needed for significance (Press, 1972). The observed value of 113.0 was quite significant. The null hypotheses, \( H_0 : R_c = 0 \), was rejected in favor of the alternative hypothesis, \( H_1 : R_c \neq 0 \). An examination of the weights involved in the first significant root revealed the significance
of various subsets in each dimension that contributed to the overall relationship between the administrative style dimensions and the morale factors.

Table XIV lists the weights contributed by the leadership/style and the morale dimensions. In the set of administrative behavior, both the dimensions, i.e., Concern for Production and Concern for People, contributed strongly to the relationship with a weight of .509 and .491 respectively. In the morale dimensions the subset Curriculum Issues had the major weight (.797). The second greatest weight in the morale dimensions of .533 was associated with Teacher Principal Rapport. The other morale variable which had a significant weight (.489), was Community Support of Education.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE XIV</th>
<th>Canonical weights for the first significant root.</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PLSQ Dimensions</td>
<td>Weight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concern for Production</td>
<td>.509</td>
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<tr>
<td>Concern for People</td>
<td>.491</td>
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The rest of the variables in the morale set in Table XIV had weights that did not indicate a contribution to the overall relationship between the set of leadership dimensions and the set of morale dimensions. Thus, it is evident that in the set of administrative variables both the dimensions (Concern for Production and People) were equally significant in their contribution to the relationships between administrative behavior and the morale status.
The basic problem in this study was to investigate the relationship between the administrative style of the high school principal and certain dimensions of teacher morale.

The general hypothesis, stated in null form, was that there would be no relationship between teacher perceptions of administrative behavior and teacher morale. All hypotheses in this study were tested at .05 level of confidence. The primary hypothesis asserting that there would be no partial correlation between administrative behavior (Concern for Production and Concern for People) and Teacher Rapport with Principal was rejected. The second primary hypothesis asserting that there would be no partial correlation between administrative behavior and satisfaction with teaching was accepted.

Partial correlation was applied to analyze the primary hypotheses by eliminating the effects of secondary hypotheses (rapport among teachers, teacher salary, teacher load, curriculum issues, teacher status, community support of education, school facilities and services, community pressures, age and sex). Out of 20 secondary hypotheses tested, five of them were rejected. Secondary hypotheses were analyzed by using T-test based on regression coefficients.

Principal Leadership Style Questionnaire (PLSQ) was used to...
measure two dimensions -- Concern for Production and Concern for People -- of administrative behavior. The Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire (PTO) was used to measure ten dimensions of teacher morale. A stratified random sampling technique was used to select 150 teachers from 11 schools. With the refusal of one school to participate in this project, 132 teachers were sampled from ten schools. Nearly 96 percent of the sample (126 out of 132) completed the instruments.

Findings and General Conclusions

The analysis of the two administrative dimensions indicate that a principal's leadership behavior is perceived differently by different members. Staff members perceived an administrator's behavior with their own personal frame of reference. Most of the principals were rated high on both Concern for People and Concern for Production dimensions of administrative behavior with the exception of two principals who were rated high only on the people dimension. The sex, age, size of the faculties did not seem to be related to the perceptions of the teachers.

On the average, administrators were perceived as having a "6, 7" or "7, 8" leadership style as described by Blake and Mouton (1964). Educational administrators seem to have above average
skills in the eyes of their faculty in promoting both goal achievement and member satisfaction.

Analysis of the primary hypotheses concluded that (1) Rapport with Principal is positively related to both the people and production dimensions of administrative behavior, (2) Satisfaction with Teaching is not related to either dimension of administrative behavior. It could be assumed that teachers satisfaction with teaching may be affected most centrally by their experiences with pupils and the activities that take place inside the classroom over which the principals may have very little control.

Teacher Rapport with Principal is positively related to both styles of administrative behavior. This relationship suggest that most of the faculties perceived their principals as efficient administrators and have confidence in their group leadership. It may further be conjectured that when good rapport exists between teachers and their administrators, teachers are involved in the Curriculum Issues and principals are soliciting their staffs opinions on the policy matters of the school. Teacher Salary is significantly related to both the dimensions of the administrative behavior. Apparently, whatever means of salary negotiations are being utilized in the various districts, the effects have not been detrimental to the relations between administrators and their staffs. Tensions and strained relations
caused by collective bargaining and negotiations between school boards and teachers does not seem to affect the good functioning relationships between administrators and their teachers.

Results of the secondary hypotheses indicated that both dimensions of administrative behavior are positively related to Curriculum Issues, and Teacher Salary. Concern for People is also related to Rapport Among Teachers. Administrative behavior (style) does not seem to be related to the following morale variables: Satisfaction with Teaching, Teacher Load, Teacher Status, Community Support of Education, School Facilities and Services, and Community Pressures. Age and Sex of the teachers are not related to the leadership style of the principal. However, the analysis of the simple correlations suggest that women teachers are more satisfied with their status as teacher than are male teachers. Furthermore, teachers who are higher on the average in age, enjoy their status as teacher. It could be inferred that those who do not like teaching quit before they reach older age groups.

Findings of the simple correlations, partial correlations, and the canonical correlations all suggest that both the people and the production dimensions of administrative behavior are equally important for the morale status of the teachers. The results of this research suggest that educational administrators are rated high on both dimensions of administrative behavior. They are perceived by
their faculties as demonstrating good leader behavior in their high consideration for the members of their staffs, while at the same time emphasizing the organizational purpose of goal achievement.

**Implications of this study**

The leadership style of educational administrators like managers of industrial and business organizations is related to leader behavior which furthers organizational purpose of goal achievement and member satisfaction. The Principal Leadership Style Questionnaire adapted from the Managerial Grid (Blake and Mouton, 1964) has demonstrated its practicability for studying managerial styles, and did seem to discriminate among the various administrators' Concern for Production and Concern for People. Therefore, it can be a useful instrument for studying the leadership styles of educational administrators. The study has shown that principles of behavioral management of complex organizations can be applied to the study of educational leadership. The implications of this study go beyond its usefulness to individual principals. The findings suggest that the managerial grid technique of studying leadership styles could be used in staff development program and training and selection of prospective educational administrators.

It is suggested that a primary source for ascertaining
effective administrative behavior would be to study the perceptions of the faculty. The research on principal leadership styles need to be addressed to the assumption that morale and productivity are related. The assumption has long been held that high morale will automatically bring improved performance, this may not necessarily be true. An organization may have high morale and not be productive.

It is evident from this research that both the dimensions (Concern for Production and Concern for People) of administrative behavior are related to certain dimensions of teacher morale. The dimensions of administrative leadership style and teacher morale were explained for common variance. The dimension of Concern for Production and the PTO total score had 52 percent common variance. Concern for People and total PTO produced 46 percent common variance. In both cases approximately half of the total variance could be accounted for with a common factor. It is apparent that teacher morale cannot be explained solely on the basis of administrative style, since approximately 50 percent of the variance remains unexplained. Perhaps there are other factors (personal or environmental) that may affect morale of the teachers, since morale is the result of many interrelated variables over which the administrator may have very little control.
Information regarding morale is needed from a variety of sources. It would be helpful if the investigator could have personal contacts with the teachers, so that teacher and the investigator could feel comfortable to ask questions that can provide more information regarding all aspects of the school and its environments. There is a possibility that by just filling out the questionnaires, teachers may not have provided honest opinions regarding the administrative behavior. Although the investigator assured the teachers about the confidentiality of their results, teachers still may have some doubts about the strictness of confidentiality and may think that their administrators can have access to their responses.

The investigator did not have access to the materials and information involving collective bargaining and negotiation practices operating in the school districts. Also, the investigator did not have the opportunity to personally interview the teachers, as the teachers stated they were too busy to spare time for this purpose. It is possible the teachers were avoiding such interviews because of the sensitive nature of the study. Administrators and teachers may not have felt comfortable to have personal contacts and discuss their opinions in detail.

Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire measured only ten dimensions of teacher morale, there could be other factors (personal and
environmental) that might have affected teacher morale and of which the investigator had no information.

In this study no independent measurement was employed to evaluate the perceptions of the teachers about the administrative behavior of their principals or even about teachers own morale. Hence, it must be kept in mind throughout the study that we are dealing with correlations between perceived administrative behavior and perceived teacher morale.

Strict consensus of perceptions of administrative behavior seems difficult to obtain. It should be kept in mind that perceptions are not always accurate and may miss the mark, more or less, depending upon the perceptual needs of the observer. Identity seeking in personality factors and professional background of teachers may frequently tend to produce varying perception oriented evaluations of a principal. However, the empirical measurement of these factors is not an easy task, and remains an area for further investigation.

The present study has investigated the relationship between teacher perceptions of administrative behavior and teacher morale. It has established that certain dimensions of teacher morale are related to the leadership style of the high school principal with the sample. And area for possible future study would be the
relationship between leadership style and teacher and student performance.

Further research is needed to investigate the morale of the students where the principal is people oriented and where he is rated high on both dimensions of administrative behavior.

It would be fruitful to replicate the design of this study on a larger teacher population and sample size in different geographic areas. It would also be interesting to investigate what type of personality characteristics of the principal are related to his leadership style.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


BIBLIOGRAPHY (Continued)


BIBLIOGRAPHY (Continued)


BIBLIOGRAPHY (Continued)


APPENDICES
High 9

1, 9 Management
Thoughtful attention to needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to a comfortable friendly organization atmosphere and work tempo.

9, 9 Management
Work accomplishment is from committed people; interdependence through a "common stake" in organization purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect.

5, 5 Management
Adequate organization performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get out work with maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level.

1, 1 Management
Exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organization membership.

9, 1 Management
Efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.

Low 1

Concern for People

Concern for Production

Figure 1. The Managerial Grid by Blake and Mouton 1964.
APPENDIX B

PRINCIPAL LEADERSHIP STYLE QUESTIONNAIRE

In the following set of statements, please circle the letter of the statement in each set which best reflects the conditions for your school. Please be sure to circle an item for all 12 sets.

1. The relationship of most teachers to the principal involved
   A. Staying out of his way as much as possible.
   B. That of supervisor and subordinate.
   C. A give and take, one-to-one exchange.
   D. A friendly and jovial relationship.
   E. A synchronized and cooperative effort.

2. On the whole, the principal appeared to
   A. do very little planning.
   B. cooperatively and extensively plan, allowing for flexibility in procedure.
   C. plan only in a very broad way.
   D. plan realistically in a way which prescribed most procedures.
   E. Individually plan in such a way as to specifically prescribe almost all procedures.

3. Violations of procedure by teachers were usually dealt with by the principal's
   A. turning his head to avoid it.
   B. taking direct disciplinary action.
   C. taking a forgive and forget attitude.
   D. discussing the matter with the teacher in order to understand the violation in its broader context.
   E. making it clear what the proper procedure was in order to prevent future problems.

4. Teacher's meetings at the school were largely
   A. friendly social gatherings.
   B. open, candid, and authentic communication between teachers and administrators.
   C. explanations of the decisions which the administrators had already made.
   D. regarded with apathy by teachers and administrators.
   E. give and take discussions which the administrators sometimes weighed in their decisions.

5. When conflicts arose among the staff, the principal generally
   A. sought a compromise solution - "we split the difference."
   B. "put his head in the sand."
   C. examined the problem in the core of its educational base and sought to identify the common stakes of the participants.
   D. tried to smoothe it over by talking teachers out of it.
   E. dealt firmly in suppressing it.

6. With respect to curriculum changes proposed by teachers the principals
   A. discouraged or stifled most significant changes.
   B. promoted and rewarded many teacher curriculum innovations.
   C. would first determine if the superintendent's office approved of them.
   D. encouraged those changes which did not seriously "rock the boat."
   E. usually did his best to avoid any kind of personal involvement.

7. With respect to teacher hiring, efforts were made by the principal to
   A. consider the needs of the job in relation to the abilities of the applicant.
   B. secure "well rounded" personnel.
   C. in a minimal way to secure minimally qualified personnel.
   D. secure personnel who "fit" into the organization.
   E. get people who know how to teach ("know how to get the job done.")
8. With respect to orienting new teachers, the principal took the approach of:
   A. putting the new teachers out to "sink or swim" on their own merits.
   B. orientation of teachers to the point of making them aware of school procedures.
   C. an extensive orientation which enabled the new teacher to see his work and position in relation to the total school program.
   D. easing them into the social group by the use of a maximal number of social contacts.
   E. permitting them to go their own way as they chose.

9. In his teacher evaluation, the principal:
   A. clearly and directly let a teacher know what his limitations were.
   B. adopted a friendly, non-critical approach.
   C. attempted to identify the means by which the teacher could achieve mutually agreed upon teaching goals.
   D. utilized about an equal dose of praise and criticism.
   E. either did none or did not reveal the results.

10. The descriptive phrase which perhaps best characterizes the behavior of the principal is:
    A. passively satisfied.
    B. other-directed (took his cues from the environment.)
    C. production oriented.
    D. respect and trust of others.
    E. a "realistic" compromiser.

11. The goals of the school seemed to be largely:
    A. centered around linking individual effort and organizational purposes.
    B. put on a material, quota basis (e.g., "more students achieving at a higher level.")
    C. very general ones which everybody could support.
    D. neither explicitly nor implicitly identifiable.
    E. balanced between pupil achievement and teacher satisfaction dimensions.

12. Relations among teachers at the school generally centered around a theme of:
    A. apathy; teachers did not express much concern for either their work or other staff members.
    B. cooperation; teachers were highly concerned about the professional and personal welfare of other teachers.
    C. competitiveness; teachers were highly conscious of how their performance compared with others.
    D. friendliness; teachers were mostly concerned about getting along well with their peers.
    E. a balanced approach; concerns were about equally balanced between professional and social matters.
PLEASE NOTE:

Pages 120-125, Appendix C: "The Purdue Teacher Opinionaire", copyright 1973 by Purdue Research Foundation, not microfilmed at request of author. Available for consultation at the Oregon State University Library.

UNIVERSITY MICROFILMS.
This is a letter asking for the cooperation of your staff in a study of teaching morale. This study will involve all the high schools in Linn and Benton Counties. No school has been selected because of either high or low morale factors. But, I'm sure you will agree that in this era of negotiations, budget defeats, etc. it is important to investigate staff morale. This particular study will be conducted by Surjit Bhella, a doctoral student at O.S.U., and involves a statistical analysis of staff morale as related to principals' leadership style. All results, of course, will be kept in strictest confidence. Should you or your staff be interested in the data for your school we would be pleased to come to your district and share the results with you and/or your staff in confidence.

We would like to administer two questionnaires to randomly selected teachers in your building (5 to 30 depending on the size of your staff). The Principal Leadership Questionnaire will require 15 minutes; the Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire will require 30 minutes to teacher time.

We very much appreciate your consideration and support in this study. We will do everything in our power to conduct the research with maximum convenience to you. We are very appreciative of your help to O.S.U. students. Mrs. Bhella will call on you personally to confer about the study. Should you have any questions, or concerns please call me (754-3738 office, 753-7963 home). Again, thank you.

Cordially,
APPENDIX E

TO: Participating Teachers

FROM: Surjit Bhella, Graduate Student
      William R. Fielder, Professor

SUBJECT: A request for your participation in a study of teacher morale and leadership style.

I'm sure you'll agree that in these days of negotiations, accountability, and budget "crunch", the relationship between teachers and administrators is central to the conduct of public education. We ask for your cooperation in a study examining the relationship of principals' leadership style and teacher morale.

You are one of several teachers who has been randomly selected to participate in this study. Would you take time now to complete the two questionnaires enclosed. The Purdue Teacher Opinionaire will take from 20 to 30 minutes; the leadership style questionnaire will take only 10 minutes. The code number in the upper left hand corner of the self-addressed envelope is only to help us keep each schools' response separate. All results, both for you and your school, will be kept in strictest confidence.

Your principal has agreed to cooperate in the study and we have offered to share directly and personally with each school the generalized results of the study should the faculty and administration express an interest.

Two questionnaires are enclosed along with a stamped addressed envelope for your convenience. Directions are given on the cover pages of the respective questionnaires. We know how busy you are and this is an encroachment on your time. We very much appreciate your consideration and support in this study. Please return these forms at your earliest convenience. Should you have any questions please call Mrs. Bhella at 752-8015 or Mr. Fielder at 753-7963. Again, thank you for your time.