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MANIPULATION IN INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS: A  
COMPARATIVE INVESTIGATION OF THE MACHIAVELLIAN  
MANIPULATIVE CHARACTERISTICS OF MALE AND FEMALE  
EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS

The University of Oklahoma

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THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA  
GRADUATE COLLEGE

MANIPULATION IN INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS: A COMPARATIVE  
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CHARACTERISTICS OF MALE AND FEMALE  
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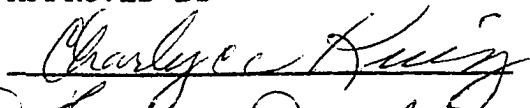
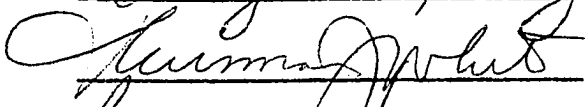
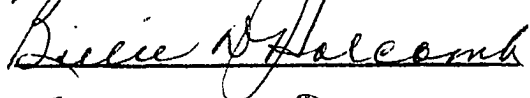
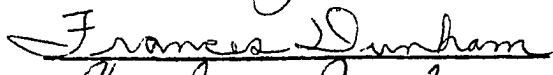
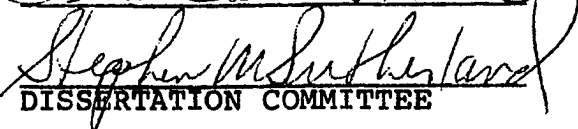
A DISSERTATION  
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degree of  
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BY  
RICHARD W. LITTLE  
Norman, Oklahoma

1980

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EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS

APPROVED BY

  
  
  
  
  
DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

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To my wife, Fran, whose understanding, knowledge, love, and continued willingness to sacrifice I shall always be indebted.

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MANIPULATION IN INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS: A COMPARATIVE  
INVESTIGATION OF THE MACHIAVELLIAN MANIPULATIVE  
CHARACTERISTICS OF MALE AND FEMALE  
EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background and Need for the Study

The focus in public school administration today is on the maximum utilization of human and physical resources to maximize student development while minimizing inefficiency in the delivery process. The public school principal is confronted with an expanding responsibility which ultimately results in direct accountability for the students and teachers. To achieve such ends contemporary principals have expanded their administrative skills to include management techniques which have traditionally been directed towards the private sector of the business world. However, as more emphasis is placed on improving the technical skills of an administrator, the human skills are also becoming apparently more important. In order to achieve maximum efficiency from teachers, the

principal must be aware of the behavioral factors related to individual growth and development.

The literature suggests that a behavioral skill which administrators, principals and managers are utilizing today is manipulation. By definition, behavior management requires manipulation by the principal. A conceptual application is suggested in the following explanation by Miller:

Behavior management is manipulative and seeks to impose control on employees, rather than encourage participation and democratic management. However, when viewed objectively one can say that behavior management does provide a basis for a more authoritarian form of management, if one chooses that application of the technology. On the other hand, it also provides the foundation for a more democratic participative, and positive form of management. The most important consideration is that the latter application produces better results for the organization and the employees and is, therefore, the more likely course.<sup>1</sup>

Most administrators and principals agree that they do manipulate to some degree. However, they may be reluctant to associate with the behavioral trait because of the social stigma attached to the concept. Wrapp addresses the principals' quandry when he states:

A manager cannot be expected to describe his methods even if he understands them. They border on manipulation, and the stigma association with manipulation can be fatal. If the organization ever identifies him as a manipulator, his job becomes more difficult. No one willingly submits to manipulation, and those

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<sup>1</sup>Lawrence M. Miller, Behavior Management (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1978), p. 364.

around him organize to protect themselves. And yet every good manager does have to manipulate.<sup>1</sup>

Members of any structured system or organization are confronted with varying aspects of manipulation. Traditionally, manipulative behavior has been perceived as undesirable and negative. However, social research now indicates that such behavior may not only be acceptable, but even a prerequisite for successful organizational growth and development. Do organizations reward such behavior? And, if so, how is this evidenced in contemporary society?

The evolutionary concept of manipulation as it relates to contemporary organizational behavior can be traced to the writings and philosophy of Niccolo Machiavelli (1469-1527), who was fascinated with the intrigues of power. His major ambition was to examine the lessons of history and resuscitate the classical principles of power politics, thus bringing them to the attention of Italian political leaders who could then use them to conquer and unify the then fragmented Italian body-politic.

Machiavelli began his pursuit by writing Discourses on the First Ten Books of Livy, a re-examination of the history of Roman politics. After a year's work, he perceived that the Discourses would be too long in their completion to have an immediate impact on Italian politics. Therefore, he

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<sup>1</sup>H. Edward Wrapp, "Good Managers Don't Make Policy Decisions," Harvard Business Review on Human Relations (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1979), p. 88.

wrote a small distillation of their contents in a book called The Prince. This work was a primer in the ruthless acquisition of power, and he dedicated it to Lorenzo de Medici, the Florentine leader whom he saw as most capable of carrying out the formula for the unification of all Italy contained in The Prince.

Machiavelli's advice on how to lead and manage others has generated controversy for over 400 years. Before Machiavelli, most philosophical and political thinkers saw the state as the vehicle for the achievement of some highly moral goal. For Plato, that goal was the search for Truth; for the Christian philosophers, Augustine and Aquinas, it was the preparation of the human soul for the Kingdom of God. But Machiavelli created a revolution in political writing by draining statecraft of ultimate goals; he has been called the first political realist.

Machiavelli separated power from morality, ethics, and theology: he reasoned that power was an end in itself. To Machiavelli, religion and morality--the central concerns of previous political thinkers--were instrumental concepts useful only to help maintain passivity in the masses so that they would be more easily controlled and manipulated. Machiavelli stated:

As men love of their own free will, but are inspired with fear, by the will of the prince, the prince, a wise prince, should always rely upon himself, and not upon the will of

others; but, above all, should he always strive to avoid being hated.<sup>1</sup>

For Machiavelli, in the pursuit of power and grandeur by political leaders, the most sordid and faithless crimes are justified. It is generally believed, for example, that Caesar Borgia, son of Pope Alexander VI, was Machiavelli's model in writing The Prince. Borgia killed his older brother and dispatched his sister's husband, as well as assassinating a number of non-family members. Machiavelli considered these intrigues to be elegant and masterful and thought Borgia, with whom he was personally acquainted, the wisest and bravest man in Italy.

Every prince ought to desire the reputation of being merciful and not cruel; at the same time, he should be careful not to misuse that mercy. Caesar Borgia was reputed cruel, yet by his cruelty he reunited the Romagna to his states, and restored that province to order, peace, and loyalty.<sup>2</sup>

Machiavelli was cynical and pessimistic about human nature, believing that man was motivated by his own self-interest only. He believed that in the relationship between the prince and his subject, the prince need not keep faith because his subjects would not support the prince should his leadership falter. He believed that in political relationships between the ruler and his subjects, the end justified the means; political actions are justified by their results,

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<sup>1</sup>Count Carlo Sforza, Machiavelli (New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1940), p. 88.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 85.

not their intrinsic merit. Hence, murders, assassinations, poisonings, and other acts of cruelty are justifiable if they lead to a consolidation of the prince's power and leadership. Machiavelli stated:

Whence it comes, as I have said, that two men by entirely different modes of action will achieve the same results; whilst of two others, proceeding precisely in the same way, the one will accomplish his end, and the other not. This also causes the difference of success; for if one man, acting with caution and patience, is also favored by time and circumstances, he will be successful; but if these change, then he will be ruined, unless, indeed, he changes his conduct accordingly. Nor is there any man so sagacious that he will always know how to conform to such changes of times and circumstances; for men do not readily deviate from the course to which their nature inclines them; and, moreover, if they have generally been prosperous by following one course, he cannot persuade themselves that it would be well to depart from it. Thus, the cautious man, when the moment comes for him to strike a bold blow, will not know how to do it, and thence he will fail; whilst if he could have changed his nature with the times and circumstances, his usual good fortune would not have abandoned him.<sup>1</sup>

Religion and morality, according to Machiavelli, are to be used as social cement and to be valued for the mass of people because of the docility they bring. The prince, however, while appearing to be religious, should not accept the feminine virtues advocated by Christianity but should be prepared to undertake brutal actions free from religious scruple.

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 105.



Machiavelli reasoned:

For instance, a prince should seem to be merciful, faithful, humane, religious, and upright, and should even be so in reality; but he should have his mind so trained that, when occasion requires it, he may know how to change to the opposite. And it must be understood that a prince, and especially one who has but recently acquired his state, cannot perform all those things which cause men to be esteemed as good; he being often obliged, for the sake of maintaining his state, to act contrary to humanity, charity, and religion, and, therefore, is it necessary that he should have a versatile mind, capable of changing readily, according as the winds and changes of fortune bid him; and, as has been said above, not to swerve from good if possible, but to<sup>1</sup> know how to resort to err if necessity demands it.

Machiavelli felt that the only kind of worthwhile education was compulsory military service. He was a great admirer of law and order. He felt that states went through a cycle of rise and decline, followed by regeneration because of new and courageous leadership. Indeed, he saw the role of the leader as central in history and felt that leadership determined the affairs of state. Much of his work consists of an analysis of the skillful exercise and retention of power. Machiavelli also believed that fortune determined about half the affairs of men but that leaders had a quality, which he called virtu, which enabled them to overcome the obstacles that fate placed in their way.

The use of Machiavelli's philosophy and teaching transcends the 15th century and is observable in contemporary

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 90-91.

interpersonal relationships. However, the behavior subscribed to today is a much more subtle, practiced, skilled approach to the maximization of interpersonal interactions. The behavior is best defined as manipulative and is viewed in all facets of organizational life. Manipulation is defined, however, by Machiavelli in The Prince when he states:

Therefore, it is unnecessary for a prince to have all the good qualities I have enumerated, but it is very necessary to appear to have them. And I shall dare to say this, also, that to have them and always to observe them is injurious, and that to appear to have them is useful; to appear merciful, faithful, humane, religious, upright, and to be so, but with a mind so framed that should you require not to be so, you may be able and know how to change to the opposite.<sup>1</sup>

Manipulation of interpersonal relations is a frequent occurrence in human behavior. The significance of the manipulation, however, is related to the individual's perception of the function as an acquired trait that can result in some degrees of predictability. Richard Christie and Florence L. Geis are two predominant leaders in the field of manipulation, using Machiavellian traits as the measures of the behavior. These studies have resulted in the characteristic terms "high Mach" and "low Mach", signifying those who adhere to manipulation principles and those who do not. High Machs are portrayed as influential, objective, somewhat pessimistic, emotionally detached and manipulators. Low Machs, however, are most easily influenced, subjective, optimistic, emotionally

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<sup>1</sup>W.K. Marriott, Machiavelli's Prince (New York: E.P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1929), p. 143.

involved and, subject to manipulation. In a short essay  
Christie

. . . cautions against the usual perjorative implications that surround the term "Machiavellian." None of the research evidence substantiates the view that high Machs are more hostile, vicious, or vindictive than low Machs. Rather, it appears that they have a "cool detachment," which makes them less emotionally involved with other people, with sensitive issues, or with saving face in embarrassing situations.<sup>1</sup>

He further states that

. . . generational differences in Mach scores indicate that Americans are becoming more manipulative and impersonal in the Machiavellian sense. No differences have been found by intelligence, social status, or even social mobility. It is hypothesized that high Machs are less likely to arise from traditional societies because they operate more effectively in unstructured situations.<sup>2</sup>

Certainly, the rationale for investigating manipulation is an important part of the total development of educators as principals and administrators. At times, manipulation may be perceived as negative, having negative connotations, and is viewed with doubt, uncertainty and even fear. If manipulation can be identified as a known behavioral characteristic, then it may also be viewed objectively in such a manner that its use be not only positive, but even perceived as a necessary functional characteristic of educational administrators.

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<sup>1</sup>Richard Christie, "Machiavellianism," Measures of Social Psychological Attitudes, John P. Robinson and Phillip R. Shaver, eds. (Ann Arbor: Univ. of Michigan Press, 1973), p. 592.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

### Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the manipulative behaviors of elementary school principals and to explore the sources of variability in those behaviors. This investigation attempted to collect data that would give a perspective on principal manipulative characteristics by gender in elementary schools. Two basic questions which this study attempted to answer were, "Do elementary principals differ in their use of Machiavellian manipulation?" and "Is there a difference by gender of elementary principals and their use of Machiavellian manipulation?"

An investigation of the use of Machiavellian manipulation by elementary principals may be useful to future principals in identifying the behavioral characteristic of manipulation as both useful and positive. Educators should find the results of the study helpful in examining the behavioral traits of male and female administrators, especially as they relate to potentially successful career paths. Also, the study could be helpful in educators' efforts to provide consistent and equitable approaches to the evaluation of administrator achievement.

### Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to examine the utilization of Machiavellian manipulation by elementary school principals and to analyze the sources of variability in the use

of the manipulation according to gender. More specifically, it was intended to:

1. Utilize instruments which would determine the practice of Machiavellian manipulation by individual elementary school principals.
2. Assess the use of Machiavellian manipulation by male and female elementary school principals.
3. Ascertain the selected variables of Machiavellian tactics, philosophy of human nature, and abstract morality as they are utilized by male and female elementary school principals.

#### Hypotheses to be Tested

HO<sub>1</sub> There is no difference between male and female elementary school principals in their subscription to the use of Machiavellian manipulation.

HO<sub>2</sub> There is no difference between male and female elementary school principals with regard to the use of Machiavellian tactics of manipulation.

HO<sub>3</sub> There is no difference between male and female elementary school principals with regard to Machiavellian manipulation as it relates to the philosophy of human nature.

HO<sub>4</sub> There is no difference between male and female elementary school principals with regard to Machiavellian manipulation as it relates to abstract morality.

Statistical Analysis

Richard Christie and Florence Geis developed two instruments designed to measure the use of Machiavellian manipulation. The items in the two instruments were expressed in descriptive units on a continuum in the Mach IV, and "forced choice" in the Mach V. The descriptive units in each instrument were assigned scoring numbers according to the use of Machiavellian adherence or reversal.

The statistical treatment of the study utilizes the nonparametric techniques of hypothesis testing because of their suitability to the data of the behavioral sciences. Siegel lists four advantages for the use of nonparametric statistics:

The tests are often called "distribution free," one of their primary merits being that they do not assume that the scores under analysis were drawn from a population distributed in a certain way, e.g., from a normally distributed population. Alternatively, many of these tests are identified as "ranking tests," and this title suggests their own principle merit: nonparametric techniques may be used with scores which are not exact in any numerical sense, but which in effect are simple ranks. A third advantage of these techniques, of course, is their computational simplicity. Many believe that researchers and students in the behavioral sciences need to spend more time and reflection in the careful formulation of their research problems and in collecting precise and relevant data. Perhaps they will turn more attention to these pursuits if they are relieved of the necessity of computing statistics which are complicated and time consuming. A final advantage of the nonparametric tests is their usefulness with small samples, a feature which should be helpful to the researcher collecting pilot study data and to the researcher whose samples must be small because of

their very nature (e.g., samples of persons with a rare form of mental illness, or samples of cultures).<sup>1</sup>

The statistical measurement used for the study is the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Two-Sample Test. It is a nonparametric test which Siegel defines as

. . . a test of whether two independent samples have been drawn from the same population (or from populations with the same distribution). The two-tailed test is sensitive to any kind of differences in the distributions from which the two samples were drawn--differences in location (central tendency), in dispersion, in skewness, etc.<sup>2</sup>

The two-sample test, one of the most powerful of the non-parametric tests, is concerned with the agreement between two cumulative distributions and with the agreement between two sets of simple values.

If the two samples are drawn from the same population distribution, such as elementary principals, then the cumulative distributions of both samples, gender, may be expected to be fairly close to each other, inasmuch as they both should show only random deviations from the elementary principal population distribution. If the two-sample cumulative distributions are "too far apart" at any point, this suggests that the samples come from different populations. Thus, a

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<sup>1</sup>Sidney Siegel, Nonparametric Statistics: For the Behavioral Sciences (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1956), p. vii.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 127.

large enough deviation between the two-sample cumulative distributions is evidence of rejecting  $H_0$ .

After coding the data and punching the information on IBM cards, statistical computations were performed on the IBM 370-158 Computer. The procedures used in programming the statistical analysis were those detailed and outlined in the statistical analysis programs for the Social Science, SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences).

The unit of analysis was the position of elementary school principal in the public schools of Oklahoma.

#### Delimitations

This study was limited to principals of elementary schools in the Lawton, metropolitan Oklahoma City and metropolitan Tulsa Public School Systems in the school year of 1979. It was believed that to investigate the Machiavellian manipulation practices of elementary principals, the schools' systems identified as "urban-metropolitan" would yield reliable data for the study. Generalizations drawn from the conclusions may or may not be made to the general population of elementary school principals in Oklahoma. Such generalizations may suggest the need for future research.

#### Definition of Terms

Elementary Principal. A principal of an elementary school.



Elementary Schools. A school division preceding the secondary school which enrolls pupils in grades K to 5 or K to 6.

Mach IV. A Likert type instrument designed to measure three dimensions of behavior as they relate to Machiavellian interpersonal manipulation. The three reflect the individual's use of tactics, view of human nature, and abstract morality in manipulation.

Mach V. A "forced choice" questionnaire which measures Machiavellian manipulation and allows for social desirability.

Machiavellian Manipulation. The orientation of interpersonal behavior which utilizes characteristics that are effective in controlling others. The concepts of Nicolo Machiavelli are the source of identifying the characteristics of the manipulation. The following subdivisions are included:

1. Machiavellian Tactics. Machiavellian concerns with the nature of an individual's interpersonal tactics of manipulation, e.g., "The best way to handle people is to tell them what they want to hear."
2. Machiavellian Views. Machiavellian manipulation concerning the views of human nature, e.g., "Most men forget more easily the death of their father than the loss of their property."

3. Machiavellian Abstract Morality. Machiavellian concerns with abstract or generalized morality, e.g., "People suffering from incurable diseases should have a choice of being put painlessly to death."

High Mach. Those individuals who adhere to Machiavellian manipulation principles. The characteristics of high Mach individuals are that they win more; they influence others more and are less frequently influenced; they are objective, pessimistic, emotionally distant, and they are creative in their use of manipulation.

Low Mach. Those individuals who do not wholly adhere to the principles of Machiavellian manipulation. They may be characterized as subjective, optimistic; they comply with requests from others, change their opinions more often, become emotionally involved in situations, circumstances and with people; also, they may be more susceptible to manipulation.

Specific Variable. A statistical study of a population as to male and female elementary school principals.

#### Population

The population of this study was composed of all elementary school principals in the public schools in Lawton, metropolitan Oklahoma City and Tulsa for the 1979-80 school year.

The sample was drawn from the total population of 219 utilizing accepted methods for selecting random samples as described by Van Dalen.<sup>1</sup> From the total population of 219 elementary school principals, a sample size of 60 was chosen according to procedures as outlined by Cella.<sup>2</sup> This technique gave a sample small enough to study in depth and large enough to be representative of the total population with a sampling error of not more than 10 percent and a 95 percent confidence interval.

The sample used in this study was designed to be a miniature of the population from which it was selected and designed to embody the characteristics of the total population defined in the problem.

#### Method of Study

An experimental design utilizing the standardized questionnaire method of research was used in this study. Standardized questionnaires are defined by Selltiz, Wrightsman and Cook as "questions presented with exactly the same wording, and in the same order, to all respondents."<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Deobold B. Van Dalen, Understanding Educational Research (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 1962), pp. 249-54.

<sup>2</sup>Francis R. Cella, Sampling Statistics in Business and Economics (Norman, Oklahoma: Bureau of Business Research, University of Oklahoma, 1950), pp. 160-164.

<sup>3</sup>Claire Selltiz, Lawrence S. Wrightsman and Stuart W. Cook, Research Methods in Social Relations (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1976), p. 309.

The questionnaire, also defined by Goode and Hatt, is "a device for securing answers to questions by using a form which the respondent fills in himself."<sup>1</sup> The questionnaire contained fixed-alternative questions, defined by Selltiz, Wrightsman and Cook as "ones in which the responses of the subject are limited to stated alternatives. These alternatives may provide for indicating various degrees of approval or agreement, or they may consist of a series of replies of which the respondents pick the one closest to their own position."<sup>2</sup>

#### Procedure

This study was developed through the following steps:

1. The literature was surveyed in the area of manipulation.
2. Two questionnaires, developed by Richard Christie and Florence Geis, were selected for measuring manipulation (see pages 18-30).
3. The questionnaires were validated through previous work done by Christie and Geis.
4. The questionnaires were distributed and mailed to all elementary school principals selected by the random sample.

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<sup>1</sup>William J. Goode and Paul K. Hatt, Methods in Special Research (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1952), p. 133.

<sup>2</sup>Selltiz, Wrightsman and Cook, p. 310.

5. The data from the questionnaires were statistically analyzed and interpreted.
6. Conclusions and recommendations of the use of Machiavellian manipulation by male and female elementary school principals in Lawton, Oklahoma City and Tulsa were made.

#### Development and Validation of the Instruments

The Likert Scale decision was to use 20 items on the assumption that these would give gross but sufficient discrimination in future samples without requiring an undue amount of time filling out scales by each respondent. Ten items were selected in which agreement was keyed to endorsement of Machiavellian statements and ten keyed in the opposite direction. This counterbalancing was designed to minimize the effects of indiscriminate agreement or disagreement with items.

This 20-item Likert format scale, Table I, was named "Mach IV." (A version used before the item analysis was completed had been identified as "Mach III.") The mean item-whole correlation of these items was .38. Breaking these down by content area, the mean item-whole correlation for the nine items classified as dealing with Tactics was .41, for the nine on Views of Human Nature .35 and for the two on Abstract Morality, .38. The mean part-whole correlation of those items worded in agreement with Machiavelli was .38; that of the reversal was .37.

TABLE 1<sup>1</sup>

Item-Whole Phi Coefficients for 20 Most Discriminating  
Mach Items Ordered in Terms of Mean Discriminability

<u>MACH</u>		Item	Hofstra	Iowa	N.C.	X
IV	Identify					
2	Tactics +	The best way to handle people is to tell them what they want to hear.	48	45	48	47
10	Tactics -	When you ask someone to do something for you, it is best to give the real reasons for wanting it rather than giving reasons which might carry more weight.	55	50	31	45
12	Tactics +	Anyone who completely trusts anyone else is asking for trouble.	41	38	48	42
18	Views +	It is hard to get ahead without cutting corners here and there.	38	43	46	42
6	Tactics -	Honesty is the best policy in all cases.	54	48	25	42

<sup>1</sup>Christie and Geis, op. cit., pp. 17-18.

TABLE 1 (continued)

<u>MACH</u>						
IV	Identify	Item	Hofstra	Iowa	N.C.	X
5	Views +	It is safest to assume that all people have a vicious streak and it will come out when they are given a chance.	33	43	47	41
1	Tactics +	Never tell anyone the real reason you did something unless it is useful to do so.	35	49	39	41
3	Tactics -	One should take action only when sure it is morally right.	38	43	43	41
15	Tactics +	It is wise to flatter important people.	41	37	43	40
9	Morality -	All in all, it is best to be humble and honest than important and dishonest.	48	29	38	38
17	Views -	Barnum was very wrong when he said there's a sucker born every minute.	43	30	39	37

TABLE 1 (continued)

<u>MACH</u>						
IV	Identify	Item	Hofstra	Iowa	N.C.	X
19	Morality +	People suffering from incurable diseases should have the choice of being put painlessly to death.	46	35	30	37
16	Tactics -	It is possible to be good in all respects.	43	34	32	37
4	Views -	Most people are basically good and kind.	28	39	38	35
7	Tactics -	There is no excuse for lying to someone else.	35	37	32	35
20	Views +	Most men forget more easily the death of their father than the loss of property.	34	28	39	35
11	Views -	Most people who get ahead in the world lead clean, moral lives.	34	34	30	33



TABLE 1 (continued)

<u>Mach</u>		Item	Hofstra	Iowa	N.C.	X
IV	Identify					
8	Views +	Generally speaking, men won't work hard unless they're forced to do so.	30	32	30	31
13	Views +	The biggest difference between most criminals and other people is that criminals are stupid enough to get caught.	27	34	31	31
14	Views -	Most men are brave.	32	35	31	29
			<u>M =</u> 39.2	37.7	37.0	37.9

Be this as it may, the first nine samples tested on Mach IV had a mean splithalf reliability of .79; the same respondents had a reliability of .68 on the revision of the F scale by Christie, Havel, and Seidenberg (1958), which also had 20 items and had been counterbalanced for response set.<sup>1</sup>

The scoring system of the Mach IV is converted so that a score of 100 equals the theoretical neutral point, i.e., agreement and disagreement with the items balances out. A score of 160 means strong agreement with every item worded in the pro-Machiavellian direction and strong disagreement with every item worded in the anti-Machiavellian direction. The reverse pattern yields a score of 40.

After the implementation of the Mach IV, Christie and Geis developed a more sophisticated instrument, the Mach V, (Table II) which provided for the bypassing of the effects of social desirability in an effort to obtain a less transparent measure of anxiety. The Mach V is a "forced-choice" format starting with the 20 items from the Mach IV and including other items which have a wide range of social desirability ratings.

An attempt was made to have the buffer as far removed in social desirability value from the matched items as possible, thereby creating a more significant reliability..

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<sup>1</sup>Christie and Geis, p. 16.

TABLE 2<sup>1</sup>

MACH V  
Mean Ratings of Social Desirability

Items			Mean Ratings <sup>a</sup>
1.	A.	It takes more imagination to be a successful criminal than a successful business man.	1.95
	B.	The phrase, "the road to hell is paved with good intentions" contains a lot of truth.	3.60
	C.	Most men forget more easily the death of their father than the loss of their property.	1.95 M
2.	A.	Men are more concerned with the car they drive than with the clothes their wives wear.	2.85
	B.	It is very important that imagination and creativity in children be cultivated.	3.70
	C.	People suffering from incurable diseases should have the choice of being put painlessly to death.	2.85 M
3.	A.	Never tell anyone the real reason you did something unless it is useful to do so.	2.4 M
	B.	The well-being of the individual is the goal that should be worked for before anything else.	3.7
	C.	Since most people don't know what they want, it is only reasonable for ambitious people to talk them into doing things.	2.35
4.	A.	People are getting so lazy and self-indulgent that it is bad for our country.	2.80
	B.	The best way to handle people is to tell them what they want to hear.	2.80 M
	C.	It would be a good thing if people were kinder to others less fortunate than themselves.	4.35

<sup>1</sup>Christie and Geis, pp. 22-25.

TABLE 2 (continued)

Items			Mean Ratings <sup>a</sup>
5.	A.	Most people are basically good and kind.	3.60 M
	B.	The best criteria for a wife or husband is compatibility--other characteristics are nice but not essential.	3.50
	C.	Only after a man has gotten what he wants from life should he concern himself with the injustices in the world.	2.15
6.	A.	Most people who get ahead in the world lead clean, moral lives.	2.90 M
	B.	Any man worth his salt shouldn't be blamed for putting his career above his family.	1.80
	C.	People would be better off if they were concerned less with how to do things and more with what to do.	2.95
7.	A.	A good teacher is one who points out unanswered questions rather than gives explicit answers.	3.85
	B.	When you ask someone to do something, it is best to give the real reasons for wanting it rather than giving reasons which might carry more weight.	3.90 M-
	C.	A person's job is the best single guide as to the sort of person he is.	2.30
8.	A.	The construction of such monumental works as the Egyptian pyramids was worth the enslavement of the workers who built them.	1.70
	B.	Once a way of handling problems has been worked out it is best to stick to it.	3.45
	C.	One should take action only when sure it is morally right.	3.45 M-

TABLE 2 (continued)

Items			Mean Ratings <sup>a</sup>
9.	A.	The world would be a much better place to live in if people would let the future take care of itself and concern themselves only with enjoying the present.	2.1
	B.	It is wise to flatter important people.	2.9 M
	C.	Once a decision has been made, it is best to keep changing it as new circumstances arise.	2.75
10.	A.	It is a good policy to act as if you are doing the things you do because you have no other choice.	2.15
	B.	The biggest difference between most criminals and other people is that criminals are stupid enough to get caught.	2.05 M
	C.	Even the most hardened and vicious criminal has a spark of decency somewhere within him.	3.8
11.	A.	All in all, it is better to be humble and honest than to be important and dishonest.	3.85 M
	B.	A man who is able and willing to work hard has a good chance of succeeding in whatever he wants to do.	4.00
	C.	If a thing does not help us in our daily lives, it isn't very important.	2.25
12.	A.	A person shouldn't be punished for breaking a law that he thinks is unreasonable.	2.15
	B.	Too many criminals are not punished for their crimes.	3.10
	C.	There is no excuse for lying to someone else.	3.15 M-

TABLE 2 (continued)

	Items	Mean Ratings <sup>a</sup>
13.	A. Generally speaking men won't work hard unless they are forced to do so.	2.50 M
	B. Every person is entitled to a second chance, even after he commits a serious mistake.	4.0
	C. People who can't make up their minds are not worth bothering about.	2.45
14.	A. A man's first responsibility is to his wife, not his mother.	4.05
	B. Most men are brave.	2.75 M-
	C. It's best to pick friends that are intellectually stimulating rather than ones it is comfortable to be around.	2.85
15.	A. There are very few people in the world worth concerning oneself about.	1.90
	B. It is hard to get ahead without cutting corners here and there.	3.05 M
	C. A capable person motivated for his own gain is more useful to society than a well-meaning but ineffective one.	3.10
16.	A. It is best to give others the impression that you can change your mind easily.	2.35
	B. It is a good working policy to keep on good terms with everyone.	3.70
	C. Honesty is the best policy in all cases.	3.65 M-

TABLE 2 (continued)

	Items	Mean Ratings <sup>a</sup>
17.	A. It is possible to be good in all respects.	2.55 M-
	B. To help oneself is good; to help others even better.	4.00
	C. War and threats of war are unchangeable facts of human life.	2.50
18.	A. Barnum was probably right when he said that there's at least one sucker born every minute.	3.55 M <sup>a, b</sup>
	B. Life is pretty dull unless one deliberately stirs up some excitement.	2.10
	C. Most people would be better off if they control their emotions.	3.40
19.	A. Sensitivity to the feelings of others is worth more than poise in social situations.	3.8
	B. The ideal society is one where everybody knows his place and accepts it.	2.25
	C. It is safest to assume that all people have a vicious streak and it will come out when they are given a chance.	2.20 M
20.	A. People who talk about abstract problems usually don't know what they are talking about.	2.80
	B. Anyone who completely trusts anyone else is asking for trouble.	2.75 M
	C. It is essential for the functioning of a democracy that everyone vote.	4.1

<sup>a</sup>M indicates Mach original; M - indicates a reversal.

Table II indicates the triads finally assembled and the rated social desirability of the items within them (the mean is for judgments of both rating groups.)

The mean social desirability score is slightly unfavorable for the items keyed in the Machiavellian direction (2.63) and slightly on the favorable side (3.26) for the reversals. The difference in rankings is significant at the .05 level by the Mann-Whitney U test. The overall social desirability mean of 2.94 does not differ significantly from the theoretical neutral point of 3.00.

In the original scoring of the Mach V scale, the comparison was between the Mach items and the matched items. The respondent was required to say which item was most like him. On item 1 in Table II-4, for example, a point was scored if C (Mach item) was most like and A (matched) was least like, if C was most like and A was omitted, or if B(buffer) was most like and A was least like (this gave C which was omitted a higher rank than B). This procedure was followed when the Mach item was worded in the Machiavellian direction. When a Mach reversal was in the triad, as in item 5, a point was scored if B(matched) was most like and A (Mach was either least like or omitted, or if B was omitted and A was least like. In practice it has been found that this intricate scoring system and the hidden nature of the forced choice makes it difficult for the average respondent to decide what the "right" answer is.



Summing over the 20 items gives a possible range of from 20 to 140, the same as the scoring system on Mach IV. Similarly, adding a constant of 20 gives a scale with a minimum score of 40 and a maximum of 160 with the theoretical neutral point at 100 as is true of the converted scoring system of Mach IV. This makes it possible to add the two total scores of a respondent and have both contribute approximately equally to the grand total.

### Organization of the Study

The problem of this study is presented in Chapter I. Chapter II is devoted to a review of pertinent literature related to the study. Chapter III is a detailed discussion of the construction of the instrument used and procedures followed in this study, Chapter IV is a report and analysis of the data secured from the questionnaires. Chapter V is composed of a summary of the findings, some conclusions researched from the study, and recommendations for the recognition and use of manipulation as a positive behavioral characteristic and administrative tool.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

One of the most fundamental aspects of any investigation is the examination of the literature and research related to the problem. An examination and analysis of the writing in the field provides not only the history of developments but also a broad panorama of the field of thinking regarding the subject. It also adds an additional perspective on the emerging role of the adult educational administrator, with emphasis on the historical development of management and administration and the subsequent pursuit of continuing education and lifelong learning.

#### Organizational Theories and Developments of Educational Administration in Adult Continuing Education

Knowledge of a science of organization and educational administration can never be a substitute for specific experience in a specific organization. In the study of educational administration one finds many controversies. There are opposed conceptions of administrative behavior and, accordingly, of the most fruitful ways of selecting and

preparing administrators. There are unsettled issues regarding the relations among theories of administration, research in administration and the practice of administration.

There are at least three possible positions regarding the study and practice of administration.<sup>1</sup> The first of these positions may be called the trait point of view. From this point of view, trying to study administration systematically and trying to produce educational administrators through formalized training is somewhat futile. The improvement of administration is not a problem of science or education but of breeding. Advocates of this "born ability" cite known cases of leaders in business or in the military who sometimes had hardly any education at all. On the other hand, there are few generals and admirals who have not been through West Point and Annapolis. Many of the largest and best managed organizations maintain expensive executive training programs. The natural-leadership-ability position usually generates more heat than light.

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 have 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 and change.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Jacob W. Getzels, James M. Lipham, and Ronald F. Campbell, Education Administration as a Social Process (New York: Harper & Row, 1968), p. 1.

<sup>2</sup>R.M. Stogdill, "Personal Factors Associated with Leadership, A Study of the Literature," Journal of Psychology 25 (1948): 64, quoted in Getzels, Lipham, Campbell, p. 3.

Studies have shown that the personal characteristics of leaders differ according to the situations. This is not to imply that successful administrators in given situations do not display personal characteristics that set them apart from unsuccessful administrators in the same situations.

The second point of view is that administration is best conceived of as technology, and that an educational administrator can solve the problem by applying appropriate techniques. If the practical problem is: How can the educational administrator gain the confidence of his teachers and subordinates? The solution may be found in rules. Hansford states that confidence of subordinates can be gained if the administrator:

1. Is helpful and anxious to share the other person's problems.
2. Has a sense of humor and is cheerful.
3. Is friendly and tries to put others at ease.
4. Shows interest in others.<sup>1</sup>

From this point of view, the improvement of educational administration depends on the discovery and communication of more effective techniques and prescriptions--the production of more expedient administrative itineraries.

The third position is that the focus of both scholarly and practical effort in educational administration must be not so much on techniques and prescriptions as on conceptualizations and theories. Placed against the technique-centered

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<sup>1</sup>Byron W. Hansford, Guidebook for School Principals, (New York: Ronald Press, 1961), p. 25, as quoted in Getzels, Lipham, Campbell, p. 4.

point of view, this concept-centered position seems far removed from reality and from the daily problems of the administrator. But one finds that theory has a number of vital functions in the study and practice of administration. A theory provides the framework for collecting data. Theory acts not only to describe but to explain and ultimately to predict. Theory is not an objective in itself. It is a tool providing guidance for practice and research. In effect, theory provides a check on what might otherwise be only hit or miss activities. It offers the educational administrator a basis for defining underlying problems; it suggests hypotheses for action, and it supplies a framework for constant, systematic self-criticism and improvement.<sup>1</sup>

Perhaps the earliest view of administration was intended to maximize the output of workers in an organization by applying the principles of scientific management. At the turn of the century, Frederick W. Taylor gave as his goal the rational analysis of administrative procedures for exploiting human and material resources in order to attain the objectives of an organization most expeditiously.

The type of management that Taylor advocated is described in his Principles of Scientific Management, and may be summarized in these steps:

1. Time-study principle. All productive effort should be measured by accurate time study and a standard time established for all work done in shop.

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<sup>1</sup>Getzels, Lipham, Campbell, p. 9.

2. Piece-rate principle. Wages should be proportional to output and their rates based on the standard determined by time study. As a corollary, a worker should be given the highest grade of work of which he is capable.
3. Separation-of-planning-from-performance principle. Management should take over from the workers the responsibility for planning the work and making the performance physically possible. Planning should be based on time studies and other data related to production, which are scientifically determined and systematically classified; it should be facilitated by standardization of tools, implements and methods.
4. Scientific-methods-of-work principle. Management should take over from the workers the responsibility for their methods of work, determine scientifically the best methods and train workers accordingly.
5. Managerial-control principle. Managers should be trained and taught to apply scientific principles of management and control (such as management by exception and comparison with valid standards).
6. Functional-management principle. The strict application of military principles should be reconsidered and the industrial organization should be so designed that it best serves the purpose of improving the coordination of activities among the various specialists.<sup>1</sup>

From a modern standpoint it seems that Taylor took a narrow view of administrative behavior and organizational relationships. In spite of the fact that he demonstrated that jobs could be done more effectively, he ignored the humanizing factors.

Another contributor to the systematic study of administration was the Frenchman, Henri Fayol. The outcome of his system was like that of Taylor's, a set of administrative principles. Fayol suggested:

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<sup>1</sup>Raymond Villers, Dynamic Management in Industry (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1960), p. 29, as quoted in Getzels, Lipham, Campbell, pp. 24-25.

The manager who has to command should--

1. Have a thorough knowledge of his personnel.
2. Eliminate the incompetent.
3. Be well versed in the agreements binding the business and its employees.
4. Set a good example.
5. Conduct periodic audits of the organization and use summarized charts to further this.
6. Bring together his chief assistants by means of conferences, at which unity of direction and focusing of efforts are provided for:
7. Not become engrossed in detail.
8. Aim at making unity, energy, initiative, and loyalty prevail among the personnel.<sup>1</sup>

The early textbooks of educational administration followed Taylor's theories. They stated that education would be well advised to do as industry in applying scientific procedures for setting the desired standards of school production. The task of the teacher was to produce the standard results by applying the standard methods and materials.

Reeder, in a widely used textbook, indicated that the superintendent must be good at getting the work out of people. He devoted chapters to selecting teachers, computing the school budget, dealing with the janitor, procuring supplies, measuring the pupil abilities and achievement, constructing curricula, and keeping school accounts.<sup>2</sup>

This tendency on the part of educators to focus on the organizational requirements and institutional elements of

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<sup>1</sup>Henri Fayol, General Industrial Management, p. 6, as quoted in Getzels, Lipham, Campbell, p. 27.

<sup>2</sup>Ward G. Reeder, The Fundamentals of Public School Administration (New York: Macmillan, 1931) as quoted in Getzels, Lipham, Campbell, p. 30.

educational administration and to neglect the interpersonal and human elements brought about a strong reaction from Mary Parker Follett. She contended that the central problem of any enterprise, be it local or national government, business organization or school system, is the building and maintaining of dynamic yet harmonious human relations. She is credited with being the first great exponent of the human relations point of view in administration. Belisle and Sargent summarized her contribution by pointing out that she attempted to "integrate views from industrial and scientific management, individual psychology, the psychology of work relation, political science and public administration," in an effort to "formulate a broad social philosophy of administration to fit the American climate of the first half of the twentieth century."<sup>1</sup> Up until this time factors like individual attitudes and group relations were ignored when trying to effect change in employee motivation and productivity. It had been assumed that the chief factors in this area were wages and physical working conditions. From 1923 to 1932, F.J. Roethlisberger, Elton Mayo and William J. Dickson performed the series of experiments at the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company.<sup>2</sup> These studies demonstrated the importance of employee

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<sup>1</sup>Eugene L. Belisle and Cyril G. Sargent, "The Concept of Administration," in Ronald F. Campbell and Russell T. Gregg, Administrative Behavior in Education, pp. 82-120, as quoted in Gale Jensen, A.A. Liveright, and Wilbur Hallenbeck, Adult Education Outlines of an Emerging Field of University Study, Adult Education Association of the U.S.A., 1964, p. 181.

<sup>2</sup>Getzels, Lipham and Campbell, p. 33.



attitudes and preoccupations. The experimenters stated their central findings as follows:

It became clear to the investigators that the limits of human collaboration are determined far more by the informal than the formal organization of the plant. Collaboration is now wholly a matter of logical organization. It presupposes social codes, conventions, traditions, and routine or customary ways of responding to situations. Without such basic codes or conventions, effective work relations are not possible.<sup>1</sup>

If generalized the experience would state the adequate personnel administration in any particular industrial plant should fulfill two conditions:

1. Management should acquire an explicit skill of diagnosing human relations, and
2. Management should run its human affairs in terms of what it continually learns about its own organization.

In contrast with Taylor's separation-of-planning-from-performance principle and his scientific-methods-of-work principle that management should take over from the workers the responsibility and train the workers accordingly, the human relations and group dynamics point of view concluded that it is better to let groups make their own choices than it is to try to control the lives of others. Wilbur Yauch presented the following general principles of human relations as they applied to educational administration:

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<sup>1</sup>F.J. Roethlisberger and William J. Dickson, Management and the Worker (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1939), as quoted in Getzels, Lipham, Campbell, p. 33.

1. Democracy is primarily concerned with human relations; therefore, a most important consideration is the principal's dealings with teachers individually and collectively.
2. Simple problems of human relations almost always have wider frames of reference.
3. The single-school faculty is the most natural and efficient unit of democratic action.
4. The principal is in the most advantageous position to offer leadership to the faculty in its attempts to provide itself with democratic experiences.
5. The faculty is a complex social group which requires expert handling to achieve its own best desires.
6. The primary responsibility of the principal is that of facilitation of the interactions of the faculty group so that they may result in maximum benefit to the teachers.
7. All individuals affected by any decision should have a share in determining its character and form.<sup>1</sup>

In 1938 Barnard, who had had years of experience in several types of organizations--business, educational, governmental, philanthropic--during which he observed closely the processes of other individuals and executive groups, wrote Functions of the Executive. In his book he correlated his practical knowledge with a thorough study of the theoretical aspects of human organization. He established a framework for study of the theory of administrative relations and placed the theory in the context of the social science of behavior advocated. Although Barnard dealt mainly with the structure and function of the formal organization, he pointed out that each formal organization contains informal organizations. He stated

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<sup>1</sup>Wilbur A. Yauch, Improving Human Relations in School Administration (New York: Harper & Row, 1949), p. 40, as quoted in Getzels, Lipham, Campbell, p. 39.

that how an organization works cannot be understood solely from its organizational chart, its charter, its rules and regulations, or even from watching its personnel. He argued that learning the ropes in an organization was achieved by learning its informal society. He states that the more important formal organizations are associations of cooperative efforts. He further states that coercion, a form of manipulation:

Is employed both to exclude and to secure the contribution of individuals to an organization. Exclusion is often intended to be exclusion permanently and nothing more. It is an aspect of competition or hostility between organizations or between organizations and individuals with which we shall not further be concerned except to note that exclusion of undesirables is a necessary method of maintaining organization efficiency. But forced exclusion is also employed as a means of persuasion by example, to create fear among those not directly affected, so that they will be disposed to render to an organization certain contributions. It presents realistically the alternative either of making these contributions or of foregoing the advantage of association.<sup>1</sup>

Barnard also discusses the theory of authority. Some principles which can be gleaned from this discussion are that a person can and will accept a communication as authoritative only when he understands the communication; he believes that the order is not inconsistent with the purpose of the organization; at the time of the order he believes it to be compatible with his personal interest as a whole; and he is able

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<sup>1</sup>Chester I. Barnard, The Functions of the Executive (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1968), p. 149.

mentally and physically to comply with it. Barnard points out that the determination of authority lies with the subordinate individual and that there is no principle of executive conduct better established in good organizations than that orders will not be issued that cannot or will not be obeyed. Since this lack of obedience destroys authority, discipline, and morale, it behooves every would-be administrator to carefully study the decision-making process.

When decision is involved there are consciously present two terms--the end to be accomplished and the means to be used. Herbert A. Simon ably addresses the decision-making process in his book, Administrative Behavior, first published in 1945.<sup>1</sup> It carried the subtitle, "A Study of Decision-Making Processes in Administrative Organization." This book incorporates "behavior," "decision making" and "organization." Simon felt that the accepted principles of administration were contradictory and that a different approach was needed--one that would establish a consistent and useful administrative theory. He felt that one could find such an approach if the emphasis was shifted from considering the principles of administration to a consideration of the conditions under which competing principles are applicable. He stated that administration is usually discussed as the art of "getting things done." Emphasis is placed upon processes

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<sup>1</sup>Herbert A. Simon, Administrative Behavior (New York: Macmillan, 1945).

and methods for insuring incisive action. In his discussion, however, he chooses to deal with the process of choice which leads to action. The central thesis of his study is that an understanding of the underlying conditions for the applicability of administrative principles is to be obtained from an analysis of the administrative process in terms of decisions.<sup>1</sup>

The means that the organization employs to influence the decisions of the individual members are outlined by

Simon:

1. The organization divides work among its members. By giving each a particular task to accomplish, it directs and limits his attention to that task. The personnel officer concerns himself with recruitment, training, classification, and other personnel operations. He need not give particular concern to the accounting, purchasing, planning, or operative functions, which are equally vital to the accomplishment of the organization's task, because he knows they have been provided for elsewhere in the organization structure.
2. The organization establishes standard practices. By deciding once and for all (or at least for a period of time) that a particular task shall be done in a particular way, it relieves the individual who actually performs the task of the necessity of determining each time how it shall be done.
3. The organization transmits decisions downward (and laterally or even upward) through its ranks by establishing systems of authority and influence. The most familiar form this takes is the hierarchy of formal authority; but of equal importance are the assignment to particular individuals of the formal function of advising, and the growth in any actual organization of an informal system of influence based partly upon formal status, and partly upon social relationships.

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 240.

4. The organization provides channels of communication running in all directions through which information for decision-making flows. Again, these channels are both formal and informal. The formal channels are partly based on, and partly separate from, the lines of formal authority, and the informal channels are closely related to the informal social organization.
5. The organization trains and indoctrinates its members. This might be called the "internalization" of influence, because it injects into the very nervous systems of the organization members the criteria of decision that the organization wishes to employ. The organization member acquires knowledge, skill, and identifications or loyalties that enable him to make decisions, by himself, as the organization would like him to decide.<sup>1</sup>

In the early fifties, Bakke, Argyris and some of their colleagues at Yale University also argued that there was need of theory in administrative behavior. But the framework that they propose is quite different from that of Simon, and there is hardly any mention of decision-making as a central concept. The assumption underlying the Bakke-Argyris framework is that there is a fundamental and inevitable incongruity between the needs of mature personality and the requirements of a formal organization. The mature personality tends to develop from the state of passivity as an infant to increasing activity as an adult. But formal organizations place the mature personality in an environment which permits him little control over his world. If this analysis is correct, the inevitable incongruity increases

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 102-103.

1. as the employees are of increasing maturity,
2. as the formal structure is made more clear-cut and logically tight for maximum formal organizational effectiveness,
3. as one goes down the line of command, and
4. as the jobs become more and more mechanized.

From this point of view, then, how are good administration and effective leadership achieved? They are achieved essentially through the "fusion process." As Argyris says:

. . . if the organization's goals are to be achieved, and knowing that both will always strive for self-actualization, it follows that effective leadership behavior is "fusing" the individual and the organization in such a way that both the organization, "using" the individuals it demands, will become more productive, called by Bakke the fusion process.<sup>1</sup>

Getzels and his associates in the Midwest Administration Center of the Cooperative Project in Educational Administration at the University of Chicago, saw the fusion process in terms of overlap in the perceptual role expectations of the subordinate and superordinate relationships in the hierarchy of the organization. In other words, the Midwest Center focused administrative study on role perceptions and expectations of subordinate personnel, in relation to role perceptions of superordinate personnel.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Cris Argyris, Personality and Organization, p. 211, as quoted in Getzels, Lipham, Campbell, p. 47.

<sup>2</sup>Jensen, Liveright, Hallenbeck, p. 183.

Both the institutional role in society and the perception of the individual are influenced by the social system and any given act of behavior flows from its impact. Administrative study would be concerned with identifying conflicts of role expectations, and, in so far as possible, learning to reduce the conflicts by a better understanding of the social forces impinging upon them. It is conceivable that when the administrative understanding of role conflicts become clarified, the processes for reducing tensions and fusing expectations (goals) would not be greatly different than those suggested by Argyris. But the Getzels concept provides a more refined method of identifying situations or conflict and tension in an organization.<sup>1</sup>

Another name which should be mentioned in a study of educational administration is that of Talcott Parsons. He attempted to construct a general theory of social action. There are those who believe that his is the pre-eminent social theory of our time. Others assert that not only is what he is saying trite, but it is also harmful to the future development of social science.<sup>2</sup>

Obviously greatly influenced by the previous specifications of both Barnard and Simon, Griffiths developed a theory of administration in which the decision-making process

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<sup>1</sup>Jensen, Liveright, Hallenbeck, p. 183.

<sup>2</sup>Getzels, Lipham, Campbell, p. 50.



is central. Griffiths makes clear that the principal administrative role in the decision-making process is "not that of making terminal decisions for the organization, but rather of making decisions on the decision-making process."<sup>1</sup>

Within the limits of his theories Griffiths then describes the essential six steps in the decision-making process:

1. Recognize, define, and limit the problem.
2. Analyze and evaluate the problem.
3. Establish criteria or standards by which solution will be evaluated or judged as acceptable and adequate to the need.
4. Collect the data.
5. Formulate and select the preferred solution or solutions.
6. Put into effect the preferred solution.
  - a. Program the solution.
  - b. Control the activities in the program.
  - c. Evaluate the results and the process.<sup>2</sup>

If one is to study the implications of all of the theories discussed above for adult continuing education, one will find a trend toward identification of educational administration as a generalized type of behavior. It is no longer necessary to focus the study of administration and organization of adult continuing education administrators of a myriad of institutions. On the contrary, the central focus of the study and research in administration and organization of adult continuing education becomes the study of a process common to all systems units: the decision-making process. Essert even

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<sup>1</sup>Daniel E. Griffiths, Administrative Theory, p. 241, as quoted by Jensen, Liveright, Hallenbeck, p. 189.

<sup>2</sup>Jensen, Liveright, Hallenbeck, p. 198.

carried the decision-making process one step farther by establishing criteria for the prediction of acceptance of decisions. "Administration theorists are fully aware that they are moving toward, rather than having arrived at, the theory of administration."<sup>1</sup> A part of the study of administration of adult education should be to follow the future developments in administrative theory and design new models for research.

The resulting administrative skills from the theoretical and scientific development of adult continuing education and administration are mandatory tools for the successful contemporary educational administrator. Many of the skills reflect a knowledge of the behaviors of individuals as well as cognitive administrative theory. Houle states:

The educators of adults who guide learners require two forms of expertise: the mastery of the "content" to be conveyed, content being interpreted in a broad way to include skill and effective learning as well as cognition; and the mastery of the instructional techniques required in the particular setting to achieve the desired objectives.<sup>2</sup>

One of the emerging adult administrative skills currently considered as a contributing behavioral characteristic is manipulation. In the past manipulation has been construed as negative and uncharacteristic of the educational administrator. However, contemporary thought suggests that

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<sup>1</sup>Jensen, Liveright, Hallenbeck, p. 199.

<sup>2</sup>Cyril O. Houle, "The Educators of Adults," Handbook of Adult Education (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1970), pp. 113-114.

manipulation and management are closely related, if not synonymous, and the adult educational administrator would benefit from an explanation of the functional use of the skill.

### Machiavellian Manipulation

In the research of manipulative behavior Christie became interested in the Machiavellian characteristics individuals must have in controlling others. He concluded that the four following factors were significant.

1. A relative lack of affect in interpersonal relationships. In general, it seemed that success in getting others to do what one wishes them to do would be enhanced by viewing them as objects to be manipulated rather than as individuals with whom one has empathy. The greater the emotional involvement with others, the greater is the likelihood of identifying with their point of view. Once empathy occurs, it becomes more difficult to use psychological leverage to influence others to do things they may not want to do.
2. A lack of concern with conventional morality. Conventional morality is difficult to define, but we were thinking here in terms of the findings that most people think lying, cheating, and other forms of deceit are, although common, reprehensible. Whether manipulators are amoral or immoral is a moot problem, and one which probably concerns them less than those who are manipulated. The premise here is that those who manipulate have an utilitarian rather than a moral view of their interactions with others.
3. A lack of gross psychopathology. The manipulator was hypothesized as taking an instrumentalist or rational view of others. Such a person would make errors in evaluating other individuals and the situation if his emotional needs seriously distorted his perceptions. Presumably, most neurotics and psychotics show deficiencies in reality testing, and, by and large, fail in crucial ways in relating to others. Note that we were not suggesting that manipulators are the epitome of mental health; we were proposing that

their contact with at least the most objective aspects of reality would have to be, almost by definition, within the normal range.

4. Low ideological commitment. The essence of successful manipulation is a focus upon getting things done rather than a focus upon long-range ideological goals. Although manipulators might be found in organizations of diverse ideologies, they should be more involved in tactics for achieving possible ends than in an inflexible striving for an ultimate idealistic goal.<sup>1</sup>

Christie and Florence Geis collaborated on many experiments involving Machiavellian principles. They found that:

High Machs process and exploit cognitions more effectively in situations in which lows become distracted precisely because the highs cognitions are unencumbered with emotional commitment.

High Machs keep their eye on the cognitive definitions. They do not become involved in going along with others, nor do they become involved with implicit assumptions about themselves, others, or interpersonal relations; rather they process information about the situation, including their own position vis-a-vis others. Thus, they concentrate on strategies for winning, and disregard individual differences between others unless given cues specifying discriminations which are strategic.

If it is true that given appropriate incentive, high Machs will exploit whatever resources the situations affords in pursuit of their goal. If the situation provides cooperative yielding, or distractible low Machs, the lows will be exploited.<sup>2</sup>

Manipulation can be observed within organizations, especially at managerial and executive levels. William Dyer observes that some of the consequences of the behavior

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<sup>1</sup>Richard Christie and Florence L. Geis, Studies in Machiavellianism (New York: Academic Press, 1970), pp. 3-4.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., pp. 306-307.

. . . is the pushing of resistance to the manipulative leader down to the covert, subtle level. Since there is the guise of participation and democracy, the person being manipulated feels guilty and off-balance if he confronts the leader. He knows that if he cites examples of manipulation the leader can cite examples of his apparent involvement of others. With resistance and negative reaction at an undercover level, it is difficult to deal with the negative effects of the leader. As opposed to the autocratic leader, who apparently has certain needs to dominate, the Machiavellian is an unabashed manipulator of superb expertise.<sup>1</sup>

In subsequent experimentation involving Machiavellian manipulation and risk-taking, Rim found that "subjects scoring high on the Mach scale tend to be the influencers in the group discussion, leading to a shift of the whole group in the risky direction."<sup>2</sup> Thus, high-Mach subjects tended to be high on risk-taking initially and showed scores both before and after the group discussions which were closer to the second group risk-taking men. This was also substantiated in a study of Edelstein which concluded

. . . high Mach "confessed" less than low Machs in a controlled game experiment consisting of a "stooge." The Mach differences that were significant were significantly stronger at the higher "risk" levels. On a questionnaire after the games high Mach men reported more suspicion (guessed their opponent had bluffed more often) than low Mach men.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>William G. Dyer, The Sensitive Manipulator (Provo, Utah: Brigham Young University Press, 1972), p. 109.

<sup>2</sup>Y. Rim, "Machiavellianism and Decisions Involving Risks, British Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 5, 1966, pp. 30-36.

<sup>3</sup>Rivcka Edelstein, "Risk-Taking, Age, Sex and Machiavellianism," Unpublished Manuscript, New York University, 1966.

Machiavellian manipulation has a significant impact on group process and the resulting pressures impacting behavior. Harris discovered that

. . . high Machs changed their judgments significantly less than low Machs when working with both high Mach and low Mach teammates. Low Machs modified their ratings significantly whether paired with either high or low Mach. Thus, high Machs were not influenced in the face-to-face interaction and held to their own ratings and low Machs shifted to agree more with their partner.<sup>1</sup>

Low Machs were also found in a subsequent study to significantly change their views in a "bandwagon situation"; high Machs did not.

Geis further substantiated Harris' findings with research involving group interaction. After organizing

. . . groups with specific tasks, she discovered that the 14 groups who made higher grades on their joint project than the members individually made on course exams were those groups in which the highest Mach leader was available, compared to 17 groups with lower Mach leaders which made lower project grades.<sup>2</sup>

Geis, Krupat and Berger also found that:

Low Machs changed their opinion on the issue from before to after discussion; highs did not change at all. High Machs were rated significantly higher than lows on all of the task performances by low Mach members separately as well as by other highs in the group, but were not preferred to the lows on

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<sup>1</sup>T.M. Harris, "Machiavellianism Judgment. Independence and Attitudes Toward Teammate in a Cooperative Judgment Task," Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Columbia University, 1966.

<sup>2</sup>Florence L. Geis, "Machiavellianism in a Semi-real World," Proceedings of the 76th Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, 3, 1968, pp. 407-408.

the sociometric ("... how much you think you would like him personally as a friend.") by either highs or lows.<sup>1</sup>

The consistent attitudinal performance by high Machs as compared to lows was investigated by J. Feiler. He found that

The dissonance prediction (attitude change in the direction of public, counter attitudinal advocacy) was supported for low Machs ( $p < .025$ ) but not for highs. The effect for lows occurred (as predicted) when the debater believed he had won ( $p < .005$ ), but not when he guessed he had lost. However, low Machs also changed their attitudes after consonant debates ( $p < .05$ ), endorsing the position they had held previously more strongly than before. High Machs showed no significant attitude change in any condition, and regardless of guessing whether they had won or "lost."<sup>2</sup>

Manipulation of behavior is one of the precepts of Machiavellianism resulting in a deceptive aura of the high Mach. Geis and Leventhal pursued "deception" and found that

Contrary to prediction, high Machs were not more successful deceivers. Their lies were detected by 56% of their judges and so were those of lows. The biggest difference between high and low Machs as witness was in credibility as truth tellers. Highs were believed 69% of the time, low 57% ( $t=1, 81 p < .05$ ).<sup>3</sup>

Correspondingly, Jones, Gergen and Davis studied the effects of approval and rejection as they related to Mach

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<sup>1</sup>Florence L. Geis, E. Krupat and D. Berger, "Taking Over in Group Discussion," Unpublished Manuscript, New York University, 1967.

<sup>2</sup>J. Feiler, "Machiavellianism, Dissonance and Attitude Change," Unpublished Manuscript, New York University, 1967.

<sup>3</sup>Florence L. Geis and Ellen Leventhal, "Attempting to Deceive and Detecting Deception," Unpublished Manuscript, New York University, 1966.

individuals. Their research revealed a

. . . significant interaction between Mach scores and changes in self-reports after initial negative feedback. High Mach subjects were relatively unaffected, lows changed significantly more in the direction of giving positive self-descriptions after having had a negative understanding of their personality.<sup>1</sup>

#### Manipulation--Power and Authority

The concept of Machiavellianism and its relationship to organizational, personal power is characteristic of the manipulative personality. However, the interesting nature of the manipulation manifests itself in several ways. Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard observe:

Machiavelli presents an interesting viewpoint when he raises the question whether it is better to have a relationship based upon love (personal power) or fear (positive power). Machiavelli contends that it is best to be both loved and feared. If, however, one cannot have both, he suggests that a relationship based on love alone tends to be volatile, short run, and easily terminated when there is no fear of retaliation. On the other hand, Machiavelli contends that a relationship based upon fear tends to be longer lasting in that the individual must be willing to incur the sanction (pay the price) before terminating the relationship. This is a difficult concept for many people to accept, and yet one of the most difficult roles for a leader, whether he be a boss, teacher, or parent, is disciplining someone about whom he cares. Yet to be effective one sometimes has to sacrifice short-term friendship for long-term respect if he is interested in the growth and development of the people with whom he is working. Machiavelli warns, however, that one should be careful that fear does not lead to hatred. For

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<sup>1</sup>E.E. Jones, K.L. Gergen and K.E. Davis, "Some Determinants of Reactions to Being Approved or Disapproved as a Person," Psychological Monographs, 76 (No. 2, Whole No. 521), 1962.



hatred often evokes overt behavior in terms of retaliation, undermining, and attempts to overthrow.<sup>1</sup>

Hersey and Blanchard, advocates of situational management and administration, encourage each administrator to be flexible enough to adapt to the organizational environment. Cartwright and Zander support the situational application but also suggest that through ecological control, methods of influence and manipulation are more successful. Ecological control is defined as an application of the authority of the situation or situational requirements.

The methods of influence considered thus far involve some direct interaction between O and R. In one way or another O acts directly on R in order to bring about a desired change in R, whether by administering rewards and punishments, by persuasion, or by exploiting R's readiness to be influenced by O. But there is another, more indirect method of influence. This method relies on the fact that the beliefs, attitudes, values, and behavior of a person are determined in large measure by his immediate social and physical environment. It is not possible, then, for a person O who wants to bring about a particular change in R to do so by taking actions on R but upon his environment. If O has the ability to control critical aspects of R's environment, we say that O has "ecological control" over R. When O attempts to influence R by means of ecological control, he takes some action which he believes will modify R's social or physical environment in such a way that the new environment will bring about the desired change in R. Since this method of influence can be used without the knowledge or consent of those affected, it is sometimes labeled as "manipulation."<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior (New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1972), pp. 92-93.

<sup>2</sup>Cartwright, D.P., and Zander, A.F. (Eds.), Group Dynamics: Research and Theory (3rd ed.) (New York: Harper & Row, 1968), p. 387.

Power and authority are often behavioral characteristics which are perceived as an end to the means, but not necessarily of social acceptance. The manipulation of such characteristics is viewed in the professional world of the administrator. Kotter states:

Americans, as a role, are not very comfortable with power or with its dynamics. We often distrust and question the motives of people who we think actively seek power. We have a certain fear of being manipulated. Even those people who think the dynamics of power are inevitable and needed often feel somewhat guilty when they themselves mobilize and use power. Simply put, the overall attitude and feeling toward power, which can easily be traced to the nation's very birth, is negative.<sup>1</sup>

Manipulation is also a characteristic of leadership behavior. Management is often synonymously perceived as the manipulation of people, the climate and the environment. Effective leaders have been known to utilize the behaviors resulting from the manipulation of management and leadership skills. Lindgren states:

The manipulator is the person who creates, accumulates, possesses, uses, and dispenses power by virtue of his ability to analyze persons and situations and to play one individual off against another to good advantage. Very likely he is a person who enjoys power for its own sake; that is, he enjoys controlling persons and situations by exploiting them through their weaknesses. Sometimes he is the politician who gains and exercises his power through election or appointment. Many manipulators are self-seeking individuals, but

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<sup>1</sup>John P. Kotter, "Power, Dependence, and Effective Management," Harvard Business Review on Human Relations (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1979), p. 359.

others appear to be motivated by a genuine desire to improve the welfare of others or of society in general. Their chief characteristic is that they are "lone wolves." Even when they enlist the cooperation and collaboration of others, they are playing their own game and are unhappy unless they are able to exercise or control the power elements inherent in the situation.

The manipulator exercises his power not because he has strength and prestige (like the parental figure or because he is "better", like the aristocrat), but because he knows more than the other members of the organization; more even than the person or persons who bear the titles of leadership. However, he has to work through these people because they have the prestige and legitimacy that he lacks.

In modern times, the manipulative leader is represented by the self-seeking operator in business, industry, or politics; the person who takes advantage of every angle, every loophole in the law, whose purpose is to build up as much power, economic or political, as possible. At the other extreme of the scale, the manipulative leader is represented by the public-spirited persons who are too individualistic to be really democratic and egalitarian, but yet who are lacking in being a leader of the parental type.

In the developmental sequence, the manipulative leader represents an advance over the parental type of leader, at least to the extent that he makes an attempt to understand some of the problems of human motivation. The leader who has no manipulative skill attempts to direct and control his subordinates first through the use of his prestige and then, if that fails, through the use of his power. Another way to say this is that he tries to operate by getting his followers to like him. If that fails, he frightens them into obedience. The manipulator can also be charming or frightening, although he usually avoids extremes of emotional expression (high Mach). But he has more tools in his kit than charm and threat, for he possesses understanding and superior knowledge.

To a large degree, it is the greater understanding and knowledge of the manipulator that makes him so heartily disliked. We are afraid that he knows more about us than is safe or wise for him to know. We feel that we know where we stand with the parental type of leader; after all, he is open and aboveboard. But not so with the manipulative leader. He is the sly and tricky one. For this reason manipulative

leaders do not like to show themselves in the open (high-Mach), or, if they operate in the open, they try to avoid being identified as leaders of the manipulative type (high Mach).

Manipulative leaders, when they are genuinely interested in public welfare, are very useful people, and much of the important work of the world would go undone if they were eliminated from public life, because they prefer to work by themselves and dislike them under careful observation. Otherwise they may involve an entire group or organization in commitments that are beyond the scope of the group or are contrary to its purpose and intent. There is, of course, always the danger of losing control of a group, or a program to a manipulative leader who is completely self-centered and who is interested only in exploitation.<sup>1</sup>

In his Greening of America Charles Reich reflects the views of many when he writes, "It is not the misuse of power that is evil; the very existence of power is evil."<sup>2</sup> Also, in the words of Heinrich von Treitschke, the German philosopher of might:

Your neighbor, even though he may look upon you as his natural ally against another power which is feared by you both, is always ready, at the first opportunity, as soon as it can be done with safety, to better himself at your expense . . . Whoever fails to increase his power, must decrease it, if others increase theirs.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Henry Clay Lindgren, Effective Leadership in Human Relations (New York: Hermitage House, 1954), pp. 122-125.

<sup>2</sup>Charles A. Reich, The Greening of America: How the Youth Revolution is Trying to Make America Liveable (New York: Random House, 1970).

<sup>3</sup>Frédéric Meinecke, Machiavellianism: The Doctrine of Raison D'Etat and Its Place in Modern History (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1957), p. 406.

The manipulation of power is not wholly viewed as negative. Many times it becomes an essential prerequisite that successful administrators have the ability to manipulate not only the climate, but also the sources of information which help establish the nature of the climate.

R.G.H. Siu states:

The manipulation of information to the constituency is also an essential measure for durability in power. When the future is predictably and routinely secure and prosperous, people tend to be less willing to surrender power to their leaders, especially in a democratic institution. A certain degree of uncertainty must be sustained through a carefully adjusted flow of information about a future that may in fact be more promising. Sustained power is nurtured through doses of anxiety.<sup>1</sup>

#### Manipulation and Interpersonal Relationships

Another facet of manipulative behavior is the resulting relationship spawned by the initial contact with the manipulative personality. Such relationships are often subtly fostered and directed by the manipulator, depending often on the perceived end-product of the association. Argyris has observed the visible interaction in consultant-client relationships.

When interventionists, at the first meeting, withheld important information about their feelings toward members of the client system, they also agreed to a top management suggestion incongruent with the accepted value that members of the client

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<sup>1</sup>R.G.H. Siu, The Craft of Power (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1979), p. 128.

system should make their own choices about their program. This initial step helped (1) to develop a norm in the client-interventionist relationship of not owning up to feelings (which was an already existing norm in the client system and a cause of many problems); (2) to develop an expectation that the interventionists could be manipulated and would give weak feedback sessions; and (3) to provide living evidence for the subordinates that, under stress, the top management is able to manipulate the interventionists toward their preferences. Once these forces become operative, the interventionists found themselves compromising and succumbing increasingly to the wishes of the plant manager. In the eyes of the subordinates within the client system, this only reinforced the feeling that the interventionists could not be trusted. In the end, the interventionists found themselves planning a program that was in keeping with the top manager's wishes, a program to which the subordinates were not internally committed and one which was creating an increasingly distant relationship with the top manager. Once the top manager manipulated them into designing and executing the program he wanted, he became unavailable because he no longer needed the interventionists.<sup>1</sup>

It is important in successful manipulation that the individual utilizing the behavioral trait not be observably visible or revealing. Too often such behavior has the reverse effect rather than that intended. Argyris states that

We may hypothesize that a client will decrease his confidence in the interventionist if he feels he can manipulate him toward accepting his own values and goals. A client will probably not respect an interventionist who, in the face of stress, takes on the values and norms of the client culture.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Chris Argyris, Intervention Theory and Method: A Behavioral Science View (Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc., 1970), pp. 188-189.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 194.

The manipulation of interpersonal relationships is related to man's conflict between self-support and environmental support. Shostrom suggests:

Not trusting himself for self-support, man believes his salvation lies in trusting others, yet, not trusting the other person completely, modern man manipulates the other in an effort to support himself in the process. It is as if he rides the coat-tail of the other person and then attempts to steer him at the same time; or, to use a more modern analogy, he is the backseat driver refusing to drive, yet driving the driver! The word that describes this cause of manipulation is "distrust." We cannot really trust the natural organismic balance each of us has, which would allow us to live our lives simply and feelingly.<sup>1</sup>

Interpersonally there are two types of manipulators, those that are active and those that are passive. Both are participants in the dynamics of interpersonal relations, and it is important to recognize the differences between the two. According to Bugental, the passive manipulator says

"Since I can't control everything that will determine what happens to me, I have no control at all." Experiencing the unpredictability of his life, the individual gives up and enacts this feeling of having no possibility of affecting what happens to him. He makes himself totally an object.<sup>2</sup>

The active manipulator, on the other hand,

. . . victimizes other people, capitalizing on their powerlessness, and apparently gaining gratification by exercising gratuitous control over them. Parents who are oppressed by the dread of

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<sup>1</sup>Everett L. Shostrom, Man the Manipulator (Nashville, Tenn: Abingdon Press, 1972), p. 15.

<sup>2</sup>J.F.T. Bugental, The Search for Authenticity (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965), p. 298.

powerlessness often need to make their children excessively dependent upon them and to defeat the child's efforts to gain independence.<sup>1</sup>

The active manipulator thus attempts to control others by active methods. He avoids facing his own weakness by assuming the role of the powerful one in the relationship. He may usually do this with some institutional affiliation or rank. He may use such techniques as creating obligations and expectations or pulling rank on others.

However, the passive manipulator is the reverse of the active. He often decides that since he cannot control life, he will give up and allow the active manipulator to control him. He may feign helplessness and stupidity and play the role of the "underdog."

Interpersonally, a manipulator's style of interaction involved several characteristics. Among these are deception, unawareness, control and cynicism. The application and use of the style dictates largely the success of the manipulative behavior in relationships. Shostrom defines the interpersonal characteristics as

1. Deception. The manipulator uses tricks, techniques, and maneuvers. He puts on an act, plays roles to create an impression. His expressed feelings are deliberately chosen to fit the occasion.
2. Unawareness. The manipulator is unaware of the really important concerns of living. He has "Tunnel Vision." He sees only what he wishes to see and hears only what he wishes to hear.

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<sup>1</sup> Ibid., p. 299.



3. Control. The manipulator plays life like a game of chess. He appears relaxed, yet is very controlled and controlling, concealing his motives from his "opponent."
4. Cynicism. The manipulator is basically distrusting of himself and others. Down deep he doesn't trust human nature. He sees relationships with humans as having two alternatives: to control or be controlled.<sup>1</sup>

Although Shostrom perceives many negative characteristics in the manipulative personality, the elements of control and deception may be used with positive results. Those individuals with power and authority, such as elementary principals, need to express varying degrees of control without appearing autocratic and demanding. Also, they are involved in many situations where the use of deception to create impressions may result in the success of the individual principal. How they reveal such deception is the manipulative key.

Meinecke summarized Machiavelli's interpersonal manipulation and relationships stating:

Keep your head clear, he advised, so that you only wish for what is attainable; do not become presumptuous after victory, but, if you have a strong opponent, take care to make peace at an opportune moment. Nor should you exasperate an enemy with threats or insult him in words; threats make him more cautious, while insults will increase his hatred. To draw hatred on oneself without getting any benefit from it is indiscreet and unwise.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Shostrom, pp. 23-24.

<sup>2</sup> Meinecke, p. 42.

### Manipulation and Women

The concept of manipulation discussed thus far has been that of definition and resulting relationships. It is a known behavioral characteristic used by individuals personally and professionally. However, when viewed professionally, does one gender utilize it more than another; and, if so, is this by chance or design? Although this is the crux of the study, (Chapter IV), several factors may influence manipulation as it is perceived by males and females.

Women are significantly more visible in the contemporary work force. However, visibility at the administrative and managerial level is still in the infant stage. Daddio states:

We see that women traditionally have played an essential role in the operation of business and industry. Through womanpower letters are typed, mailed, opened, answered, and filed; clients are met; phones are answered; books are kept; appointments are noted; and, of course, coffee is brewed. Women are indeed essential to everything in the operation--everything but the decision-making process. Witness that 98% of all top-level executive positions in this country are held by men. Witness that women managers earn 54% of what their male counterparts earn. Witness that women need a college degree to earn just a little more than men with an eighth-grade education.<sup>1</sup>

Spain, observing women in Government, breaks down General Schedule (GS) as follows:

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<sup>1</sup>Saundra Daddio, "The Obstacle to Women in Management," Affirmative Action for Women, Dorothy Jongeward and Dru Scott, (Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1975), p. 156.

Nearly half of all employees in the lowest third, grades 1 to 6 (\$5,294 to \$9,473) are women, with by far the largest number in grades 4 and 5 (\$7,596 to \$8,500).

One-fifth of the employees in the middle third, grades 7 to 12 (\$10,520 to \$18,463), are women.

Women hold only one-twenty-fifth--4%--of the positions in grades 13 to 18 (\$21,816 to \$36,000).

Thus it is that although equal pay for equal work is a fact (the job, not the person in it, is graded), there are far more women in the lower paid jobs. The pay for women in government averages no more than 60% of that for men.<sup>1</sup>

The role of women as managers and administrators is gradually emerging as an acceptable professional career. However slow the process, women have to face the reality that traditional male values are time-worn and concrete. Stewart advises career managers to follow five steps:

1. Accelerate the pace at which the woman manager masters the skills that earn earlier recognition and advancement.
2. Work constructively and productively in a peer relationship with all managers.
3. See assertiveness as an asset in getting things done, not the intimidating trait of the stereotyped female supervisor.
4. Concentrate on the vital managerial skills that can "make" the woman manager.
5. Stress her incumbency as a line manager rather than a staff specialist wherever possible, since this is where she has been most deprived of opportunity in a male business culture.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Jayne B. Spain, "Women in Government and Affirmative Action," Affirmative Action for Women, Dorothy Jongeward and Dru Scott, (Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1975), p. 75.

<sup>2</sup>Nathaniel Stewart, The Effective Woman Manager, (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1978), p. x.

In order to compete professionally, women may have to use manipulation as a functional part of their administrative/managerial behavior. Harragan says:

The major tricks and plots needed to play the game successfully are designed to (1) manipulate your immediate boss to your advantage, or (2) get out from under the thumb of a particular immediate supervisor. Your immediate boss' power over you derives from the rank of the position, not the person.<sup>1</sup>

The controlling of the manipulation is extremely important to the individual. In dealing interpersonally with others, women managers need to establish degrees of trust and freedom. Becker, Bledsoe and Mok state:

Consciously or unconsciously, all of us are constantly giving some of this freedom away, depending on how aware we are of the demands and pressures on us. One way to avoid giving away your personal freedom is to build the trust level in a relationship. When the trust level is low we tend to be defensive, to adopt manipulative behaviors, to withhold true feelings and valuable information about ourselves. And our partners do likewise. In doing so, you surrender much of your freedom and often let the other person control your thoughts, actions and options, in a sense.

But where the level of trust is high, defensiveness is reduced, the flow of information is increased, and manipulative behavior disappears.<sup>2</sup>

The public schools have been traditionally perceived as a professional domain where women can grow and develop. Bird suggests that

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<sup>1</sup>Betty Lehan Harragan, Games Mother Never Taught You--Corporate Gamesmanship for Women (New York: Rawson Associates Publishers, Inc., 1977), p. 34.

<sup>2</sup>Paula Becker, Larry Bledsoe and Paul Mok, The Strategic Woman (Dallas, Texas: London Enterprises, 1977), p. 68.

There's a growing awareness that highly trained professionals and specialists should be paid for what they contribute themselves, rather than on the basis of their responsibility for other people's work. In some school systems a master teacher may make as much money as the school principal. An exceptionally qualified professional, whose skills are in great demand, can bargain for more money.<sup>1</sup>

However, Clement reveals that women's equality in public education may be misleading. In fact, the decision-making roles do not reflect the female job equality.

Of the full-time professional staff in the Office of Education, as of October 30, 1972, no women were among the four persons holding Grade 18 positions: of the thirteen Grade 17 slots, two were held by women; of the twenty-five Grade 16 slots, one was held by a woman; of the 276 Grade 15 positions, 23 were held by women; and of the 474 Grade 14 employees, 87 were women. The average grade for women in OE is GS7; the average grade for men is GS 14.<sup>2</sup>

The positions of authority within the Office of Education are thus male dominated, thereby prompting Clement to state that "decision-making at the state and federal level is a male activity."<sup>3</sup>

Traditionally, the public schools, especially the elementary schools, were primarily staffed by women. However, this has changed quite radically in the last twenty years.

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<sup>1</sup>Caroline Bird, Everything a Woman Needs to Know to Get Paid What She's Worth (New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1974), p. 104.

<sup>2</sup>Jacqueline Parker Clement, Sex Bias in School Leadership (Evanston, Illinois: Integrated Education Associates, 1975), p. 5.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 5.

In a report presented by the Leadership Training Institute in 1974 it was stated:

Although women staff public school systems in the United States, men run them. Women are a majority of the public elementary and secondary school teachers, yet they hold only an insignificant percentage of such key administrative posts as those of superintendent, central office administrator, principal and assistant principal. Men are predominant at all administrative levels and thus enjoy significantly greater power, status and monetary return. Men hold almost 99% of the superintendents' posts and even at the elementary school level, where women are in the overwhelming majority as teachers, 80% of the principals are men.<sup>1</sup>

Clement also observes:

It seems quite likely that the extent of male dominance of administrative positions was something few people were aware of or concerned about. After all, one usually thinks of elementary and secondary education as being a profession dominated by women. Attention has been focused in recent years on attracting more men into the profession. And the steady influx of men into the teaching ranks, particularly at the elementary school level, has been happily noted. The increase of men teachers in the elementary school from 1957-1958 to 1967-1968 was from 12.8 to 14.6 percent and the increase at the secondary level from 50.5 percent to 52.9 percent. The increase in male teaching staff has been accompanied by a decline in female secondary staff as well as administrators. The proportion of women secondary school teachers declined from about 68 percent of the total in the 1920's to 46 percent in 1966. Women principals decreased about 16 percent during the decade between 1958 and 1968. In 1970-1971 of the total instructional staff, teachers, principals, and other full-time professionals, 35 percent of the estimated 2,236,906 persons were men, and 65

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<sup>1</sup> Eunice A. Clarke and Irving Rosenstein, "Women in Administrative Positions in Public Education," The Recruitment Leadership and Training Institute, July 1974, p. 2.

percent were women. When one looks only at the 2,034,581 classroom teachers, 67.2 percent of this group were women, and 32.8 percent were men. Women are clearly preponderant in the professional ranks from which school administrators are recruited. How can one then account for their relatively lack<sup>1</sup> of occupational mobility to decision making roles.

One can find no explanation for the very small number of women in high level administrative positions by looking at advanced training in terms of degrees held, number of years in the profession, and total number of women in the pool from which administrators are selected. Table 3, taken from the National Education Association, Research Division, statistically estimates the number of male and female professionals in the public schools and their respective positions. The variance in administrative positions by gender is definitive.

To survive many women administrators have to assume roles which capitalize on their strengths, but do not threaten their male counterparts. Thus, manipulation plays an important role in the behavioral administrative personality of the woman principal. Clement concludes that

The socialization process for most women does not prepare them to challenge men for such positions. Competitiveness and ambition are not highly valued as "womanly" attributes. In short, the same characteristics which result in low female achievement in other occupations seem to apply equally to education--this most feminine of professions.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Clement, p. 11.

<sup>2</sup>Clement, p. 11.

TABLE 3<sup>1</sup>

Estimated Number and Percent Distribuion of Full-Time<sup>2</sup>  
Public-School Professional Employees, 1970-71, by Sex<sup>2</sup>  
(Instructional Staff and Central Office)

Position 1	Number of persons			Percent distribution		
	Total 2	Men 3	Women 4	Total 5	Men 6	Women 7
<b>INSTRUCTIONAL STAFF:</b>						
Teachers.....	2,034,581	667,751	1,366,830	100.0%	32.8%	67.2%
<b>Principals:</b>						
Elementary.....	40,453	32,605	7,848	100.0	80.6	19.4
Elementary-teaching principals.....	7,261	5,068	2,193	100.0	69.8	30.2
Junior-high.....	8,782	8,472	310	100.0	96.5	35.3
Senior-high.....	13,763	13,349	414	100.0	97.0	3.0
Total principals.	70,259	59,494	10,765	100.0	84.7	15.3
<b>Assistant Principals:</b>						
Elementary.....	5,119	3,388	1,731	100.0	66.2	33.8
Junior-high.....	6,777	6,022	755	100.0	88.9	11.1
Senior-high.....	11,403	10,383	1,020	100.0	91.1	8.9
Total assistant principals.....	23,299	19,793	3,506	100.0	85.0	15.0
<b>Other Instructional Staff:</b>						
Heads of departments.	12,478	8,639	3,839	100.0	69.2	30.8
School librarians.	30,757	2,658	28,099	100.0	8.6	91.4
Counselors.....	39,348	20,897	18,451	100.0	53.1	46.9
Social workers and/or visiting teachers.	6,002	1,051	4,951	100.0	17.5	82.5
Psychologists and psychometrists...	3,980	1,827	2,153	100.0	45.9	54.1
School nurses.....	15,639	126	15,513	100.0	0.8	99.2
Others or not stated.	563	235	328	100.0	41.7	58.3
Total other instructional staff....	18,767	35,433	73,334	100.0	32.6	67.4
Total instructional staff...	2,236,906	782,471	1,454,435	100.0	35.0	65.0

<sup>1</sup>Clement, p. 37.



TABLE 3 (continued)

Position 1	Number of persons			Percent distribution		
	Total 2	Men 3	Women 4	Total 5	Men 6	Women 7
<b>CENTRAL OFFICE ADMINISTRATORS:</b>						
Superintendents.....	14,379	14,289	90	100.0	99.4	0.6
Deputy and associate superintendents.....	731	676	55	100.0	92.5	7.5
Assistant superintendents	4,402	4,276	126	100.0	97.1	2.9
Administrative assistants to the superintendent..	2,345	1,989	356	100.0	84.8	15.2
Administrators for:						
General administration.	10,414	5,398	5,016	100.0	51.8	48.2
Finance and school plant.....	6,980	6,390	590	100.0	91.5	8.5
Pupil personnel services.....	7,510	4,636	2,874	100.0	61.7	38.3
Instructional administration.....	10,881	5,846	5,035	100.0	53.7	46.3
Special subject areas.....	7,664	4,891	2,773	100.0	63.8	36.2
Total central-office administrators.....	65,306	48,391	16,915	100.0	74.1	25.9
<b>TOTAL FULL-TIME- EMPLOYEES</b>	<b>2,302,212</b>	<b>830,862</b>	<b>1,471,350</b>	<b>100.0%</b>	<b>36.1%</b>	<b>63.9%</b>

<sup>2</sup>National Education Association, Research Division, Research Report 1971-R5.

Women are as capable as men in administrative positions, given the same degrees of education and experience, Norman discovered in North Carolina:

A composite of women leaders in a state-wide study in North Carolina pictured women leaders as highly intelligent, confident, self-assured, sufficient, resourceful, temperamentally independent, uninhibited, able to face wear and tear without fatigue, socially precise, with a strong self-image, imaginative, self-motivated, creative, shrewd, calculating, and with an intellectual approach to all situations. The researcher also summarized that those women were high in ability to initiate structure in an organization, and were considerate, taking into account regard for well-being, status and contributions of followers, scope of initiative, decision and action. They could tolerate uncertainty and postponement and could reconcile demands and maintain cordial relations with supervisors.<sup>1</sup>

Women have administrative skills and competencies comparable to men, yet do not hold equivalent position status within the educational administrative field. Therefore, in order to compete they may be expected to maintain a higher level of productive performance to equalize the sex stereotype previously discussed. Too often women are being actively discriminated against even though such action is prohibited by law. The discrimination does not appear to be overt, however. A much more passive, subdued approach is utilized, thus discouraging the prospective woman manager or administrator from participating wholly within the organization. Equal pay for equal work is not an abnormal request. Yet, most women in

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<sup>1</sup>B. Norman, "A Study of Women in Leadership Positions in North Carolina," *The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin*, 1970, No. 36, pp. 10-14.

administration are performing job duties and responsibilities not totally outlined in the job descriptions for their positions. They must rely on all the managerial and administrative skills available in order to "survive" within the system. Certainly one significant behavioral skill necessary may be that of manipulation.

Concluding, Christie and Geis have demonstrated that, through the use of Machiavellian principles modified to contemporary standards, individuals manipulate interpersonal relationships according to their adherence with "Mach" traits. The significance of their work rests not with the knowledge that human behavior dictates some manipulation, but with how that manipulation effects existing relationships with certain predictable results. Summarily, Christie and Geis conclude:

One thing that has impressed us in the course of these researches is the fact that there are no marked differences in the ability of high Machs to score higher than low Machs on standardized tests of intelligence. In interpersonal situations which are fairly well structured, in which there is no face-to-face contact, and the affect involved is not irrelevant to task achievement, high Machs do not outcon and outbargain low Machs. The structure of intelligence tests is such that interpersonal conning or bargaining are not among the possible ways of getting higher scores. It is in interpersonal situations which are relatively unstructured, in which face-to-face interaction occurs in an affectively complex situation in which there is latitude for improvisation, that high Machs tend to win. Our interpretation is that high Machs tend to read the situation and remain detached from the affective distractions, among them other persons; although low Machs are equally capable of sizing up the situation, they get caught up in the interaction process with the other person(s), and this interferes with "rational" behavior. Sometimes it is not so

much that high Machs win as that low Machs lose. At the time of the initial interest in manipulation, one plausible hypothesis was that those who manipulated others were able to do so because they were adapt at sizing up other persons' weak points and then taking advantage of them. This may occur in certain cases. However, we have come to a different way of viewing our findings. We would argue that our manipulative high-Mach subjects have a singular disregard of others as individuals and tend to stereotype them as weak and subject to pressure. The advantage the high Machs have in manipulating others is that they seem more accurate in their views of others' weakness in general, and that the low Machs permit themselves to be run over and outmaneuvered by the intransigent highs while clinging to their idealistic interpretation of how people should behave.<sup>1</sup>

#### Summary of Review of Literature

Unlike other research areas there was a lack of an abundance of literature and research related to manipulation. However, certain factors or trends were evident in the literature when viewed chronologically as follows:

1. The historical development of adult continuing education and educational administration illustrates the emerging management skills necessary for successful educational administration. Such behavioral traits as manipulation are important administrative tools.

2. "A manipulator is a person who exploits, uses, or controls himself and others as 'things' in self-defeating ways. There is some of the manipulator in all of us."<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Christie and Geis, p. 358.

<sup>2</sup>Shostrom, p. 11.

3. As late as 1965 there was no major research effort directed towards quantifying manipulation as a real behavioral characteristic in interpersonal relationships.

4. Utilizing the philosophy of Nicolo Machiavelli, one of the first political realists, researchers Richard Christie and Florence Geis measured manipulation in contemporary human behavior. The resulting Machiavellian manipulation measures the three areas of tactics of manipulation, philosophy of human nature, and abstract morality.

5. Individuals can be categorized as high Machs, strong conscious manipulators, and low Machs those who do not consciously manipulate.

6. Manipulation can not only be observed in individuals, but also within organizations.

7. Not only can individuals be manipulated, but, more importantly, the climate of the organization is vulnerable to manipulation.

8. Manipulation is a method of influence used in the application of power and authority. It is not socially acceptable to be perceived as a manipulative individual within contemporary society.

9. Customer-client relationships are enhanced or retarded by the use of manipulation by either or both.

10. Manipulation does not reflect measures of intelligence and ability.

11. The concept of manipulation is practical and useable as a tool for administrative growth and development. Individuals need not be identified as High Mach or Low Mach to be successful. However, the ability to recognize when manipulation is occurring, by either party, provides the individual an opportunity to participate in the process or withdraw. The decision will be the measure of ability, not necessarily the manipulation.

12. Women may need to rely on manipulative behavior to insure equal treatment with men in organizations.

13. Males dominate the managerial population in business, government and education.

14. All administrators and individuals should recognize that manipulation can be a positive behavioral characteristic.

15. Christie and Geis conducted a comparative investigation by gender among college students using the Mach IV and the Mach V instruments. The research focused on the variable of gender among college students, comparing the means and standard deviations between male and female respondents (Table 4).

16. At the conclusion of an ERIC and GIPSY computer search of the literature regarding the use of Machiavellian manipulation by elementary school principals according to gender, no studies were discovered relating to the topic of this study.

TABLE 4<sup>1</sup>

Means and Standard Deviations Between  
 Mach IV and Mach V on 1744<sup>a</sup>  
 College Respondents

Aggregate	<u>Mach IV</u>		<u>Mach V</u>	
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
Caucasian Males (764)	93.69	14.37	99.27	11.17
Caucasian Females (832)	87.66	13.45	95.60	10.09
Nonwhite Males (62)	97.25	15.08	98.17	10.38
Nonwhite Females (86)	88.03	14.71	94.70	11.60

<sup>a</sup>These are those of a total of 1782 who could be classified as to sex and ethnicity.

<sup>1</sup>Christie and Geis, p. 32.

## CHAPTER III

### DESIGN AND PROCEDURE

#### Design of the Study

This study was designed to investigate the Machiavellian manipulation used by male and female elementary school principals in the public schools. It was believed that the results of this study would contribute, at least in a minor degree, to the subsequent research needed to help provide a consistent and equitable approach to the hiring and evaluation of principal's achievement by gender.

As revealed by the review of professional literature regarding practices, there has not been a very pronounced interest in the behavioral characteristics of manipulation. It has become one of the stereotyped negatives which implies deception, ruthlessness and lack of trust. Recently, however, the concept has assumed a higher degree of importance. Dramatic changes in the subscription, utilization and structure of manipulation have caused other modifications and perspectives.

The question of the utilization and integration of manipulation into the managerial and administrative repertoire



of skills by principals gives impetus to the need for the evaluation of the use of manipulative techniques. To evaluate the results of different manifestations of manipulation by using traditional, subjective methods appears to be inconsistent and restrictive.

A major consideration in the design of the study was that of determining the population to be sampled. It was believed that for a study regarding manipulation to be contributive, the population should be limited to a profession which was representative by male and female participation, and that population should be limited to public schools and the school districts. That is, the study should endeavor to sample elementary school principals from specific school districts representing metropolitan areas within Oklahoma. The districts identified as "urban" by the Oklahoma State Department of Education and used in this study were Lawton, metropolitan Oklahoma City, and metropolitan Tulsa.

The selection of a sample group as opposed to utilizing the total population was also considered advisable and necessary because of the number of elementary principals comprising the total population. Due to the large population, a random stratification technique was used. Random stratification was achieved by selecting a sample with complete randomness and then adjusting the classes of the sample to conform with a stratified distribution.

The sample was drawn from a total population of 219 elementary school principals utilizing accepted methods for selecting random samples as described by Van Dalen.<sup>1</sup> From a total population of 219 elementary school principals, a sample size of 60 was chosen according to procedures outlined by Cella.<sup>2</sup> This technique gave a sample small enough to study in depth and large enough to be representative of the total population with a sampling error of not more than 10 percent and a 95 percent confidence interval.

The sample used in this study was designed to be a miniature of the population from whence it was selected and contained the characteristics of the total population defined in the problem. No attempt was made to select elementary principals from specific schools with the school districts. The only criteria for the selection of elementary principals in the study was that they be a principal of an elementary school from K to 5 or K to 6 and be totally responsible and accountable for the building, teachers and students assigned to them by their respective superintendents and boards of education. Also, the elementary principals had to be employed by either the Lawton, metropolitan Oklahoma City and Tulsa school districts. This arrangement was in keeping with the concept that the collection of data from the above mentioned

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<sup>1</sup>Van Dalen, pp. 249-254.

<sup>2</sup>Cella, pp. 160-164.

principals would yield more reliable data concerning urban educational administrators than could be obtained through a broad, general survey of all of the elementary principal population in Oklahoma.

#### Procedure of the Study

This investigation was concerned with only elementary school principals of Lawton, metropolitan Oklahoma City and metropolitan Tulsa. Permission to conduct the study was granted by the coordinators and Directors of the Elementary School Programs in the various systems and by the Educational Research Committees established to control research projects in specific school systems. The study was supported by all administrative personnel both at the central offices and individual school levels.

#### Development and Validation of the Instrument

Since the success of this investigation rested on the development of acceptable questionnaires, a survey of the literature and consultation with individuals in the field of the social sciences was made before the utilization of the two questionnaires. Christie and Geis had previously developed two instruments dealing specifically with Machiavellian Manipulation.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Christie and Geis, pp. 16-25.

The instruments are consistent with and illustrative of the following procedures as outlined by Rummel in his book, An Introduction to Research Procedures in Education.

1. Express the item as clearly as possible.
2. Choose words that have precise meanings wherever possible.
3. Avoid complex or awkward word arrangements.
4. Include all qualifications needed to provide a reasonable basis for response selection.
5. Avoid the inclusion of non-functional words in the item.
6. Avoid unessential specificity in the questions or in the responses.
7. Avoid the inclusion of trivial questions.
8. Make suggested answers as simple as possible.
9. Be sure the items will seem to the respondent to apply to the situation.
10. Refrain from asking questions of opinion unless opinion is what is specifically required.
11. Avoid items that are not too suggestive or too unstimulating.
12. Phrase questions to avoid the academically or socially accepted responses.
13. Avoid questions that may be checked with several responses when only one response is desired.
14. Whenever possible, questions should be worded in such a way that they can be answered simply by a check-mark.
15. Ask questions in such a way that they will relieve the respondent of as much complex thinking as possible.
16. Avoid the use of words which are susceptible to different interpretations.<sup>1</sup>

After the instruments had been developed, an objective comparison of the questionnaires was made, illustrative of the criteria as set down by Mouly in his book, The Science of Educational Research.

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<sup>1</sup>Francis Rummel, An Introduction to Research Procedures in Education (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1958), pp. 126-127.

1. It deals with a significant topic, it makes an important contribution, and is worthy of professional participation.
2. The importance of the problem is clearly stated in the statement of the problem and in the cover letter.
3. It seeks only information not available elsewhere.
4. It is as brief as the study of the problem will allow.
5. The directions are clear, complete, and acceptable.
6. The questions are objective and relatively free from ambiguity and other invalidating features.
7. Questions that may embarrass the respondent or place him on the defensive are avoided.
8. The questions are in good psychological order.
9. The questions are so arranged that they can be tabulated and interpreted readily.<sup>1</sup>

Mouly pointed out "that the questionnaires can give reliable and valid information if the above requirements are met in their formulation."<sup>2</sup>

The length and type of items in the questionnaires have a definite effect on the outcome of a study which uses the questionnaire as a method of obtaining data. A survey of the literature led to the conviction that two questionnaires of from three to seven pages each would be the most desirable length. The instruments were a combined total of four pages in length and they included a cover letter which explained the purpose of the study.

The structured type of item was chosen over the unstructured type. One reason for this choice was expressed by

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<sup>1</sup>George J. Mouly, The Science of Educational Research (New York: American Book Company, 1963), p. 263.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 263.

Rummel in his statement that "the unstructured item requires a respondent to do some hard, reflective thinking and necessitates a lengthy discussion on his part."<sup>1</sup> It was believed that more respondents would be more likely to complete more items, and return the questionnaires if the items required a simple check-mark rather than a more time consuming and demanding type of response.

Christie and Geis refined their versions of the Mach IV and the Mach V many times before actual testing.

Seventy-one items based primarily upon Machiavelli's The Prince and The Discourses were written. They were presented in a Likert format to 1196 college undergraduates in three different universities. Item analysis indicated that 50 of the items discriminated between high and low scores on the total scale in each of the three aggregates.

Twenty of the most discriminating items were selected for further research; half were worded so that agreement with them was scored in a pro-Machiavelli direction; the other half were reversals so that disagreement with them was scored to be pro-Machiavelli. This version of the scale is referred to as the Mach IV.

Although the counterbalancing of the items in Mach IV effectively reduced agreement response set biases, it did not eliminate the effect of social desirability. Respondents making high scores on the Likert format scale (Mach IV) also tended to describe themselves in socially undesirable terms. A forced-choice scale, Mach V, was constructed which did not correlate with external measures of social desirability.

The scoring system on both scales was converted so that a score of 100 equals the theoretical neutral point, i.e., agreement and disagreement with the items balances out. A score of 160 on Mach IV means strong agreement with every item worded in the pro-Machiavellian direction and strong disagreement with every item worded in the anti-Machiavellian direction. The reverse

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<sup>1</sup>Rummel, p. 94.

pattern yields a score of 40. A score of 160 on Mach V means that every item keyed for Mach is most or least like the subject and the item matched for social desirability is at the opposite extreme.<sup>1</sup>

Although an objective evaluation and comparison to which the questionnaires as instruments of behavioral science must subscribe had been made, there remained the task of identifying specific ways in which validity for the study would be established. In general, it was not the purpose of the study to make objective statements regarding the results of the manipulative indicators of the instruments. Therefore, follow-up interviews and observations were not deemed appropriate at this time, but certainly would lend themselves to further investigation should manipulation be a viable behavioral characteristic in elementary principals. Such questions reflect the myriad of future research problems.

#### Percent of Returns in This Study and Related Literature

Many studies in the literature report returns as low as 20 to 40 percent. Shannon reported "an average of 65 percent return for 'reputable' questionnaire studies reported in a sample of theses, dissertations, and professional articles."<sup>2</sup>

Clark, Bradsley and Haslacher, a research consultant firm, stated that "a normal return for mail questionnaire is

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<sup>1</sup>Christie and Geis, pp. 33-34.

<sup>2</sup>John R. Shannon, "Percentage of Returns of Questionnaires in Reputable Educational Research," Journal of Educational Research, XLII (October, 1948), pp. 138-141.

from 10 to 20 percent of the questionnaires sent, provided that an appropriate sampling technique is used."<sup>1</sup> The same research firm considered a return of 50 percent or better from a homogeneous group as ample for an indicative sample.

Since 90 percent of the questionnaires distributed in this study were returned in usable form and since the respondents could be considered homogeneous, the returns in this study were regarded as indicative of the population studied.

#### Statistical Methods Used

In order to determine the meaning of the data derived from the questionnaire, selected nonparametric statistical techniques were employed. The results of the application of median, dispersion and skewness within the population and the Kolomogorov-Smirnov 2-Sample Test are presented in Chapter IV. Along with the tabular presentation is a discussion of the data as analyzed according to the selected statistical methods employed. Median and dispersion were used so that responses of each variable to each item in a specific question could be compared.

The Kolomogorov-Smirnov 2-Sample Test was used because of the homogeneity of distribution, the two samples are from the same population. The SPSS says of the test "whereas

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<sup>1</sup>Clark, Bradsley and Haslacher, Utah Educational Association: Poll of Member Opinion (Salt Lake City: Utah Education Association, January, 1960), pp. 42-67.



the Median and Mann-Whitney tests are most sensitive to differences in median, this test is sensitive to any type of difference in the two distributions--median, dispersion, skewness, etc."<sup>1</sup> The two-tailed test is sensitive to any kind of difference in the distributions from which the two samples were drawn. All items in the instruments were expressed in descriptive units in table format. Siegel pointed out that:

The appropriateness of the nonparametric statistical treatment for the data such as those to be obtained from this study. Probability statements obtained from most nonparametric statistical tests are exact probabilities (except in the case of large samples, where excellent approximations are available), regardless of the shape of the population distribution from which the random sample was drawn. The accuracy of the probability statement does not depend on the shape of the population, although some nonparametric tests may assume identity of shape of two or more population distributions. In certain cases, the nonparametric tests do assume that the underlying distribution is continuous, an assumption which they share with parametric tests.

Nonparametric statistical tests are available to treat data which are inherently in ranks as well as data whose seemingly numerical scores have the strength of ranks. That is, the researcher may only be able to say of his subjects that one has more or less of the characteristic than another, without being able to say how much more or less. For example, in studying such a variable as anxiety, we may be able to state that subject A is more anxious than subject B without knowing at all exactly how much more anxious A is. If data are inherently in ranks, or even if they can only be categorized as plus or minus (more or less, better or worse), they can be treated by nonparametric methods, whereas they cannot be treated by parametric methods unless precarious and perhaps unrealistic assumptions are made about the underlying distributions.

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<sup>1</sup>Dale Bent, C. Hadlar Hull, Gene Jenkins, Norman H. Nie and Karen Steinbreingr, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (New York: McGraw Hill, 1977), p. 43.

Nonparametric methods are also available to treat data which are simply classificatory, i.e., are measured in a nominal scale. No parametric technique applies to such data.<sup>1</sup>

After tabulating the data and coding the information for computer analysis, the data were punched on IBM cards. A computer analyst and statistical analyst from Oklahoma City and the University of Oklahoma assisted with the programming of the data for computation of the Kolomogorov-Smirnov 2-Sample Test. The program was then run on the IBM 370-158 Computer. Without the use of the computer, a considerable amount of time would have been necessary to compute the nonparametric analysis on the data analyzed.

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<sup>1</sup>Siegel, pp. 32-33.

## CHAPTER IV

### PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

The problem of this study was to examine the utilization of Machiavellian manipulation by elementary school principals and to analyze the variables of Machiavellian manipulation according to gender. In agreement with the design and procedures presented in Chapter III the following hypotheses were tested:

1. There is no significant difference between male and female elementary school principals in their subscription to the use of Machiavellian manipulation.

2. There is no significant difference between male and female elementary school principals with regard to the use of Machiavellian tactics of manipulation.

3. There is no significant difference between male and female elementary school principals with regard to Machiavellian manipulation as it relates to the philosophy of human nature.

4. There is no significant difference between male and female elementary school principals with regard to Machiavellian manipulation as it relates to abstract morality.

An Analysis of the Elementary School Principal Sample

A breakdown of the elementary school principal sample is indicated in Table 5. The table indicates that 11 percent of the total sample represented the Lawton Public Schools, 54 percent represented the metropolitan Oklahoma City Public School and that 35 percent represented the metropolitan Tulsa Public School elementary principals. The sample size was evenly divided by gender, 30 female elementary school principals and 30 male elementary school principals, taken from the total elementary principal population of 219. 26% of the total population sampled was female.

TABLE 5

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

	Lawton	Metropolitan Okla. City	Metropolitan Tulsa
Male	14%	53%	33%
Female	7%	56%	37%

An Analysis of the Questionnaire Items

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov Two-Sample Test was the non-parametric statistical measurement used to test the hypothesis. This test was selected due to the use of both nominal and ordinal levels of data, the use of two samples selected from the same population, and the power-efficiency of the

test. When compared with the t test the "Kolmogorov-Smirnov test has a high power efficiency (about 96 percent) for small samples (Dixon, 1954). It seems to be more powerful in all cases than either the  $X^2$  test or the median test. Also, evidence seems to indicate that whereas for very small samples the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test is slightly more efficient than the Mann-Whitney test, for large samples the converse holds."<sup>1</sup>

#### Mach IV Test for Manipulation by Gender

Table 6 is an Array Cast of the total male and female scores of the Mach IV test for manipulation. The Mach IV test is scored on a range from 40-160. A score of 40 indicates a total rejection of Machiavellian manipulation and a score of 160 indicates a total acceptance of the Machiavellian principles for manipulation. A score of 100 is the mean acceptance of the principles of Machiavellian manipulation. The "P" score for the Mach IV was .799, and the  $K_D$  score for the Mach IV was 4. A "P" score of .799 is not statistically significant and a  $K_D$  score of 4 was also not statistically significant. Therefore, using the Mach IV measurement for Machiavellian manipulation the null hypothesis "there is no significant difference between male and female elementary school principals in their subscription to the use of Machiavellian manipulation" is accepted.

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<sup>1</sup>Siegel, p. 136.

TABLE 6

ARRAY CAST OF MACH IV SCORES FOR THE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST

	TOTAL SCORES OF MACH IV BY GENDER									
	60-65	66-70	71-75	76-80	81-85	86-90	91-95	96-100	101-105	106-110
Male N=30	$\frac{3}{30}$	$\frac{7}{30}$	$\frac{13}{30}$	$\frac{17}{30}$	$\frac{21}{30}$	$\frac{29}{30}$	$\frac{29}{30}$	$\frac{29}{30}$	$\frac{30}{30}$	$\frac{30}{30}$
Female N=30	$\frac{3}{30}$	$\frac{7}{30}$	$\frac{10}{30}$	$\frac{13}{30}$	$\frac{21}{30}$	$\frac{25}{30}$	$\frac{25}{30}$	$\frac{28}{30}$	$\frac{29}{30}$	$\frac{30}{30}$
$M_{30} - F_{30} = K_D$	$\frac{0}{30}$	$\frac{0}{30}$	$\frac{3}{30}$	$\frac{4}{30}$	$\frac{0}{30}$	$\frac{4}{30}$	$\frac{4}{30}$	$\frac{1}{30}$	$\frac{1}{30}$	0
	<u>MALE</u>	<u>FEMALE</u>	<u>KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TWO SAMPLE</u>							
<u>Range</u>	40	49	"p" = .799							
<u>Maximum</u>	101	110	* $^1K_D = 4$							
<u>Minimum</u>	61	61								
<u>Variance</u>	95	160								

\* $^1K_D$  must be 11 for .05 level of significance and 13 for .01 level of significance.

$^1$ Siegel, p. 278.

### Mach V Test for Manipulation by Gender

The Mach V is a forced choice instrument measuring the same characteristics of Machiavellian manipulation. The range on the Mach V is from 40 to 160. A score of 40 is indicative of rejecting the Machiavellian principles of manipulation and 160 is total acceptance of Machiavellian manipulation. A score of 100 is the mean for acceptance of the manipulation characteristics. Table 7 is a Array Cast of the Mach V scores for the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test.

The Array Cast (Table 7) gives a  $K_D$  score of 7 for the Mach V and a "P" score of .134.  $K_D=7$  is not statistically significant and a "P" = .134 is also not statistically significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis "there is no significant difference between male and female elementary school principals in their subscription to the use of Machiavellian manipulation" is accepted.

### Cumulative Mach IV and Mach V Scores for Manipulation

Upon interpreting the data obtained from the Mach IV and the Mach V, both cumulative tools were combined and subjected to the same statistical testing procedures previously described. By combining the two sets of scores it was hypothesized that the "power" of the instruments would be increased, yielding even more significant data. The raw cumulative totals were combined and totaled by gender. Table 8 is the Array Cast of the cumulative scores. As in the Mach IV and Mach V, a

TABLE 7

ARRAY CAST OF MACH V SCORES FOR THE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST

	TOTAL SCORES OF MACH V BY GENDER									
	80-85	86-90	91-95	96-100	101-105	106-110	111-115	116-120	121-125	126-130
Male N=30	<u>0</u> 30	<u>7</u> 30	<u>14</u> 30	<u>22</u> 30	<u>27</u> 30	<u>30</u> 30	<u>30</u> 30	<u>30</u> 30	<u>30</u> 30	<u>30</u> 30
Female N=30	<u>3</u> 30	<u>5</u> 30	<u>8</u> 30	<u>15</u> 30	<u>20</u> 30	<u>25</u> 30	<u>25</u> 30	<u>28</u> 30	<u>29</u> 30	<u>30</u> 30
$M_{30} - F_{30} = K_D$	<u>-3</u> 30	<u>2</u> 30	<u>6</u> 30	<u>7</u> 30	<u>7</u> 30	<u>5</u> 30	<u>5</u> 30	<u>2</u> 30	<u>1</u> 30	0
	<u>MALE</u>	<u>FEMALE</u>	<u>KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TWO SAMPLE</u>							
<u>Range</u>	24	45	<p>"P" = .134  <math>*1_{K_D} = 7</math></p>							
<u>Maximum</u>	110	126								
<u>Minimum</u>	86	81								
<u>Variance</u>	42	122								

\* $1_{K_D}$  must be 11 for .05 level of significance and 15 for .01 level of significance.

<sup>1</sup>Siegel, p. 278.



TABLE 8

ARRAY CAST OF MACH IV AND MACH V FOR THE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST

	TOTAL SCORES OF MACH IV AND MACH V BY GENDER									
	70-75	76-80	81-85	86-90	91-95	96-100	101-105	106-110	110-115	116-120
	Male N=30	$\frac{1}{30}$	$\frac{3}{30}$	$\frac{12}{30}$	$\frac{18}{30}$	$\frac{29}{30}$	$\frac{29}{30}$	$\frac{29}{30}$	$\frac{30}{30}$	$\frac{30}{30}$
Female N=30	$\frac{1}{30}$	$\frac{6}{30}$	$\frac{10}{30}$	$\frac{14}{30}$	$\frac{19}{30}$	$\frac{24}{30}$	$\frac{26}{30}$	$\frac{29}{30}$	$\frac{29}{30}$	$\frac{30}{30}$
$K_D = M_{30} - F_{30}$	$\frac{0}{30}$	$\frac{-3}{30}$	$\frac{2}{30}$	$\frac{4}{30}$	$\frac{10}{30}$	$\frac{5}{30}$	$\frac{3}{30}$	$\frac{1}{30}$	$\frac{1}{30}$	0
	MALE	FEMALE	KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TWO SAMPLE							
<u>Range</u>	31	43	<p>"P" = .071  <sup>*1</sup><math>K_D</math> = 10</p>							
<u>Maximum</u>	106	116								
<u>Minimum</u>	75	73								
<u>Variance</u>	45	112								

95

<sup>\*1</sup> $K_D$  must be 11 for .05 level of significance and 13 for .01 level of significance.

<sup>1</sup>Siegel, p. 278.

score of 40 is complete rejection of the Machiavellian principles of manipulation, 100 is the mean of acceptance, and a score of 160 is total adherence to the concept of Machiavellian manipulation.

The "P" score for the cumulative tests was .071 and the  $K_D$  score was 10 (Table 8). When "P" = .071 it is not statistically significant and a  $K_D = 10$  is also not statistically significant. Thus, the null hypothesis "there is no significant difference between male and female elementary school principals in their subscription to the use of Machiavellian manipulation" is accepted.

The acceptance of  $H_{01}$  is therefore reinforced and statistically accepted by the sum totals of "P" scores and  $K_D$  scores found in the Mach IV, Mach V and Cumulative Mach IV and Mach V.

#### Mach IV Tactics of Machiavellian Manipulation

When designing the Mach IV Christie and Geis categorized three areas of behavior to measure the Machiavellian manipulation characteristics of individuals (Chapter I). Nine items were designated as Machiavellian tactics, scored on a Likert Scale from 1 to 7. Thus, the range of scoring for Tactics is from 9 to 63. A score of 9 indicates total rejection of the Machiavellian principles of Tactics and a score of 63 reflects total acceptance of the principles. There is no mean score of acceptance level for Tactics. Table 9 is an

TABLE 9  
 ARRAY CAST OF MACHIAVELLIAN TACTICS FROM THE MACH IV  
 FOR THE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST

	TOTAL TACTICS SCORES OF MACH IV BY GENDER						
	10-15	16-20	21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45
Male N=30	3 <hr/> 30	9 <hr/> 30	19 <hr/> 30	24 <hr/> 30	28 <hr/> 30	30 <hr/> 30	30 <hr/> 30
Female N=30	2 <hr/> 30	4 <hr/> 30	13 <hr/> 30	25 <hr/> 30	28 <hr/> 30	28 <hr/> 30	30 <hr/> 30
$M_{30} - F_{30} = K_D$	1 <hr/> 30	5 <hr/> 30	6 <hr/> 30	-1 <hr/> 30	0 <hr/> 30	2 <hr/> 30	0
	<u>MALE</u>	<u>FEMALE</u>	<u>KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TWO SAMPLE</u>				
<u>Range</u>	26	33	"P" = .388				
<u>Maximum</u>	39	45	* <sup>1</sup> K <sub>D</sub> = 6				
<u>Minimum</u>	13	12					
<u>Variance</u>	45	45					

\*<sup>1</sup>K<sub>D</sub> must be 11 for .05 level of significance and 13 for .01 level of significance.

<sup>1</sup>Siegel, p. 278.

Array Cast for the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test which displays a "P" score of .388 for the Tactics of the Mach IV and  $K_D$  score of 6.

A "P" score of .388 is not statistically significant for differences and a  $K_D$  score of 6 is also not statistically significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis "there is no significant difference between male and female elementary school principals with regard to the use of Machiavellian tactics of manipulation" is accepted.

#### Mach V Tactics of Machiavellian Manipulation

The Mach V forced-choice instrument is also categorized to measure the three areas of Machiavellian Tactics, Philosophy and Morality (Chapter I). However, unlike the Mach IV, the Mach V is not a Likert-type instrument. The nine items used to measure Tactics are the same as those found in the Mach IV. This supplements both the validity and the power of referencing both instruments as a sum total measure of individual subscription to the use of Machiavellian Tactics by the population sampled. The range of scores is from 9 to 63; 9 representing rejection of Machiavellian Tactics and 63 complete acceptance of the use of the principles of Machiavellian Tactics. As in the Mach IV, there is no mean acceptance score for the use of Tactics.

Table 10 is an Array Cast of Machiavellian Tactics for the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test taken from the Mach V. Table 10

TABLE 10  
 ARRAY CAST OF MACHIAVELLIAN TACTICS FROM THE MACH V  
 FOR THE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST

	TOTAL TACTICS SCORES OF MACH V BY GENDER						
	21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	51-55
Male N=30	2 <hr style="width: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"/> 30	7 <hr style="width: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"/> 30	20 <hr style="width: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"/> 30	28 <hr style="width: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"/> 30	29 <hr style="width: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"/> 30	29 <hr style="width: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"/> 30	30 <hr style="width: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"/> 30
Female N=30	1 <hr style="width: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"/> 30	4 <hr style="width: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"/> 30	14 <hr style="width: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"/> 30	21 <hr style="width: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"/> 30	28 <hr style="width: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"/> 30	29 <hr style="width: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"/> 30	30 <hr style="width: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"/> 30
$M_{30} - F_{30} = K_D$	1 <hr style="width: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"/> 30	3 <hr style="width: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"/> 30	6 <hr style="width: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"/> 30	7 <hr style="width: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"/> 30	1 <hr style="width: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"/> 30	0 <hr style="width: 20px; margin: 0 auto;"/> 30	0
	<u>MALE</u>	<u>FEMALE</u>	<u>KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TWO SAMPLE</u>				
<u>Range</u>	26	26	<p>"P" = .236  <sup>*</sup>1<sub>K<sub>D</sub></sub> = 7</p>				
<u>Maximum</u>	51	51					
<u>Minimum</u>	25	25					
<u>Variance</u>	31	38					

<sup>\*</sup>1<sub>K<sub>D</sub></sub> must be 11 for .05 level of significance and 13 for .01 level of significance.

<sup>1</sup>Siegel, p. 278.

revealed a "P" score of .236 and a  $K_D$  score of 7.

A "P" score of .236 and a  $K_D$  score of 7 are not statistically significant differences. Thus, the null hypothesis "there is no significant difference between male and female elementary school principals with regard to the use of Machiavellian tactics of manipulation" is accepted.

#### Mach IV Philosophy of Human Nature and Machiavellian Manipulation

The second area of measurement for Machiavellian manipulation chosen by Christie and Geis was that of the Machiavellian Philosophy of Human Nature (Chapter I). Nine questions concerning the characteristics of the Philosophy were selected on the Likert-type scale ranging from 9 to 63. A score of 9 reflected complete rejection of the Machiavellian Philosophy of Human Nature and a score of 63 reflected a complete acceptance of the manipulative characteristics. There was no mean score of acceptance or rejection in the total range of scoring.

Table 11 is an Array Cast of the Machiavellian Philosophy of Human Nature scores by gender for the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test. The Array reveals a "P" score of .799 and a  $K_D$  score of 5. A "P" score of .799 is not statistically significant and a  $K_D$  of 5 is also not a statistically significant score. Therefore, the null hypothesis "there is no significant difference between male and female elementary school principals with regard to Machiavellian manipulation as it relates to the philosophy of human nature" is accepted.

TABLE 11  
 ARRAY CAST OF MACHIAVELLIAN PHILOSOPHY FROM THE MACH IV  
 FOR THE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST

	TOTAL PHILOSOPHY SCORES OF MACH IV BY GENDER								
	10-15	16-20	21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	51-55
Male N=30	<u>0</u> 30	<u>6</u> 30	<u>11</u> 30	<u>21</u> 30	<u>30</u> 30	<u>30</u> 30	<u>30</u> 30	<u>30</u> 30	<u>30</u> 30
Female N=30	<u>2</u> 30	<u>5</u> 30	<u>9</u> 30	<u>22</u> 30	<u>25</u> 30	<u>26</u> 30	<u>29</u> 30	<u>29</u> 30	<u>30</u> 30
$M_{30} - F_{30} = K_D$	<u>-2</u> 30	<u>1</u> 30	<u>2</u> 30	<u>-1</u> 30	<u>5</u> 30	<u>4</u> 30	<u>1</u> 30	<u>1</u> 30	0
	<u>MALE</u>	<u>FEMALE</u>	<u>KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TWO SAMPLE</u>						
<u>Range</u>	17	36	"P" = .799 * $1_{K_D}$ = 5						
<u>Maximum</u>	35	51							
<u>Minimum</u>	18	15							
<u>Variance</u>	31	77							

\* $1_{K_D}$  must be 11 for .05 level of significance and 13 for .01 level of significance.

<sup>1</sup>Siegel, p. 278.

Mach V Philosophy of Human Nature and Machiavellian Manipulation

The Mach V forced-choice questionnaire utilizes the same questions derived from the Mach IV concerning the Machiavellian Philosophy of Human Nature. By comparing the two instruments the validity and power of the statistics measurement is enhanced. Nine questions concerning Philosophy are included in the Mach V. The range of scores is from 9 to 63, 9 indicating a complete rejection of the Machiavellian principles of Philosophy and 63 reflecting total acceptance of the Machiavellian characteristics. As in the Mach IV, there is not a mean acceptance score for the range of the Philosophy of Human Nature scores by gender.

Table 12 is an Array Cast of Machiavellian Philosophy of Human Nature scores by gender for the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Two-Sample Test. The Array displays a "P" score of .388 and a  $K_D$  score of 7. Using the Kolmogorov-Smirnow 2-Sample Test to acquire a "P" score of .388 and a  $K_D$  score of 7 for the sample, both scores are not statistically significant to measure differences by gender. Therefore, the null hypothesis "there is no significant difference between male and female elementary school principals with regard to Machiavellian manipulation as it relates to the philosophy of human nature" is accepted.



TABLE 12  
 ARRAY CAST OF MACHIAVELLIAN PHILOSOPHY FROM THE MACH V  
 FOR THE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST

	21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50
Male N=30	0 — 30	7 — 30	23 — 30	27 — 30	30 — 30	30 — 30
Female N=30	1 — 30	3 — 30	16 — 30	23 — 30	28 — 30	30 — 30
$M_{30} - F_{30} = K_D$	-1 — 30	4 — 30	7 — 30	4 — 30	2 — 30	0
	<u>MALE</u>	<u>FEMALE</u>	<u>KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TWO SAMPLE</u>			
<u>Range</u>	16	24	"P" = .388 * <sup>1</sup> K <sub>D</sub> = 7			
<u>Maximum</u>	43	49				
<u>Minimum</u>	27	25				
<u>Variance</u>	18	35				

\*<sup>1</sup>K<sub>D</sub> must be 11 for .05 level of significance and 13 for .01 level of significance,

<sup>1</sup>Siegel, p. 278.

#### Mach IV Machiavellian Manipulation and Abstract Morality

The third area of behavioral characteristics utilized for Machiavellian manipulation is Abstract Morality as it relates to Machiavellianism (Chapter I). The Mach IV has two questions which reference Machiavellian Abstract Morality. The range of scoring is from 2 to 14; 2 suggesting total rejection of the Machiavellian principles and 14 indicating complete acceptance. As with the two previous areas of Tactics and Philosophy of Human Nature, there is no mean acceptance score for Abstract Morality.

Table 13 is an Array Cast of Machiavellian Abstract Morality derived from the Mach IV and illustrating the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Two-Sample Test. Table 13 contains a "P" score for Abstract Morality of .799 and a  $K_D$  score of 1.

A "P" score of .799 and a  $K_D$  score of 1 are not statistically significant scores. Therefore, the null hypothesis "there is no significant difference between male and female elementary school principals with regard to Machiavellian manipulation as it relates to abstract morality" is accepted.

#### Mach V Machiavellian Manipulation and Abstract Morality

The Mach V measures the behavioral characteristics of Machiavellian Abstract Morality with the same questions as the Mach IV thus increasing the validity and power of combining the two instruments for comparison. The only difference is the forced-choice version of the Mach V, as compared to the Likert

TABLE 13

ARRAY CAST OF MACHIAVELLIAN ABSTRACT MORALITY FROM THE MACH IV  
FOR THE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST

	TOTAL SCORES OF MACH IV BY GENDER						
	0-2	3-4	5-6	7-8	9-10	11-12	13-14
Male N=30	4 — 30	6 — 30	8 — 30	24 — 30	29 — 30	30 — 30	30 — 30
Female N=30	4 — 30	7 — 30	13 — 30	25 — 30	29 — 30	29 — 30	30 — 30
$M_{30} - F_{30} = K_D$	0 — 30	-1 — 30	-5 — 30	-1 — 30	0 — 30	1 — 30	0
	MALE	FEMALE	KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TWO SAMPLE				
<u>Range</u>	9	11	"P" = .799 * <sup>1</sup> K <sub>D</sub> = 1				
<u>Maximum</u>	11	13					
<u>Minimum</u>	2	2					
<u>Variance</u>	6.6	7.2					

\*<sup>1</sup>K<sub>D</sub> must be 11 for .05 level of significance and 13 for .01 level of significance.

<sup>1</sup>Siegel, p. 278.

format of the Mach IV. The range of scores is from 2, total rejection of Machiavellian Abstract Morality, to 14, total acceptance. There is no mean acceptance score for the Machiavellian behavioral characteristic.

Table 14 is an Array Cast of the Mach V for the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Two-Sample Test measuring Abstract Morality. The Array displays a "P" score of .998 and a  $K_D$  score of 3.

A "P" score of .998 is not statistically significant and a  $K_D$  score of 3 is also not statistically significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis "there is no significant difference between male and female elementary school principals with regard to Machiavellian manipulation as it relates to abstract morality" is accepted.

#### Further Findings

Although the fundamental purpose of this study was to investigate the statistical differences of the use of Machiavellian manipulation by gender in elementary school principals, many interesting inferences and implications surfaced during the research. The initial null hypotheses concerning manipulation by gender was accepted. However, frequencies of scoring, the dispersion of scores by gender, cumulative frequency percentages and the resulting skewness are descriptively displayed in Figures 1 through 18. The Figure Format includes an Ogive Frequency Curve which illustrates the cumulative frequency percentages relative to the

TABLE 14  
 ARRAY CAST OF MACHIAVELLIAN ABSTRACT MORALITY FROM THE MACH V  
 FOR THE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST

	TOTAL ABSTRACT MORALITY SCORES OF MACH V BY GENDER				
	5-6	7-8	9-10	11-12	13-14
	Male N=30	4 <hr/> 30	13 <hr/> 30	28 <hr/> 30	30 <hr/> 30
Female N=30	5 <hr/> 30	15 <hr/> 30	25 <hr/> 30	29 <hr/> 30	30 <hr/> 30
$M_{30} - F_{30} = K_D$	-1 <hr/> 30	-2 <hr/> 30	3 <hr/> 30	1 <hr/> 30	0
	MALE	FEMALE	KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TWO SAMPLE		
<u>Range</u>	6	8	"P" = .998 * <sup>1</sup> K <sub>D</sub> = 3		
<u>Maximum</u>	12	14			
<u>Minimum</u>	6	6			
<u>Variance</u>	2.8	4.6			

\*<sup>1</sup>K<sub>D</sub> must be 11 for .05 level of significance and 13 for .01 level of significance.

<sup>1</sup>Siegel, p. 278.

scale of scores revealed in the Mach IV and Mach V. The Ogive Frequency Curves for all of the Machiavellian manipulative characteristics measured in the two instruments are included in Figures 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15 and 17.

A second illustrative display in Figure Format is a Smoothed Frequency Curve which includes the frequency of cases, the scale of scores as identified by gender, and the dispersion and skewness of the two groups of male and female elementary school principals. The Smoothed Frequency Curves suggest a range of variance between the two groups, especially when examining the dispersion of scores by the male and female principals. Figures 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16 and 18 display the Smoothed Frequency Curves.

The Ogive and Smoothed Frequency Curves are descriptive measures of the data revealed in the Mach IV and Mach V. The discussion of the relevance and significance of the scores and figures is contained in Chapter V.

Figure 1  
OGIVE FREQUENCY CURVE  
MACH IV

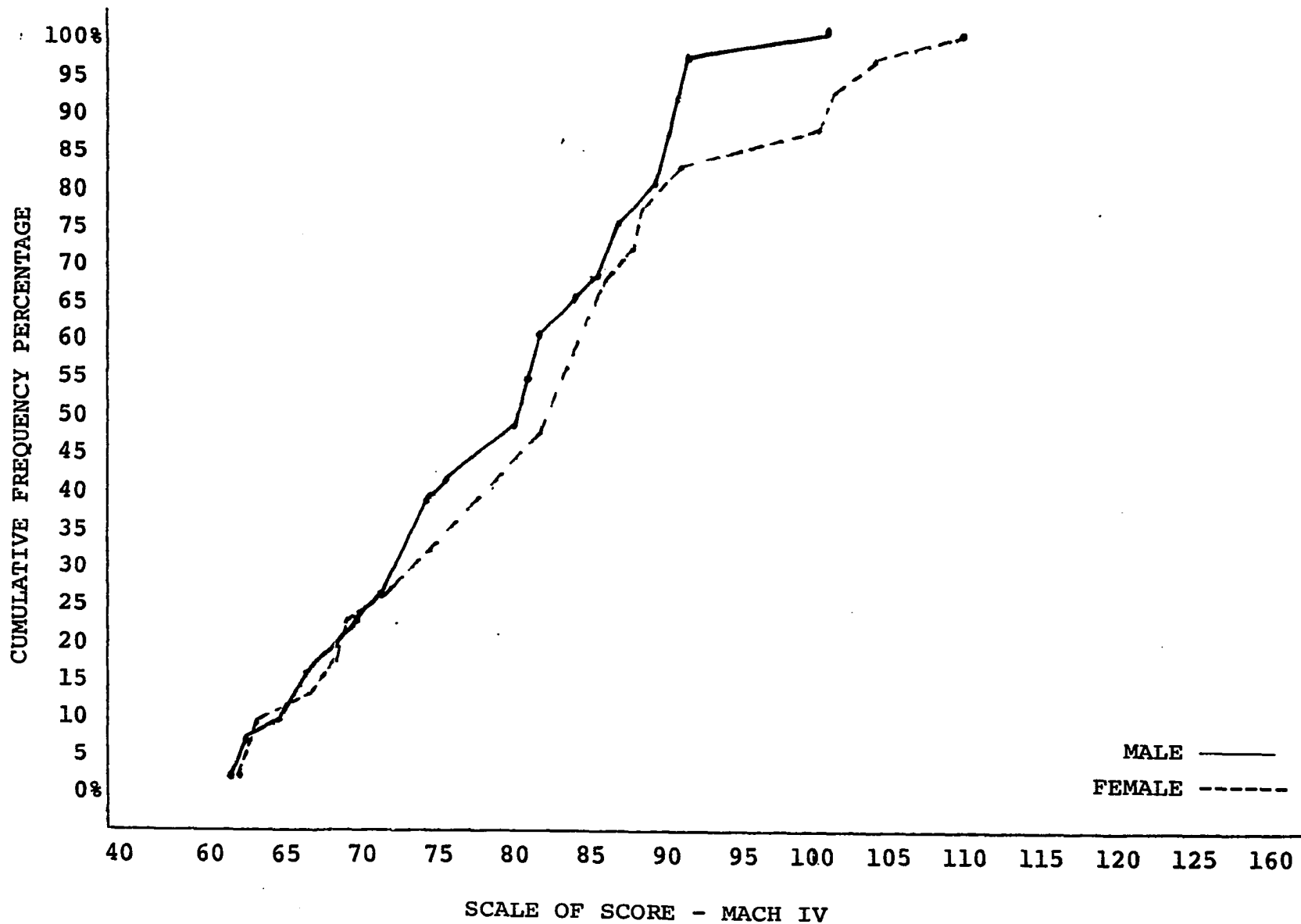


Figure 2  
SMOOTHED FREQUENCY CURVE  
MACH IV

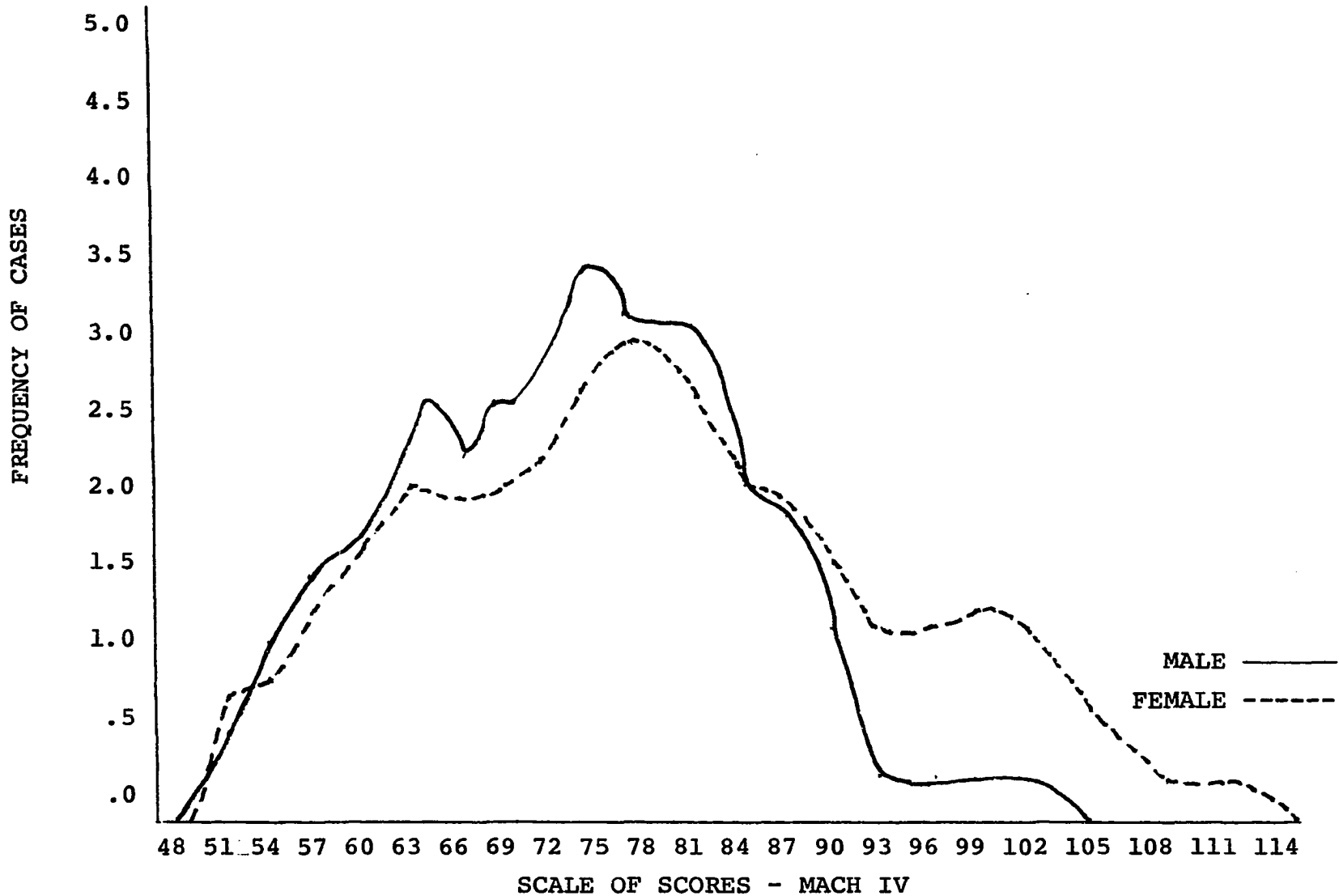




Figure 3  
OGIVE FREQUENCY CURVE

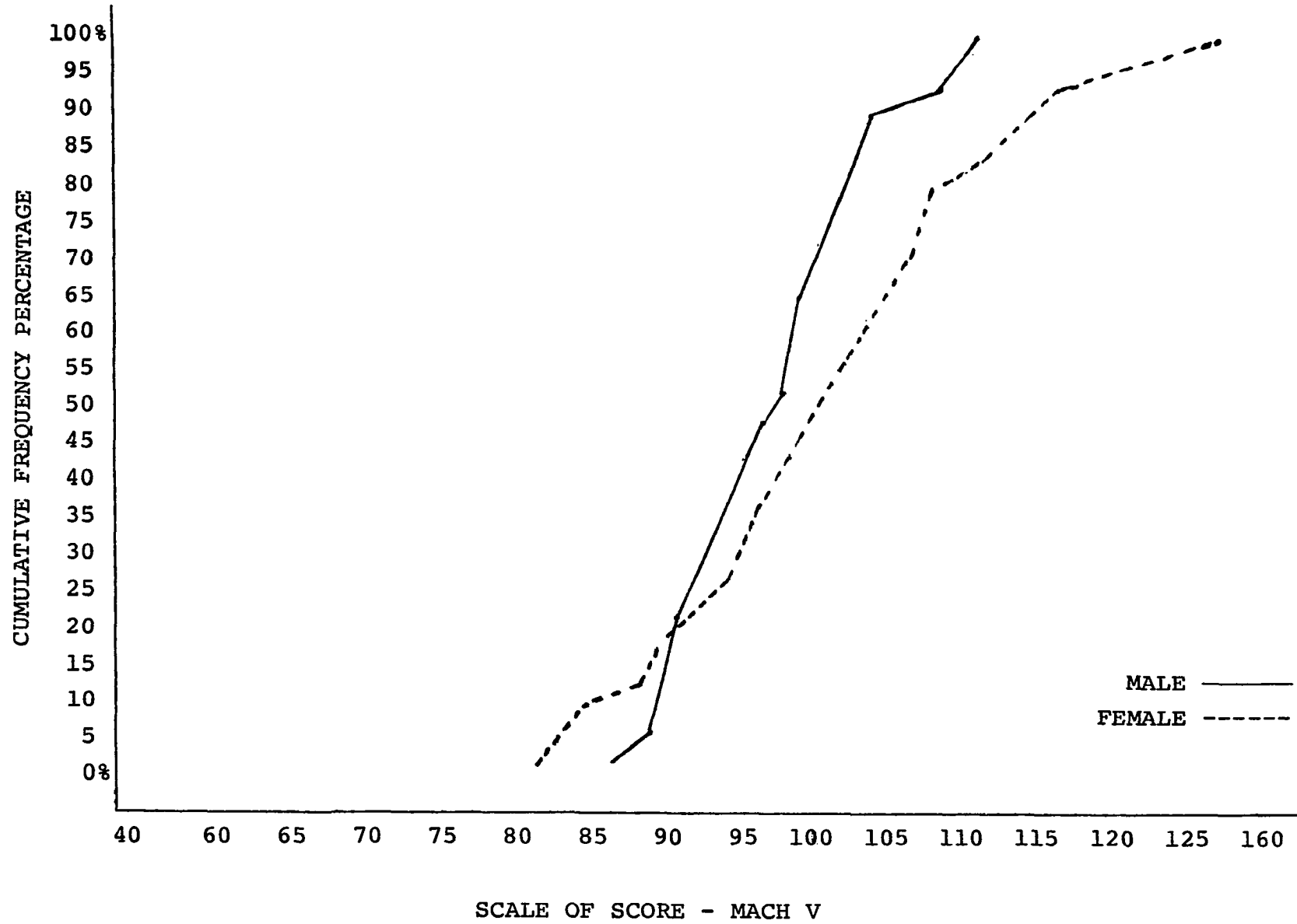


Figure 4  
SMOOTHED FREQUENCY CURVE  
MACH V

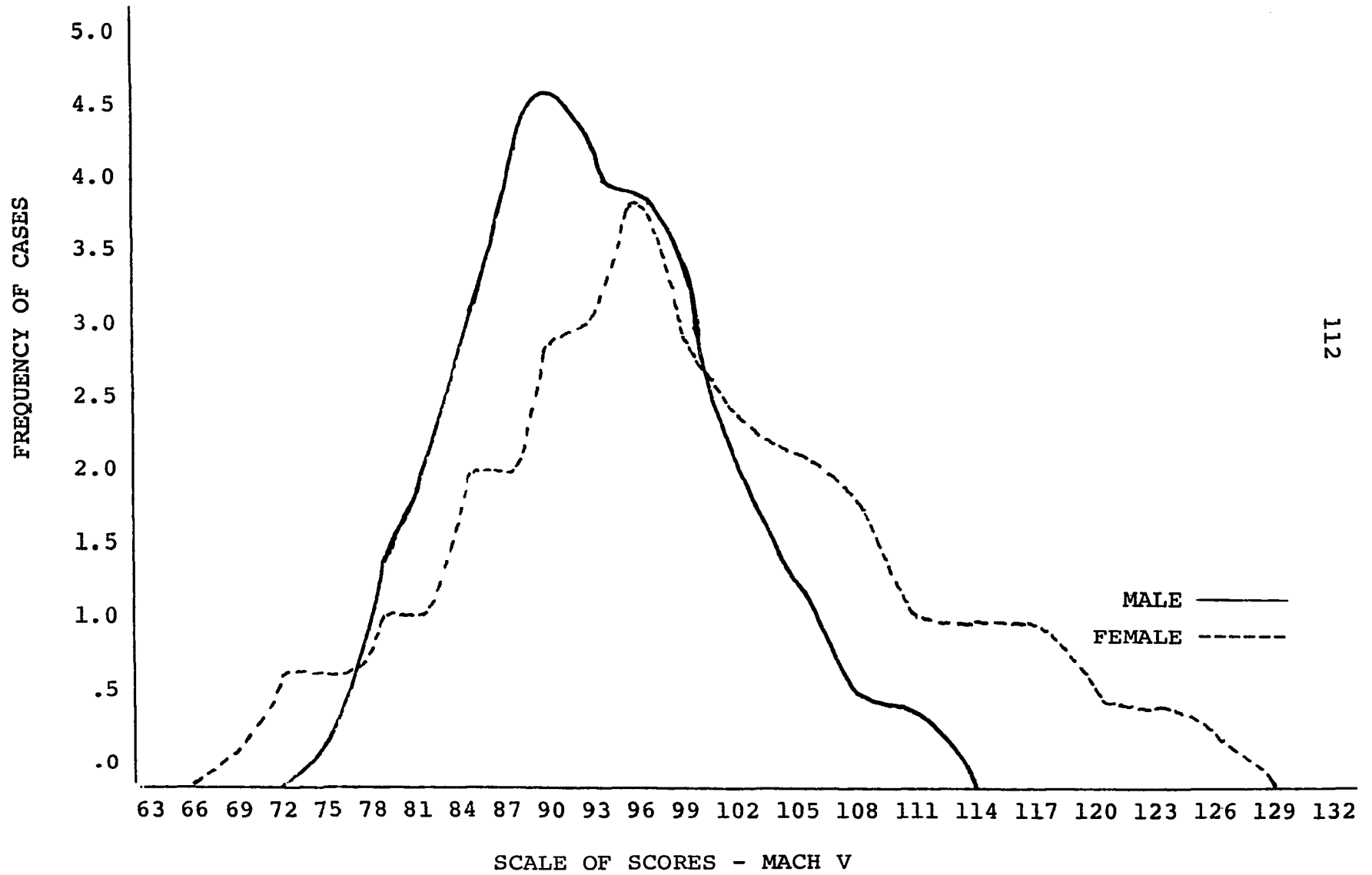


Figure 5  
OGIVE FREQUENCY CURVE  
MACH IV AND MACH V CUMULATIVE SCORES

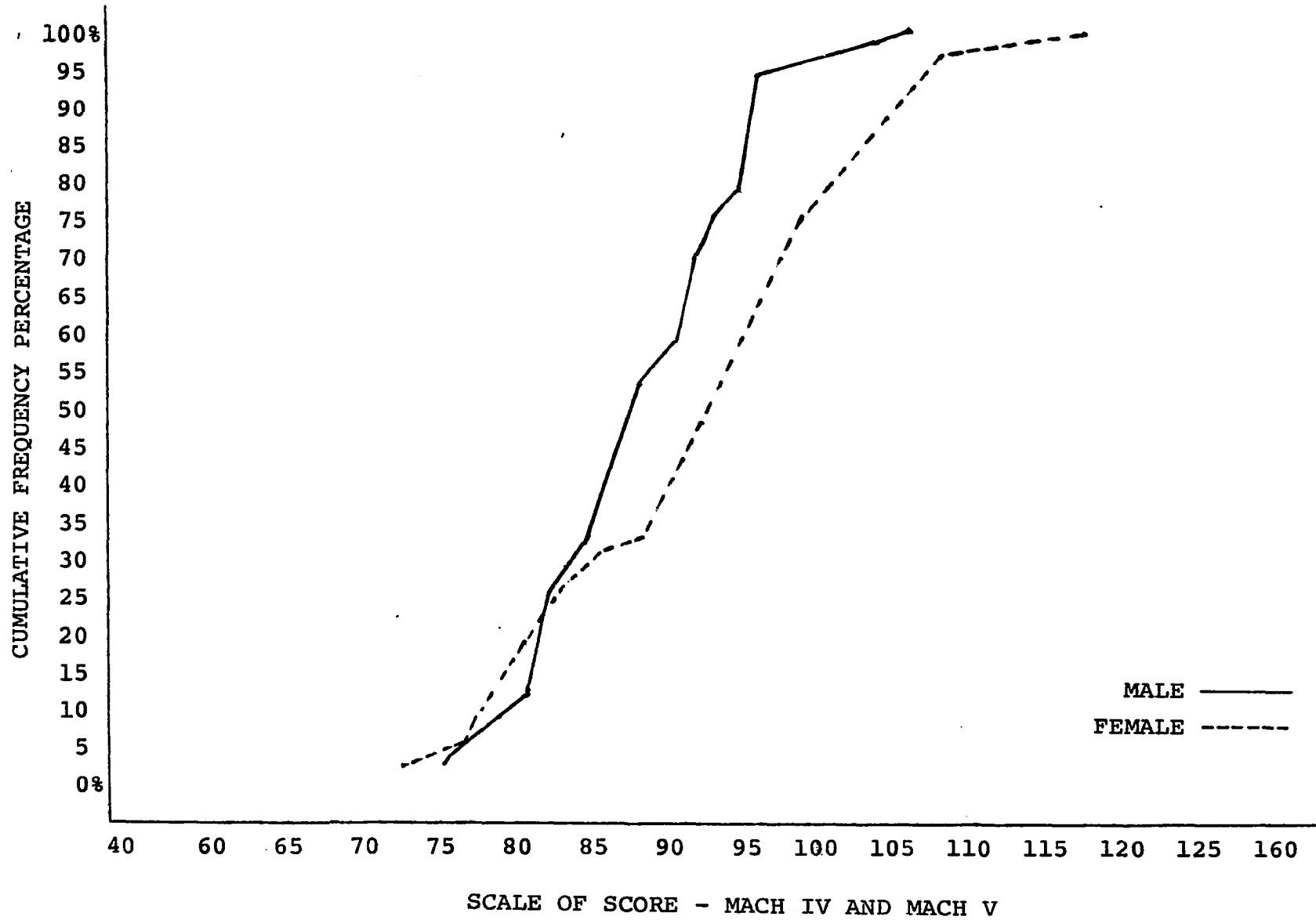


Figure 6  
SMOOTHED FREQUENCY CURVE  
MACH IV AND MACH V CUMULATIVE SCORES

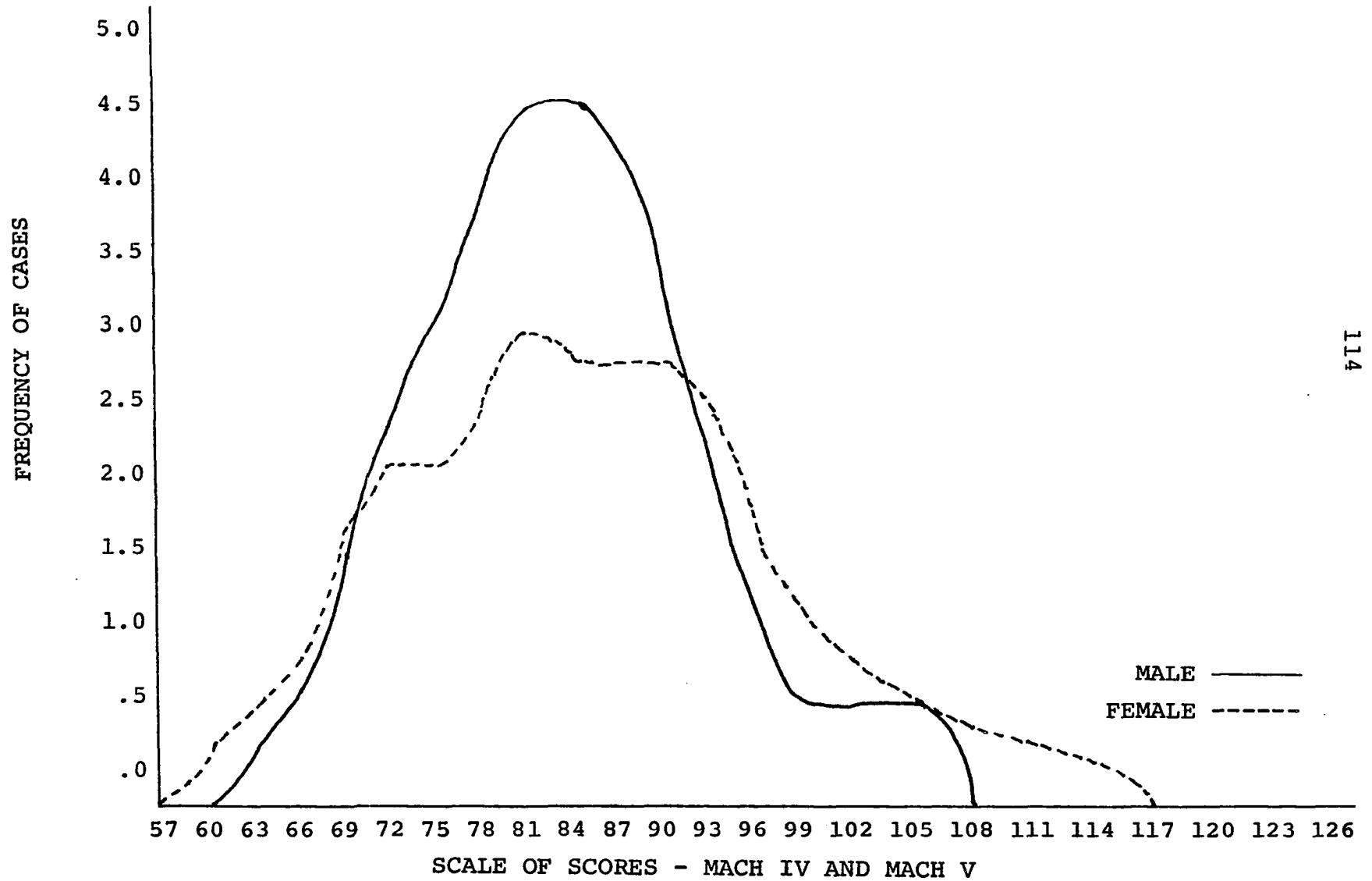


Figure 7  
OGIVE FREQUENCY CURVE  
TACTICS - MACH IV

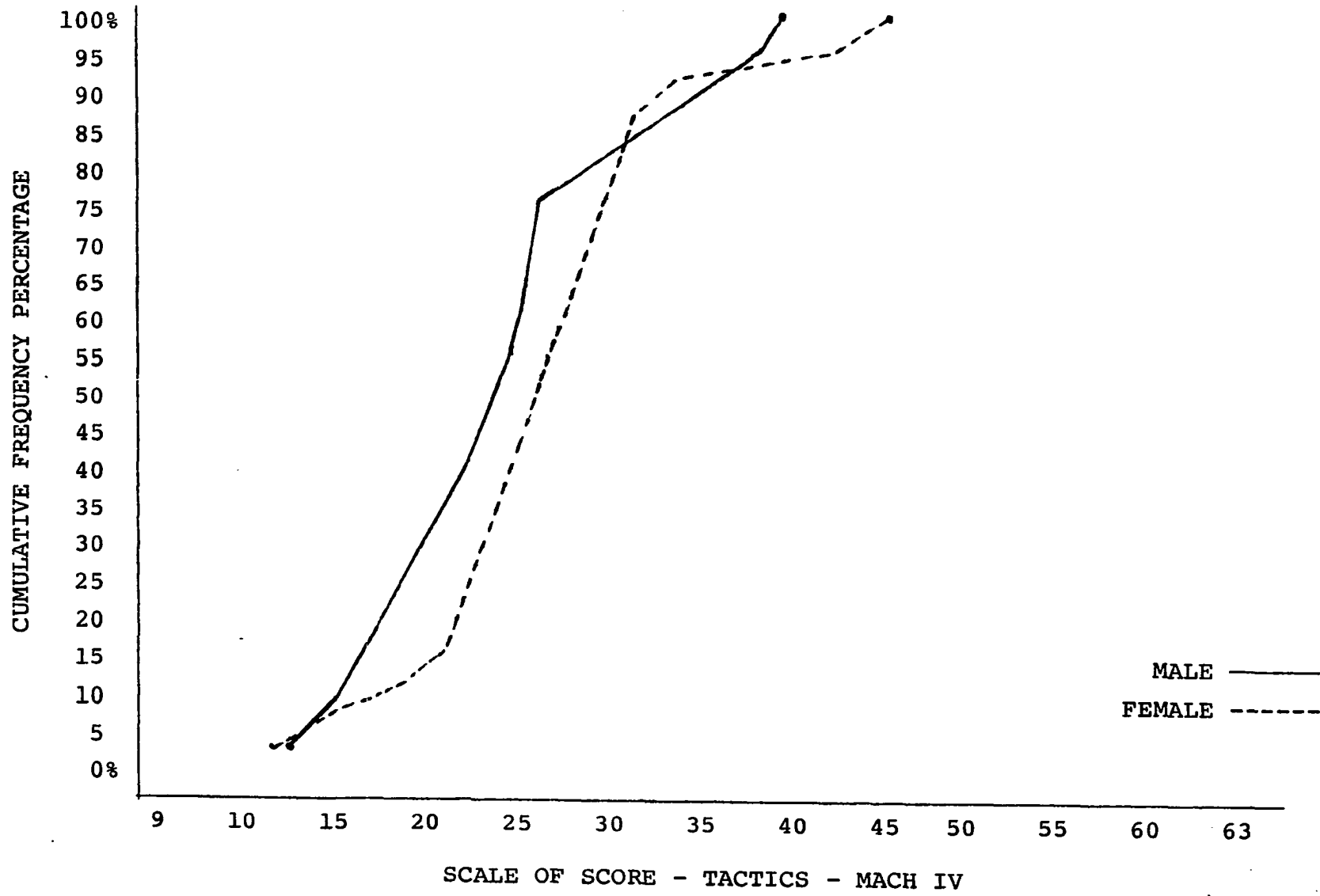


Figure 8  
SMOOTHED FREQUENCY CURVE  
TACTICS - MACH IV

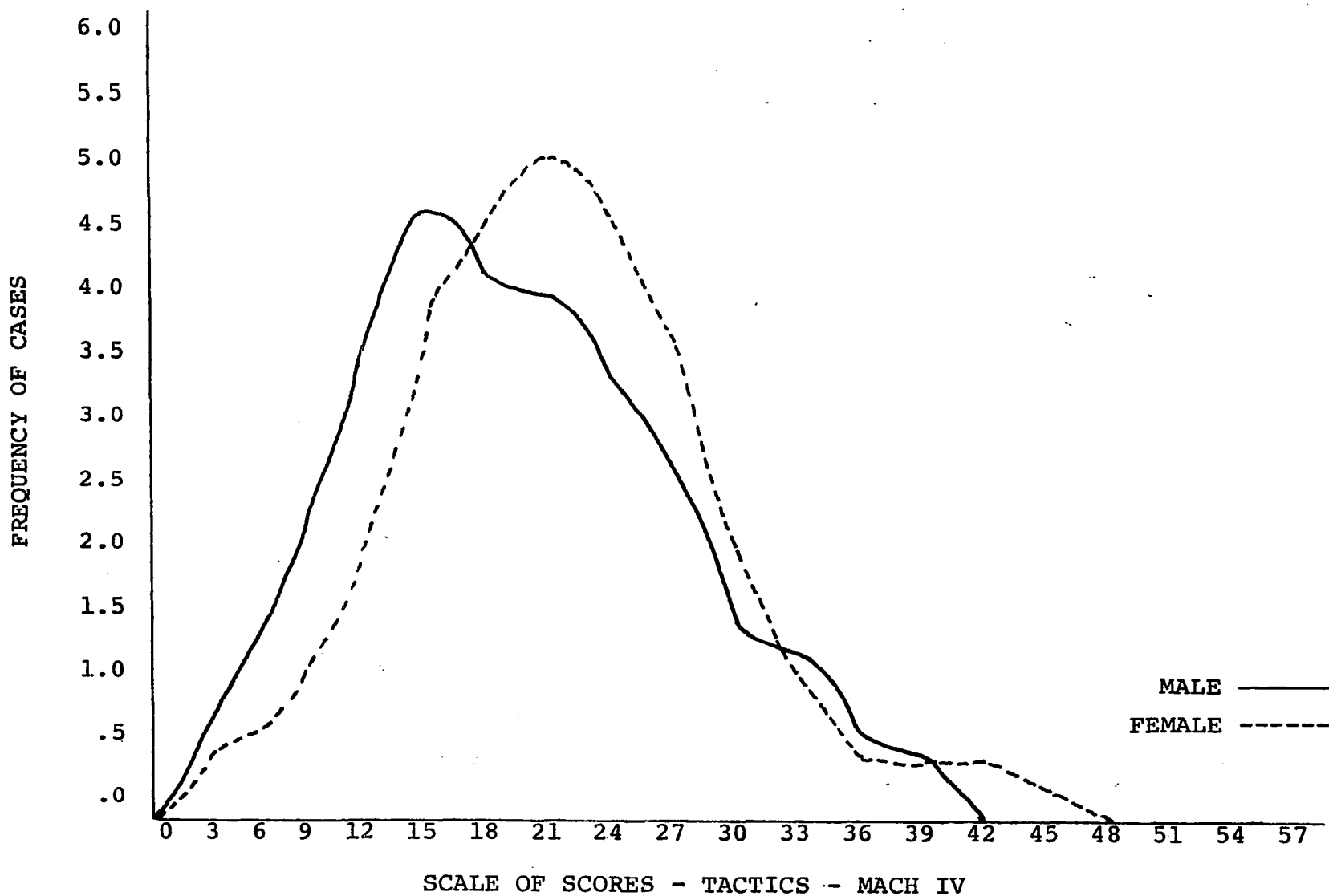


Figure 9  
OGIVE FREQUENCY CURVE  
TACTICS - MACH V

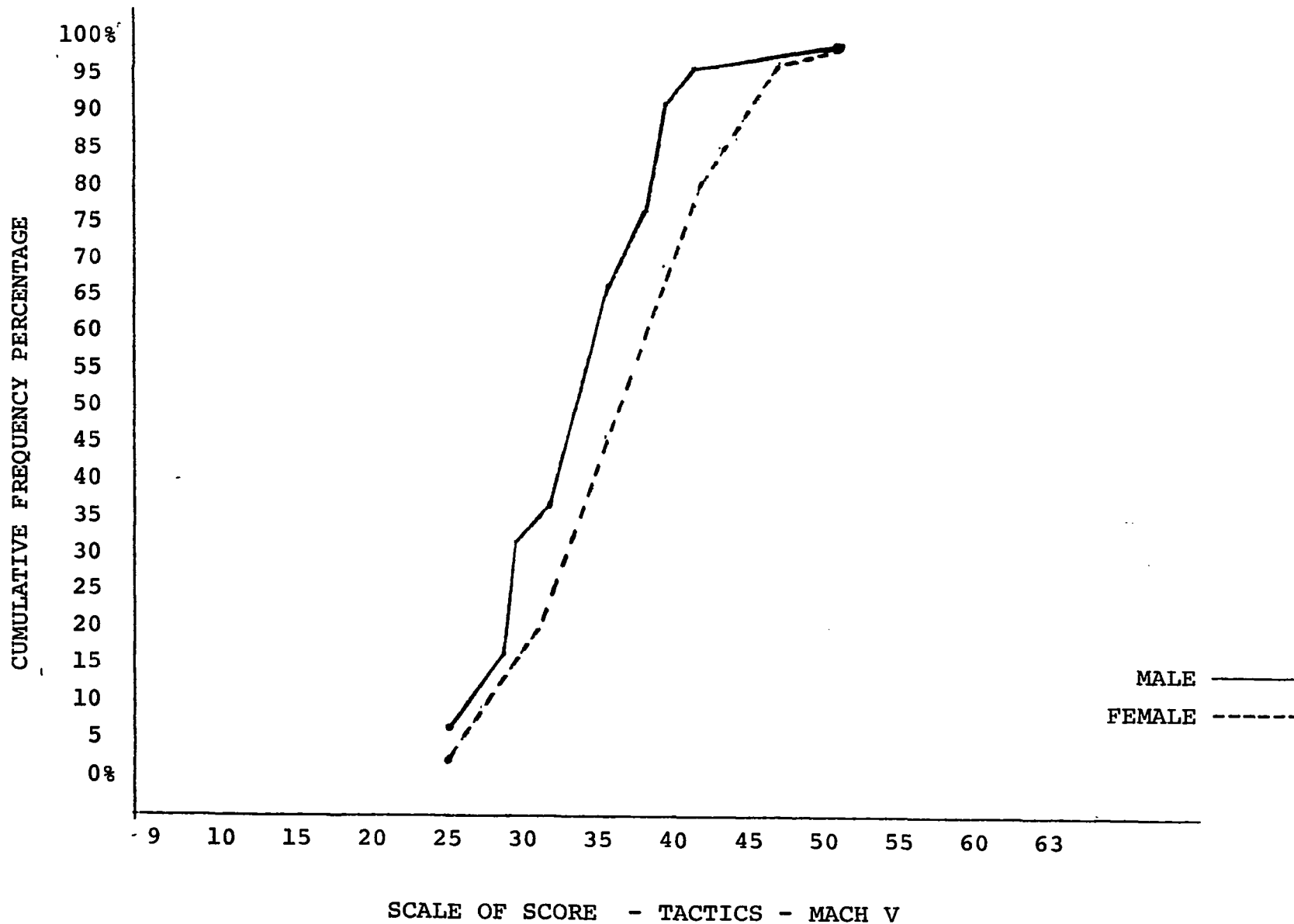


Figure 10  
SMOOTHED FREQUENCY CURVE  
TACTICS - MACH V

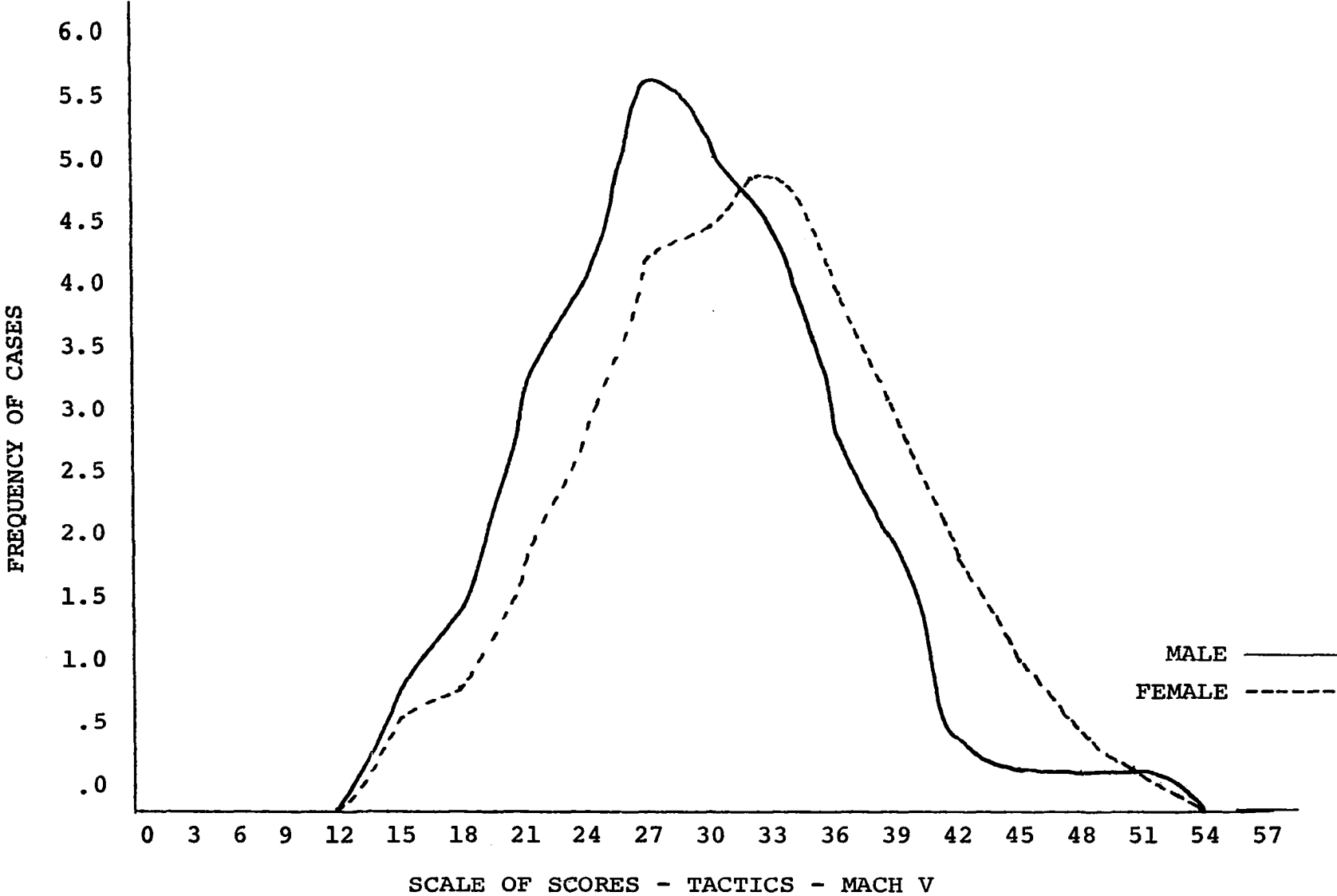




Figure 11  
OGIVE FREQUENCY CURVE  
PHILOSOPHY - MACH IV

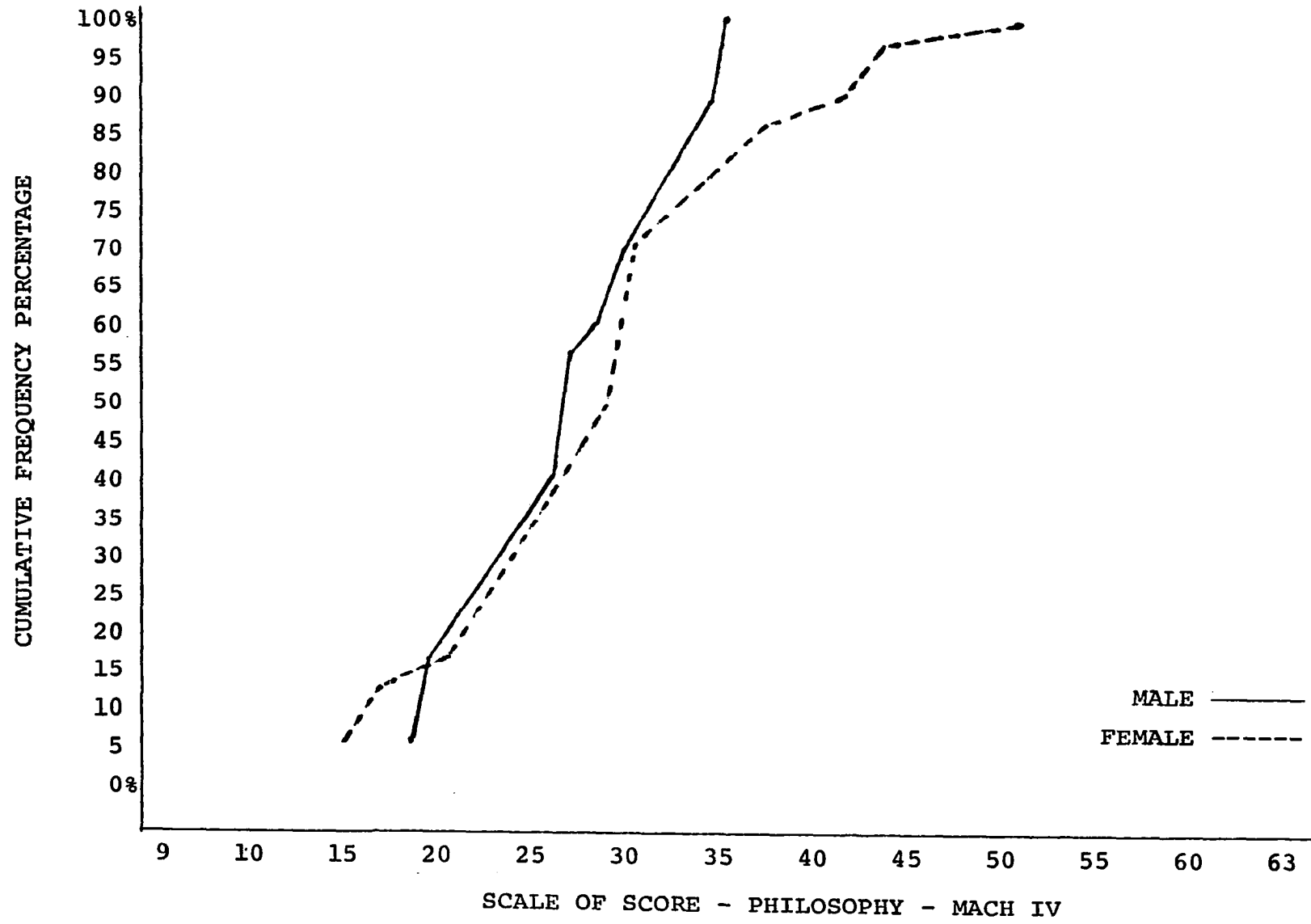


Figure 12  
SMOOTHED FREQUENCY CURVE  
PHILOSOPHY - MACH IV

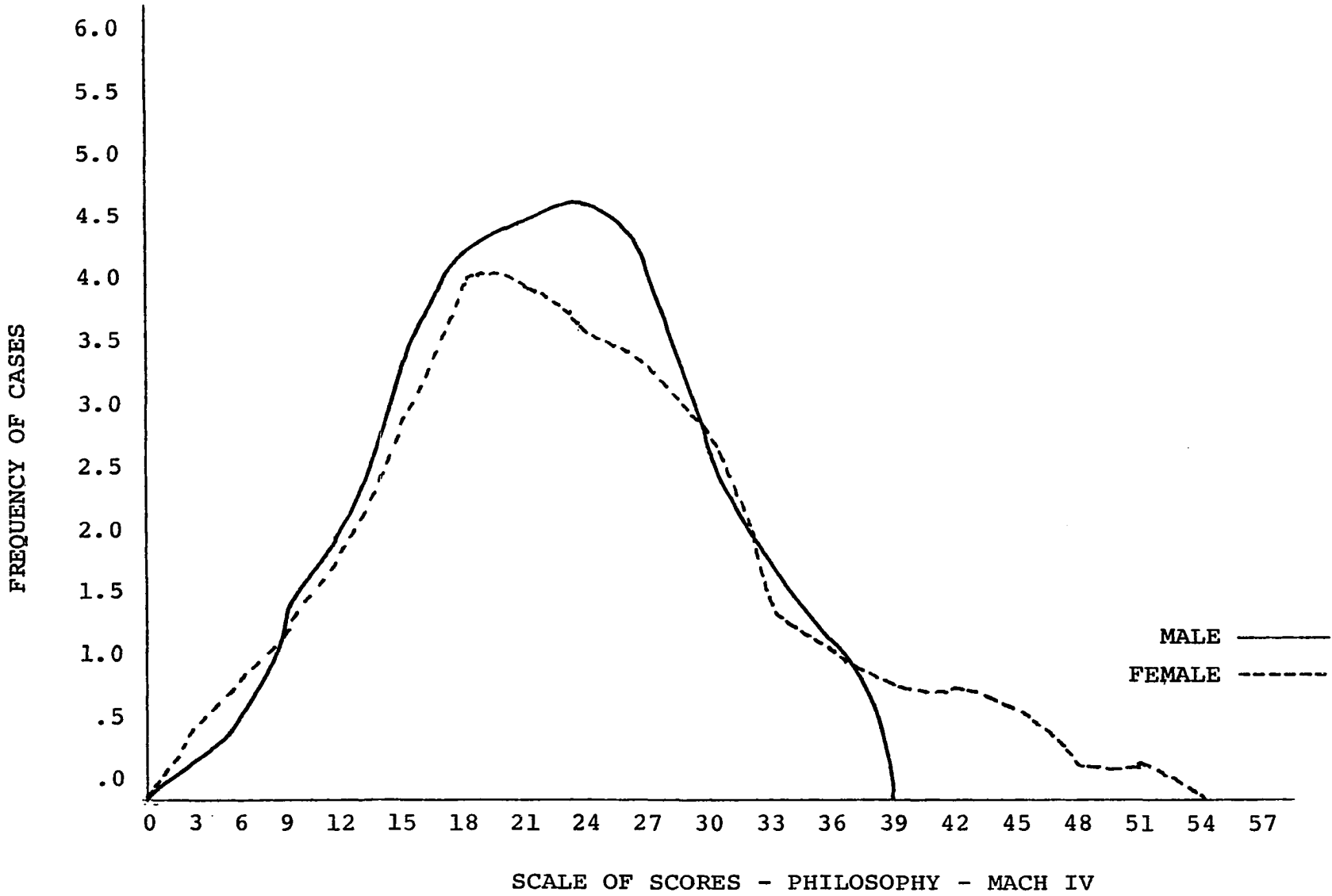


Figure 13  
OGIVE FREQUENCY CURVE  
PHILOSOPHY - MACH V.

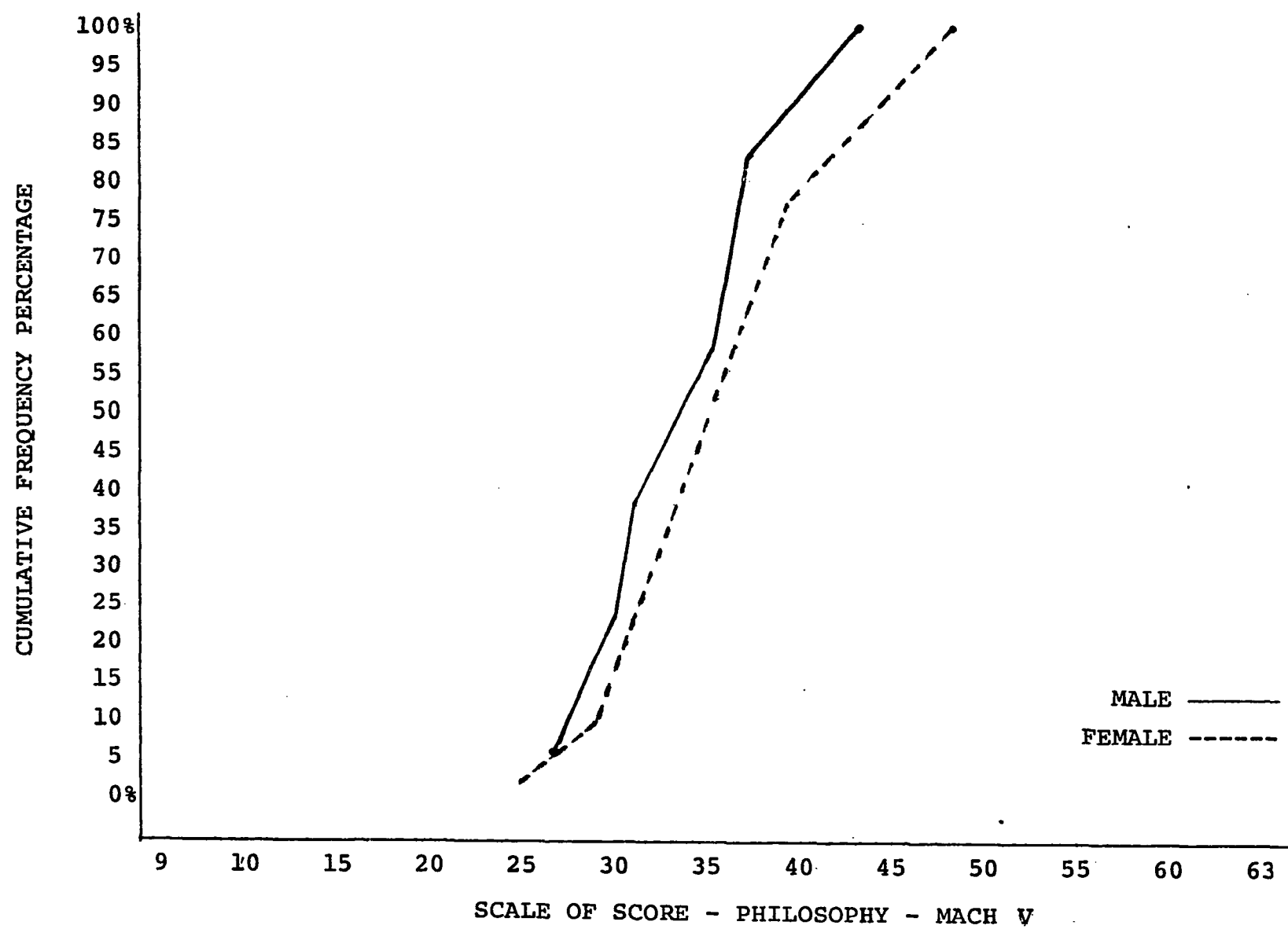


Figure 14  
SMOOTHED FREQUENCY CURVE  
PHILOSOPHY - MACH V

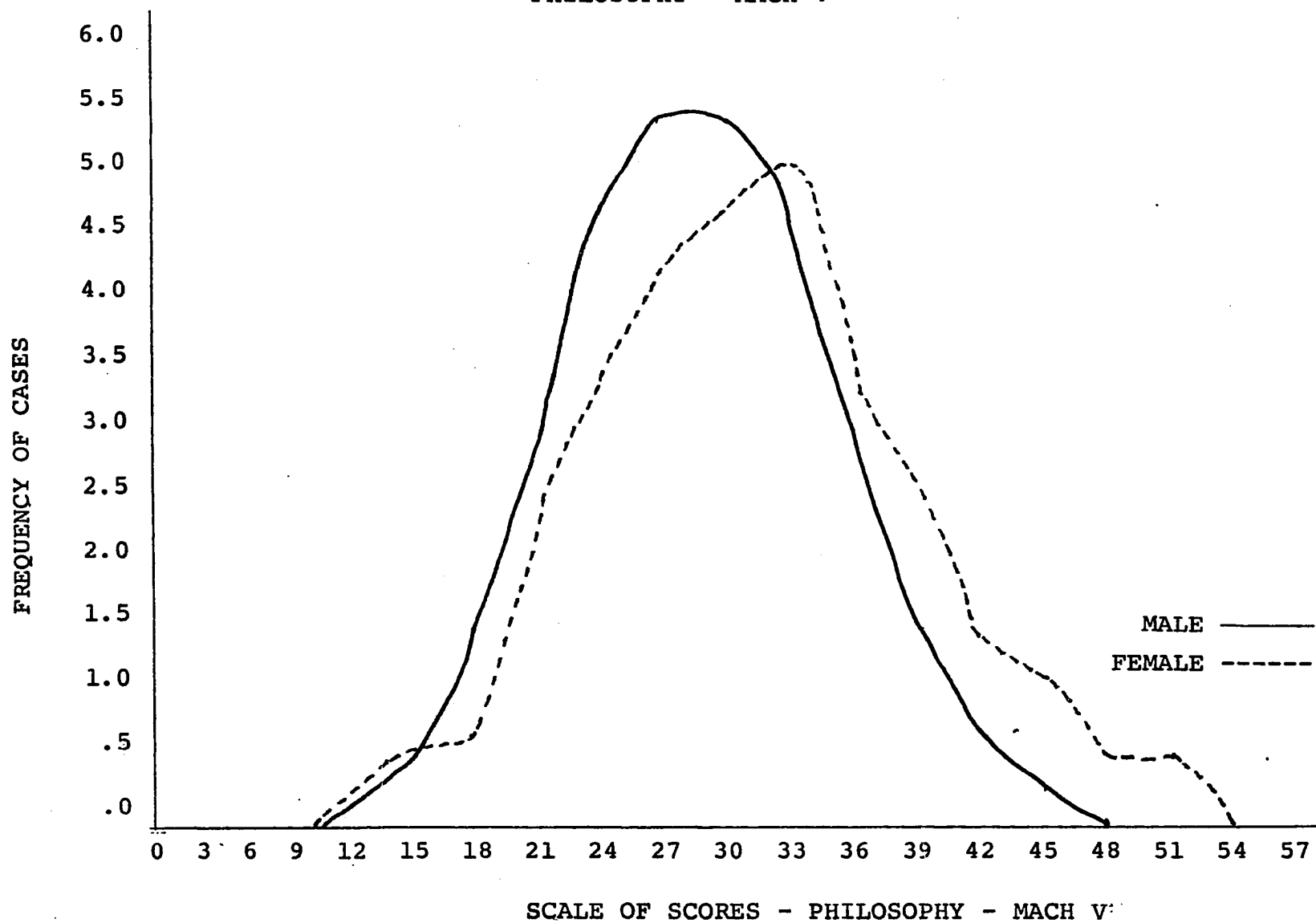


Figure 15  
OGIVE FREQUENCY CURVE  
MORALITY - MACH IV

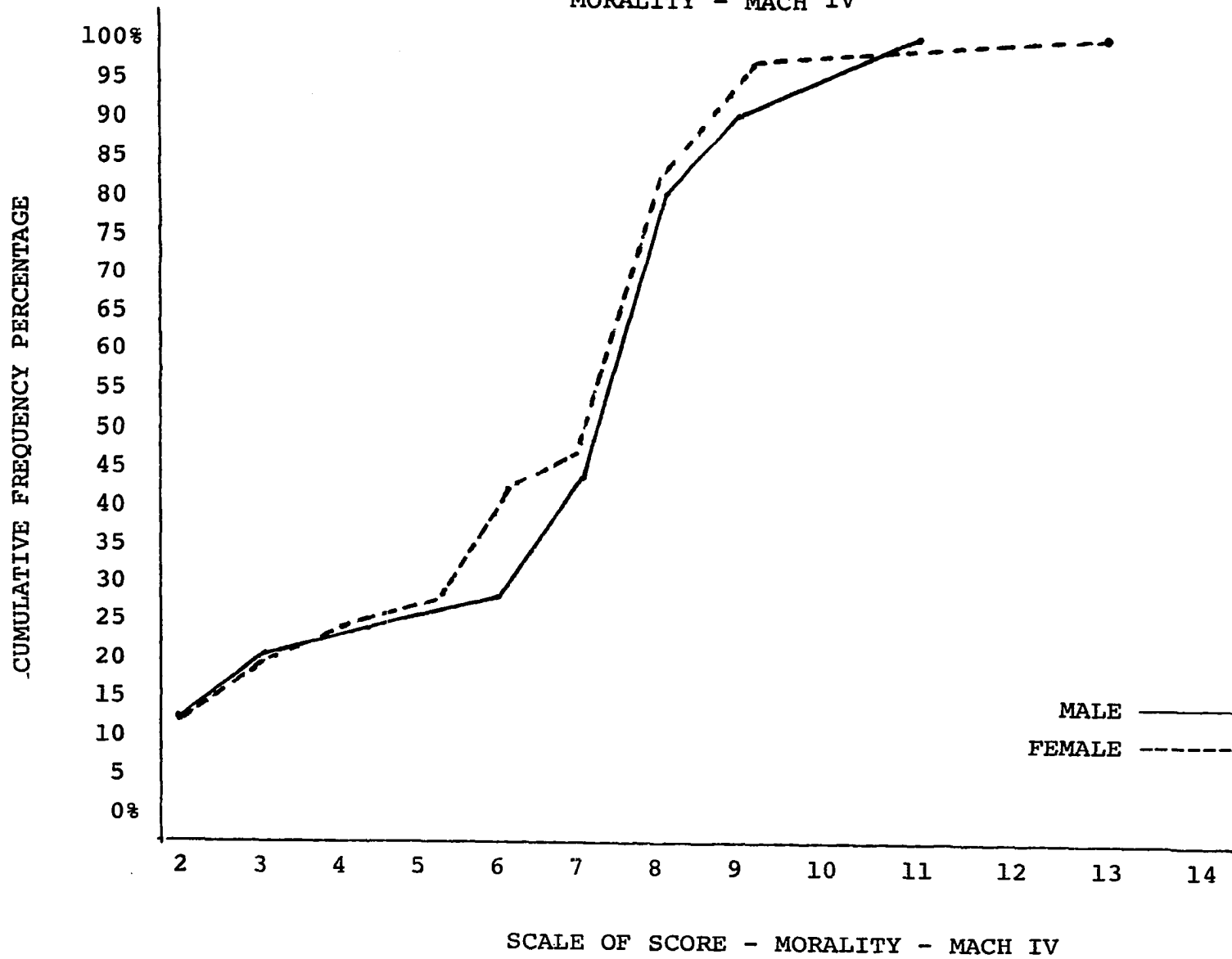


Figure 16  
SMOOTHED FREQUENCY CURVE  
MORALITY MACH IV

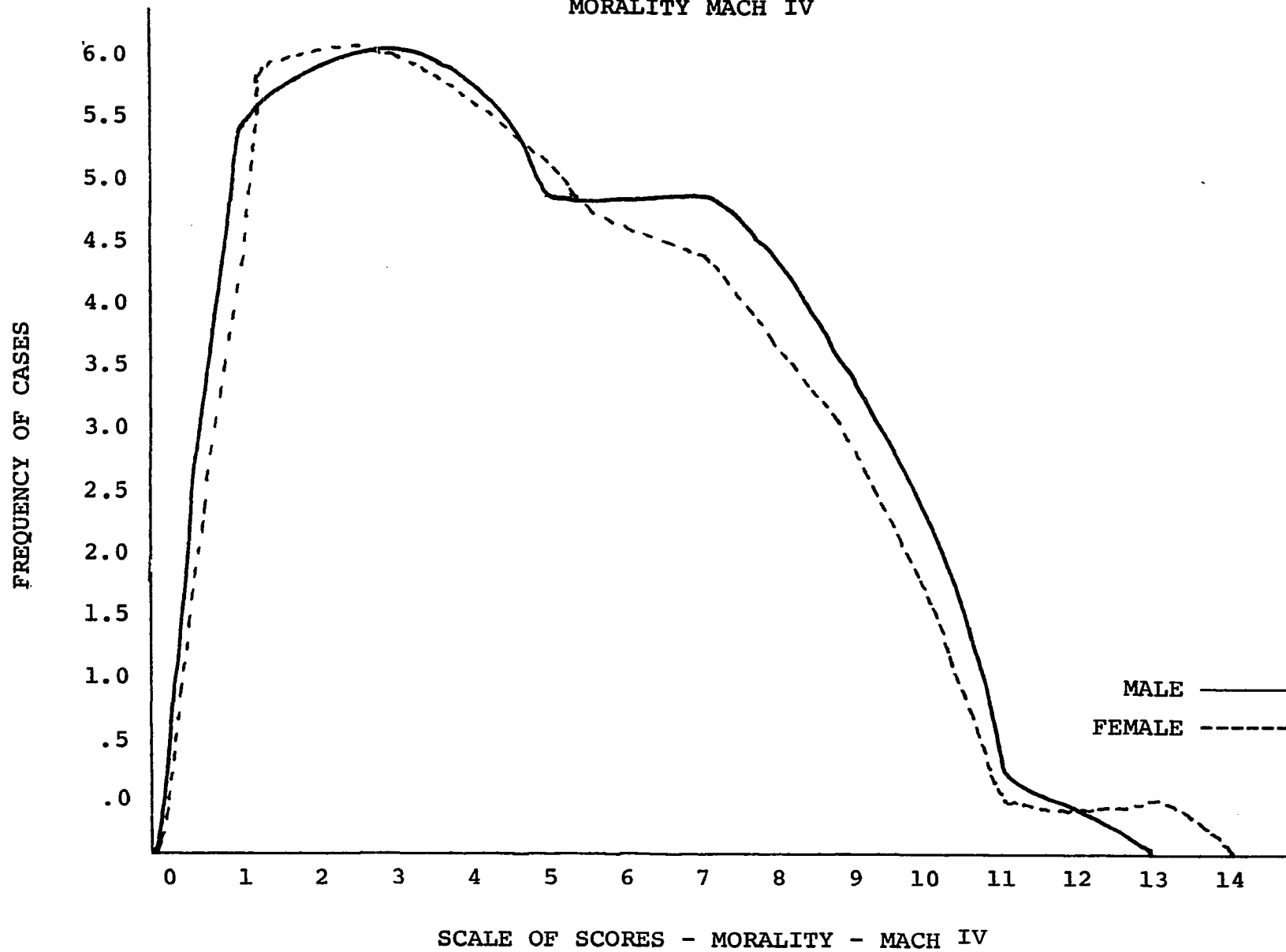


Figure 17  
OGIVE FREQUENCY CURVE  
MORALITY - MACH V

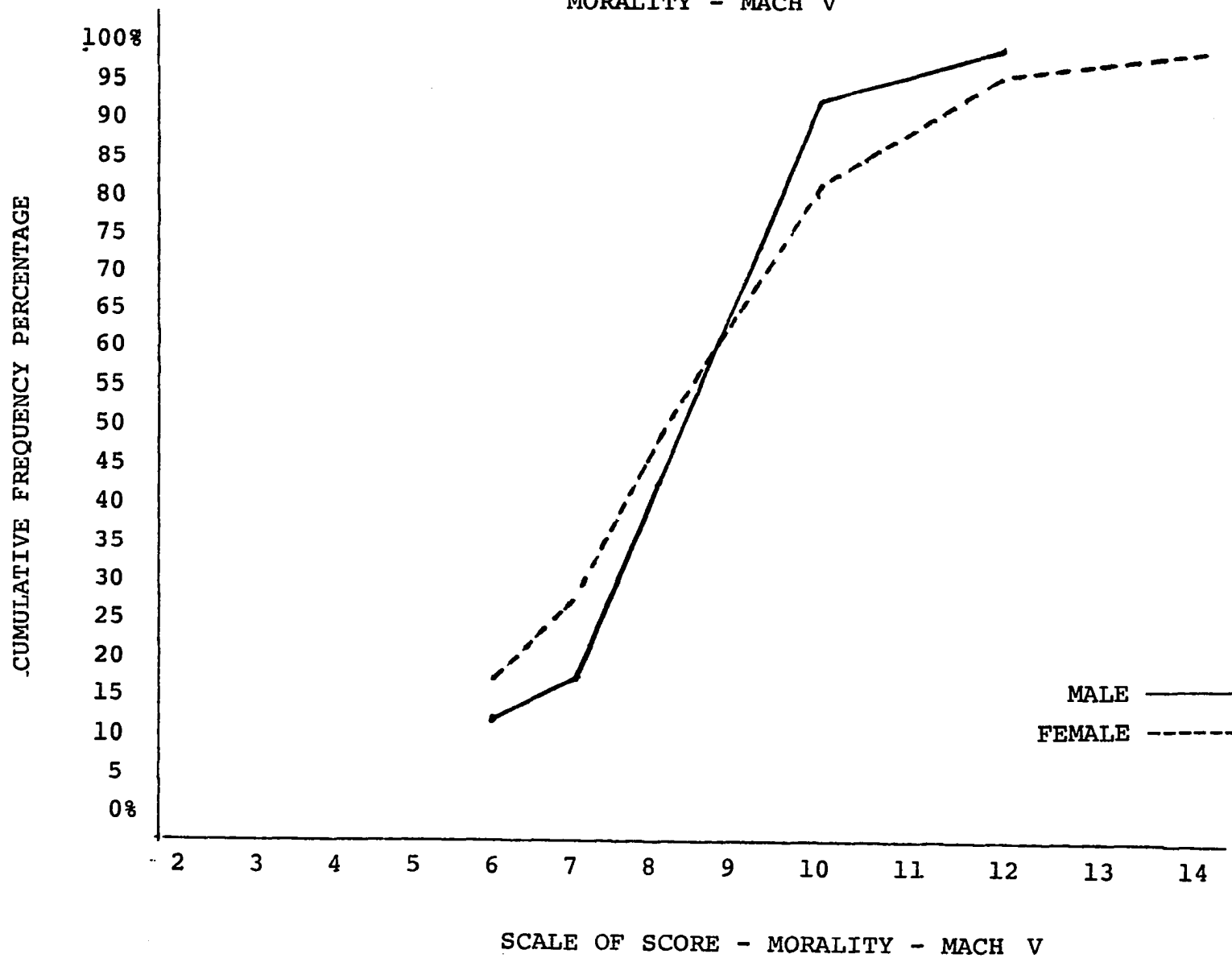
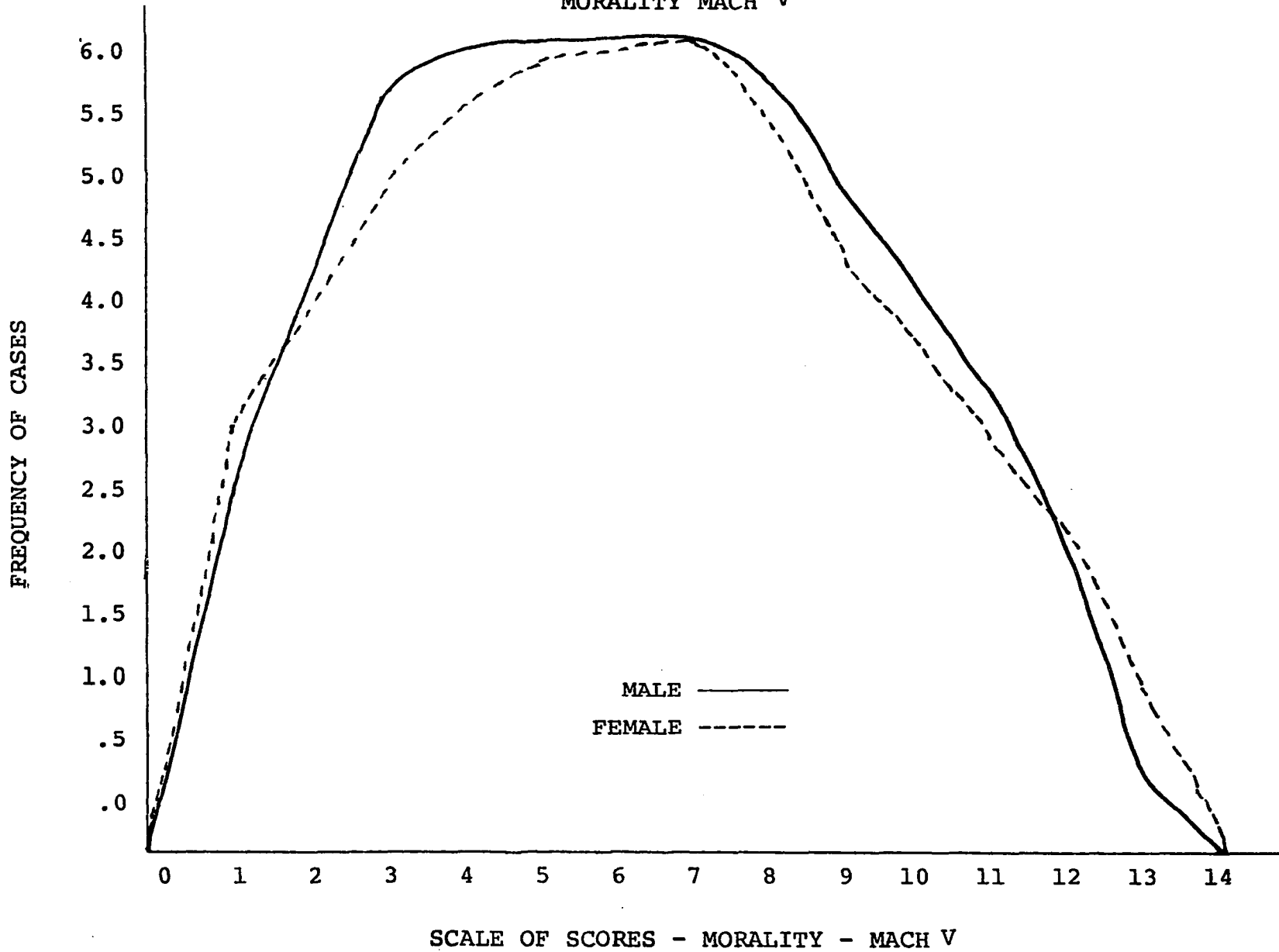


Figure 18  
SMOOTHED FREQUENCY CURVE  
MORALITY MACH V





As a comparative analysis Table 15 is a duplicated representation of the elementary principal population sample of this study compared to the initial study by gender conducted by Christie and Geis in 1970 (Table 4). The Mach IV and Mach V scores were used, by gender, identifying the Mean and Standard Deviation. It should be noted that comparisons between Table 4 and Table 15 are subjective, as the population in the initial study was college students. Scores of male and female elementary school principals may or may not reveal tendencies or trends of the use of Machiavellian manipulation according to gender. Also, the variable of minorities is not included in Table 15.

TABLE 15  
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS BETWEEN MACH IV AND V  
OF 60 ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Aggregate	Mach IV		Mach V	
	M	s.d.	M	s.d.
Males--Elementary School Principals (30)	78.17	9.74	96.87	6.45
Females--Elementary School Principals (30)	81.47	12.65	101.53	11.05

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the manipulative behaviors of elementary school principals and to explore the sources of variability in those behaviors. The investigator attempted to present the findings in the light of both descriptive and statistical analysis. The descriptive findings were utilized in determining the variability of Machiavellian manipulation and Machiavellian behavioral characteristics used by male and female elementary school principals. The statistical analysis was utilized to test the following null hypotheses: (1) There is no significant difference between male and female elementary school principals in their subscription to the use of Machiavellian manipulation; (2) There is no significant difference between male and female elementary school principals with regard to the use of Machiavellian tactics of manipulation; (3) There is no significant difference between male and female elementary school principals with regard to Machiavellian manipulation as it relates to the philosophy of human nature; and (4) There is no

significant difference between male and female elementary school principals with regard to Machiavellian manipulation as it relates to abstract morality.

### Summary of Findings

#### Classification Data

A summary of responses to the Mach IV and Mach V revealed that 54 percent of the responses were from elementary school principals from the metropolitan Oklahoma City area and 35 percent represented elementary school principals from metropolitan Tulsa. The remaining 11 percent of the elementary school principals were from Lawton.

The elementary school principal sample was evenly divided according to gender with 50 percent being male and 50 percent reporting female. The sex category was the only independent variable utilized and investigated in the study.

The study also found that of the total sample of elementary school principals responding from metropolitan Oklahoma City, 53 percent were male and 56 percent were female. The Tulsa metropolitan area contained 33 percent male and 37 percent female. The Lawton elementary school principals responding represented 14 percent male and 7 percent female.

The study made no attempt at examining variables other than gender and their influence on manipulation. Such speculation as to the length of tenure as an elementary school principal, size of faculty, age, geographic location of the school within

the district and others are subjects for future investigations.

#### Questionnaire Data

From the outset, the investigator attempted to present the findings in light of both descriptive and statistical analysis. The descriptive findings were utilized to determine elementary school principals' use of Machiavellian manipulation according to gender and the statistical analysis was utilized to make an analysis of the significant differences by gender in the use of the Machiavellian manipulation principles.

#### Machiavellian Manipulation

The Mach IV revealed that while there was not a statistically significant difference between male and female elementary school principals, there were implied differences subject to further investigation. The minimum score on the Mach IV for both males and females was 61, and the maximum score was 101 for males and 110 for females, a difference in range of 9 for the females. The males scored less pro-Machiavellian as displayed in the Ogive Frequency Curve (Figure 1) and the dispersion of the females was more pro-Machiavellian as viewed in Figure 2. The range of variance of subscription to Machiavellian practices of manipulation as illustrated in the Mach IV was illustrated to a greater degree by the female elementary school principals than by their male counterparts.

The Mach V, a more thorough measurement, yielded even more supportive information to the suggestion that female

elementary school principals may vary more in their use of the Machiavellian concepts of manipulation than the male principals. The minimum score of the male principals was 86 and the maximum was 110, a range of 26. However, the minimum score for the women was 81 and the maximum was 126, a range of 45. Thus, while there is no statistically significant difference between groups, the female principals score the lowest, less Machiavellian, and the highest, more Machiavellian, than the male principals. The degree of cumulative frequencies is observed in the Ogive Curve (Figure 3), and the dispersion is illustrated in Figure 4. The differences in the ranges of scores between males and females suggest that females are much more varied, from low to high, in their use of Machiavellian manipulation than male elementary school principals, suggesting variance and possible extreme differences at the low and high ends of the scoring.

To totally assess the significance of the Machiavellian manipulation use by male and female elementary school principals, the Mach IV and the Mach V were combined to present a cumulative perspective of the scores by the population of principles sampled. The cumulative ranges varied from 75 to 106 for the male elementary school principals and from 73 to 116 for the female elementary principals. The difference in the range of scores was 12, indicating a more diverse degree of dispersion for the female principals. While statistically there is no significant difference between the two groups in the use of Machiavellian

manipulation, the dispersion and frequencies illustrated in Figures 5 and 6 indicate that the female principals expressed a greater variance of acceptance and rejection of Machiavellian manipulation than the male principals. Such dispersion may suggest that while some female elementary principals may not manipulate, others utilize the behavioral skill much more frequently. Thus, the image of either the totally manipulating female principal, or the nonmanipulating female principal, one who rarely manipulates, is subject for further investigation.

Therefore, while the sum totals of the Mach IV, the Mach V, and the cumulative combined scores of both, suggest that female elementary school principals score somewhat higher in Machiavellian manipulation than male principals, the dispersion and frequencies from low (non-Machiavellian) to high (pro-Machiavellian) suggest that the female principals are somewhat more diverse and varied in their use of the behavioral characteristics of manipulation than the male principals.

#### Machiavellian Tactics

The use of Machiavellian Tactics of manipulation are measured in the Mach IV. From a total range of 9 to 63, the male principals scored a minimum of 13 and a maximum of 39, a total range of 26. The female principals scored a minimum of 12 and a maximum score of 45, a range of 33. Although the difference in range between the male and female principals is 7, the extended range of the female principals indicates more

dispersion, skewed toward the more pro-Machiavellian manipulator. Figures 7 and 8 illustrate the degrees of cumulative frequency percentages and frequencies of scores as they relate to this dispersion.

The Mach V measurements of Tactics of Machiavellian manipulation also reveal a tendency toward a more pro-Machiavellian skewed dispersion for the female elementary school principals. The minimum and maximum scores for both male and female elementary principals are the same, 26 and 51. However, the variance and dispersion is illustrated as more diverse for the female principals as displayed in the Ogive Frequency Curve (Figure 9) and the Smoothed Frequency Curve (Figure 10). Thus, as in the Mach IV, while the differences in Machiavellian manipulation are not statistically significant, the ranges, dispersion, and frequencies of the female elementary school principals are more varied and diverse than those of the male principals, suggesting possible future research as to the disparity.

The Machiavellian Tactics are utilized by both male and female elementary school principals. However, the degree of usage is more varied for the females than males. While some female principals may use limited Machiavellian Tactics, other females are indicating a high adherence of the Machiavellian principles of Tactics.

Machiavellian Philosophy of Human Nature

The Mach IV measurement of the Machiavellian Philosophy of Human Nature perhaps is the most revealing difference between the male and female elementary school principals. Scored on a range of 9, low Machiavellian, and 63, high Machiavellian, the differences between groups suggest interesting considerations. The male principals scored a minimum of 18 and a maximum of 35, a total range of 17. The female principals scored a minimum of 15 and a maximum of 51, a total range of 36. The difference in range between males and females is 19. However, while the range is wide between groups, the cumulative scores are not statistically significant for the Mach IV Machiavellian Philosophy of Human Nature. The frequency of cumulative percentages and dispersion are displayed in Figure 11 and Figure 12. The dispersion and variance for the female principals and their frequencies are skewed toward a more pro-Machiavellian approach than the male principals.

Supporting the variance in ranges are the scores from the Mach V for the Machiavellian Philosophy of Human Nature. The minimum score for the male principals was 27 and the maximum was 43, a range of 16. The minimum score for the female elementary principals was 25 and the maximum was 49, a range of 24. The total range difference between the male and female principals was 8. The Ogive Frequency Curve for cumulative frequency percentages (Figure 13) and the Smoothed Frequency



Curve for frequencies of cases and dispersion (Figure 14), indicate a somewhat more skewed score for the female principals than the males.

The dispersion of scores from the Mach IV and Mach V for the Machiavellian Philosophy of Human Nature indicates a disparity of adherence to the Machiavellian behavioral trait of Philosophy of Human Nature by the two groups. While the male and female elementary principals scored on a wide range by comparison, the cumulative scores of the two groups were not statistically significant. However, the range of scores by the female principals was greater than any of the three behavioral traits measured by the Mach IV and Mach V. The implication of the wide dispersion of the female principals is that of the optimistic, subjective, emotional non-Machiavellian philosophy versus the more pessimistic, objective, emotionally detached pro-Machiavellian perspective. The range of scores for the female principals includes both extreme viewpoints.

The smaller range of dispersion represented in the male principals' scores suggests a more "middle-of-the road" point of view. The overall suggestion is that the female principals may manipulate more, but their manipulation may assume the form ranging from the extreme eternal optimist as opposed to the individual who is naturally more pessimistic about human nature. The interesting question of which extreme provides the individual with the most success as an elementary principal is reason to pursue future investigation. Also, does the wide

range imply that women are not as "conditioned" to a "middle ground" philosophy of human nature as is indicated by the lesser degree of range demonstrated by the scores of the male principals? And, would research utilizing only the extreme ends of the ranges of scoring reveal more statistical proof that there are measurable differences in Machiavellian manipulation by gender?

#### Machiavellian Abstract Morality

The measurement of Machiavellian Abstract Morality is perhaps the most limited manipulation characteristic measured in the Mach IV and Mach V. This is attributed to the fact that only two questions from each instrument pertain to the descriptive manipulative trait as utilized by Christie and Geis. Figures 15 through 18 illustrate an extremely close scoring between the two groups of male and female elementary school principals, including no significant statistical differences. Also, the cumulative frequency percentages (Figures 15 and 17) of the Ogive Curves and the dispersion, skewness and individual frequencies (Figures 16 and 18) displayed by the Smoothed Frequency Curves revealed the limited variances between the groups.

If the investigator had pursued the concept of morality and manipulation as another independent variable, other instrumentation would have been required. However, the influence of morality and values on manipulation suggests further investigation. The question of manipulation and morality is intriguing,

for can one manipulate successfully and not violate personal codes of morality, ethics and values?

### Conclusions

It was concluded that the variability and use of Machiavellian manipulation by elementary school principals according to gender resulted in the rejection of the following null hypotheses:

1. There is no statistically significant difference between male and female elementary school principals in their subscription to the use of Machiavellian manipulation.

2. There is no statistically significant difference between male and female elementary school principals, with regard to the use of Machiavellian tactics of manipulation.

3. There is no statistically significant difference between male and female elementary school principals with regard to Machiavellian manipulation as it relates to the philosophy of human nature.

4. There is no statistically significant difference between male and female elementary school principals with regard to Machiavellian manipulation as it relates to abstract morality.

Other conclusions reached through descriptive findings and statistical analysis of the data are:

5. The use of manipulation as an administrative skill or personal behavioral characteristic does vary to some degree according to gender.

6. Female elementary school principals have a wider range and variance in their adherence to the Machiavellian concept of manipulation than male elementary principals.

7. Female elementary principals are to some degree more accepting of the use of Machiavellian manipulation than male elementary principals.

8. The use of Machiavellian Tactics of manipulation were more varied among the female principals than the male principals.

9. The Machiavellian Philosophy of Human Nature revealed the widest range and dispersion between the two groups of principals.

10. Male and female elementary school principals do not equally share the same Machiavellian Philosophy of Human Nature.

11. Female elementary school principals are more pro-Machiavellian in their acceptance of the characteristic of the Philosophy of Human Nature than male principals.

12. Male and female elementary school principals share, to some degree, the same perspective of the use of Machiavellian Abstract Morality.

13. Female elementary school principals are not more manipulative than male elementary school principals as it relates to Machiavellian manipulation.

14. Male elementary school principals are not more

manipulative than female elementary school principals as it relates to Machiavellian manipulation.

15. Machiavellian manipulation is, to some degree, a behavioral characteristic of elementary school principals.

#### Recommendations

As a result of this study, the implications of manipulation as an adult developmental pattern and the use of the skill by professional educational administrators are extremely interesting. Manipulation has been perceived in this study as a positive administrative/managerial skill, a skill as relevant to the administrator as the more common skills normally associated with management such as problem solving, planning, decision making and others. Therefore, it is the recommendation of this investigator that further research be conducted concerning the impact and use of manipulation by the administrator/manager as a relevant legitimate management skill.

Too often manipulation has been perceived as negative and uncharacteristic behavior of managers/administrators. However, this study revealed that not only do all elementary school principals subscribe to the concept of manipulation to some degree, but there is also no singular distinguishing difference of the use of manipulation by either males or females. The traditional stereotyped image of the female principals who may be either too timid or weak to make decision, or so subject

to stress that whenever stressful situations occur she may yield to the pressures, should be viewed more objectively. Manipulation is not specifically the purview of the male role model of elementary principals. Nor is the converse stereotype of the constantly manipulating female professional, achieving the ends no matter what the implications of the means, necessarily true. Male elementary principals also manipulate. The degree of manipulation and subsequent ethical, moral evaluations as to the method are subjective judgments. Therefore, it is recommended that the behavioral trait of manipulation be viewed objectively as any managerial skill associated with the role and title of elementary principal. Furthermore, it is recommended that the dissemination of such information be made available to those responsible for the employment of future administrators.

If manipulation is thus identified as a skill relevant to elementary principals, then perhaps the total scope of training and education of such professionals needs be examined. Presently there are numerous programs designed specifically for the purpose of providing managerial skills for the female professional. Many of these programs limit attendance only to women. Also, many management seminars which are conducted are attended primarily by males, as males dominate the work force at the professional/administrative levels of management. However, if male and female elementary school principals do not differ significantly in their use of Machiavellian manipulation,

do they differ significantly in other managerial/administrative skills, such as decision making, problem solving, motivation, planning, communicating, and others? Perhaps programs designed as "exclusive" for specific gender tend to perpetuate, not diminish, the demand for special training for women. It is this investigator's recommendation that the "mainstreaming" of all professionals, regardless of sex, be pursued in more depth as a possible alternative approach to the overall development of managerial professional skills by male and female managers/administrators.

Many other variables may provide subsequent information relevant to the concept of manipulation as a positive administrative skill. This study was limited specifically only to the independent variable of gender and the dependent variable of manipulation. It was the intention of the investigator to first establish the fundamental foundation of "differences" in manipulation by gender before pursuing why differences may or may not occur. However, it is the recommendation of this investigator that other variables be studied as they may impact the career professional. Such personal characteristics as changing cultural attitudes, empathy, ethics, values, morality, and others perhaps may provide interesting research. Also, such variables as age, tenure, years of education, number of staff, and others, combined with characteristics such as power, authority, success, locus of control, decision making, and others, may yield most interesting data for further research.

It is finally recommended that continuing efforts should be directed toward a study of the adult development of a sound theoretical or philosophical basis for the teaching and utilization, by both sexes, of sound, proven administrative managerial and behavioral skills.



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APPENDIX

MACH IV AND MACH V QUESTIONNAIRES

APPENDIX

MACH IV QUESTIONNAIRE

Elementary School Principal

Male \_\_\_\_\_

Female \_\_\_\_\_

READ EACH STATEMENT CAREFULLY - then indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by circling the corresponding number from the following choices:

- |                    |                       |
|--------------------|-----------------------|
| 1 - Agree Strongly | 4 - Disagree Slightly |
| 2 - Agree Somewhat | 5 - Disagree Somewhat |
| 3 - Agree Slightly | 6 - Disagree Strongly |

Work quickly and remember that first impressions are usually best in these matters. Please give your opinion on each statement.

1. Never tell anyone the real reason you did something unless it is useful to do so. 1 2 3 4 5 6
2. The best way to handle people is to tell them what they want to hear. 1 2 3 4 5 6
3. One should take action only when sure it is morally right. 1 2 3 4 5 6
4. Most people are basically good and kind. 1 2 3 4 5 6
5. It is safest to assume that all people have a vicious streak and it will come out when they are given a chance. 1 2 3 4 5 6
6. Honest is the best policy in all cases. 1 2 3 4 5 6
7. There is no excuse for lying to someone else. 1 2 3 4 5 6

8. Generally speaking, men won't work hard unless they're forced to do so. 1 2 3 4 5 6
9. All in all, it is better to be humble and honest than to be important and dishonest. 1 2 3 4 5 6
10. When you ask someone to do something for you, it is best to give the real reasons for wanting it rather than giving reasons which carry more weight. 1 2 3 4 5 6
11. Most people who get ahead in the world lead clean moral lives. 1 2 3 4 5 6
12. Anyone who completely trusts anyone else is asking for trouble. 1 2 3 4 5 6
13. The biggest difference between most criminals and other people is that the criminals are stupid enough to get caught. 1 2 3 4 5 6
14. Most men are brave. 1 2 3 4 5 6
15. It is wise to flatter important people. 1 2 3 4 5 6
16. It is impossible to be good in all respects. 1 2 3 4 5 6
17. Barnum was wrong when he said that there's a sucker born every minute. 1 2 3 4 5 6
18. It is hard to get ahead without cutting corners here and there. 1 2 3 4 5 6
19. People suffering from incurable diseases should have the choice of being put painlessly to death. 1 2 3 4 5 6
20. Most men forget more easily the death of their father than the loss of their property. 1 2 3 4 5 6



## MACH IV QUESTIONNAIRE

## Likert Scoring Procedure

1. 7 6 5 3 2 1
2. 7 6 5 3 2 1
3. 1 2 3 5 6 7
4. 1 2 3 5 6 7
5. 7 6 5 3 2 1
6. 1 2 3 5 6 7
7. 1 2 3 5 6 7
8. 7 6 5 3 2 1
9. 1 2 3 5 6 7
10. 1 2 3 5 6 7
11. 1 2 3 5 6 7
12. 7 6 5 3 2 1
13. 7 6 5 3 2 1
14. 1 2 3 5 6 7
15. 7 6 5 3 2 1
16. 1 2 3 5 6 7
17. 1 2 3 5 6 7
18. 7 6 5 3 2 1
19. 7 6 5 3 2 1
20. 7 6 5 3 2 1

MACH V QUESTIONNAIRE

Elementary School Principal

Male \_\_\_\_\_

Female \_\_\_\_\_

You will find 20 groups of statements listed below. Each group is composed of three statements. Each statement refers to a way of thinking about people or things in general. They reflect opinions and not matters of fact -- there are no "right" or "wrong" answers and different people have been found to agree with different statements.

Please read each of the three statements in each group. Then decide first which of the statements is most true or comes the closest to describing your own beliefs. Place a plus (+) in the space provided.

Just decide which of the remaining two statements is most false or is the farthest from your own beliefs. Place the minus (-) in the space provided. Leave a blank space in each set of statements. Each set of statements must have a plus (+), a minus (-), and a blank.

1. \_\_\_\_\_ A. It takes more imagination to be a successful criminal than a successful business man.  
 \_\_\_\_\_ B. The phrase "the road to hell is paved with good intentions" contains a lot of truth.  
 \_\_\_\_\_ C. Most men forget more easily the death of their father than the loss of their property.
2. \_\_\_\_\_ A. Men are more concerned with the car they drive than with the clothes their wives wear.  
 \_\_\_\_\_ B. It is very important that imagination and creativity in children be cultivated.  
 \_\_\_\_\_ C. People suffering from incurable diseases should have the choice of being put painlessly to death.
3. \_\_\_\_\_ A. Never tell anyone the real reason you did something unless it is useful to do so.  
 \_\_\_\_\_ B. The well-being of the individual is the goal that should be worked for before anything else.  
 \_\_\_\_\_ C. Once a truly intelligent person makes up his mind about the answer to a problem he rarely continues to think about it.
4. \_\_\_\_\_ A. People are getting so lazy and self-indulgent that it is bad for our country.  
 \_\_\_\_\_ B. The best way to handle people is to tell them what they want to hear.  
 \_\_\_\_\_ C. It would be a good thing if people were kinder to others less fortunate than themselves.

5.  A. Most people are basically good and kind.  
 B. The best criteria for a wife or husband is compatibility--other characteristics are nice but not essential.  
 C. Only after a man has gotten what he wants from life should he concern himself with the injustices in the world.
6.  A. Most people who get ahead in the world lead clean, moral lives.  
 B. Any man worth his salt shouldn't be blamed for putting his career above his family.  
 C. People would be better off if they were concerned less with how to do things and more with what to do.
7.  A. A good teacher is one who points out unanswered questions rather than gives explicit answers.  
 B. When you ask someone to do something for you, it is best to give the real reasons for wanting it rather than giving reasons which might  
 C. A person's job is the best single guide as to the sort of person he is.
8.  A. The construction of such monumental works as the Egyptian pyramids was worth the enslavement of the workers who built them.  
 B. Once a way of handling problems has been worked out it is best to stick to it.  
 C. One should take action only when sure that it is morally right.
9.  A. The world would be a much better place to live in if people would let the future take care of itself and concern themselves only with enjoying the present.  
 B. It is wise to flatter important people.  
 C. Once a decision has been made, it is best to keep changing it as new circumstances arise.
10.  A. It is a good policy to act as if you are doing the things you do because you have no other choice.  
 B. The biggest difference between most criminals and other people is that criminals are stupid enough to get caught.  
 C. Even the most hardened and vicious criminal has a spark of decency somewhere within him.

11.  A. All in all, it is better to be humble and honest than to be important and dishonest.  
 B. A man who is able and willing to work hard has a good chance of succeeding in whatever he wants to do.  
 C. If a thing does not help us in our daily lives, it isn't very important.
12.  A. A person shouldn't be punished for breaking a law which he thinks is unreasonable.  
 B. Too many criminals are not punished for their crimes.  
 C. There is no excuse for lying to someone else.
13.  A. Generally speaking, men won't work hard unless they're forced to do so.  
 B. Every person is entitled to a second chance, even after he commits a serious mistake.  
 C. People who can't make up their minds aren't worth bothering about.
14.  A. A man's first responsibility is to his wife, not his mother.  
 B. Most men are brave.  
 C. It's best to pick friends that are intellectually stimulating rather than ones it is comfortable to be around.
15.  A. There are very few people in the world worth concerning oneself about.  
 B. It is hard to get ahead without cutting corners here and there.  
 C. A capable person motivated for his own gain is more useful to society than a well-meaning but ineffective one.
16.  A. It is best to give others the impression that you can change your mind easily.  
 B. It is a good policy to keep on good terms with everyone.  
 C. Honesty is the best policy in all cases.
17.  A. It is possible to be good in all respects.  
 B. To help oneself is good; to help others even better.  
 C. War and threats of war are unchangeable facts of human life.

18. \_\_\_\_\_ A. Barnum was probably right when he said that there's at least one sucker born every minute.  
\_\_\_\_\_ B. Life is pretty dull unless one deliberately stirs up some excitement.  
\_\_\_\_\_ C. Most people would be better off if they controlled their emotions.
19. \_\_\_\_\_ A. Sensitivity to the feelings of others is worth more than poise in social situations.  
\_\_\_\_\_ B. The ideal society is one where everybody knows his place and accepts it.  
\_\_\_\_\_ C. It is safest to assume that all people have a vicious streak and it will come out when they are given a chance.
20. \_\_\_\_\_ A. People who talk about abstract problems usually don't know what they are talking about.  
\_\_\_\_\_ B. Anyone who completely trusts anyone else is asking for trouble.  
\_\_\_\_\_ C. It is essential for the functioning of a democracy that everyone votes.

## MACH V QUESTIONNAIRE

## Scoring Procedure

(Points per Item by Response Patterns)

<u>Item #</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>7</u>
1	A+ C-	B+ A+ C- B-	B+ C+ A- B-	C+ A-
2	A+ C-	B+ A+ C- B-	B+ C+ A- B-	C+ A-
3	C+ A-	B+ C+ A- B-	B+ A+ C- B-	A+ C-
4	A+ B-	C+ A+ B- C-	C+ B+ A- C-	B+ A-
5	A+ B-	C+ A+ B- C-	C+ B+ A- C-	B+ A-
6	A+ C-	B+ A+ C- B-	B+ C+ A- B-	C+ A-
7	B+ A-	C+ B+ A- C-	C+ A+ B- C-	A+ B-
8	C+ B-	A+ C+ B- A-	A+ B+ C- A-	B+ C-
9	C+ B-	A+ C+ B- A-	A+ B+ C- A-	B+ C-
10	A+ B-	C+ A+ B- C-	C+ B+ A- C-	B+ A-
11	A+ B-	C+ A+ B- C-	C+ B+ A- C-	B+ A-
12	C+ B-	A+ C+ B- A-	A+ B+ C- A-	B+ C-
13	C+ A-	B+ C+ A- B-	B+ A+ C- B-	A+ C-
14	B+ C-	A+ B+ C- A-	A+ C+ B- A-	C+ B-
15	C+ B-	A+ C+ B- A-	A+ B+ C- A-	B+ C-
16	C+ B-	A+ C+ B- A-	A+ B+ C- A-	B+ C-
17	A+ C-	B+ A+ C- B-	B+ C+ A- B-	C+ A-

<u>Item #1</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>7</u>
18	C+ A-	B+ C+ A- B-	B+ A+ C- B-	A+ C-
19	B+ C-	A+ B+ C- A-	A+ C+ B- A-	C+ B-
20	A+ B-	C+ A+ B- C-	C+ B+ A- C-	B+ A-

Dear Elementary School Principal:

I am conducting, as my dissertation study, an investigation of certain behavioral traits as they are utilized by principals in the public school systems of Lawton, Metropolitan Oklahoma City and Metropolitan Tulsa. The study will require certain data that only you, as an elementary principal, can furnish. Therefore, I solicit your cooperation in completing the enclosed questionnaires and returning them to me at your earliest convenience. Although your questionnaire is identified by gender, you may have my assurance that the information will be treated anonymously and confidentially.

I am cognizant of the fact that this request for your assistance is an imposition. My only defense, however, is that I believe that this study will contribute, at least to a minor degree, to the research needed to help provide a more consistent and objective evaluative measure for the different behaviors of elementary principals.

The questionnaires have been approved by the respective research committees of Boards of Education and Elementary Coordinators. I will be happy to provide you with an abstract of the research per your request.

Respectfully,

Richard W. Little  
Doctoral Candidate  
University of Oklahoma

Enclosures:

1. Return Envelope
2. 2 Questionnaires