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# Administrative strategies for enhancing teachers' self-perceptions.

Leslie Ann Pierce

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ADMINISTRATIVE STRATEGIES FOR ENHANCING TEACHERS' SELF-PERCEPTIONS

A Dissertation Presented

By

LESLIE ANN PIERCE

Submitted to the Graduate School of the  
University of Massachusetts in partial  
fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

August

1974

Administration

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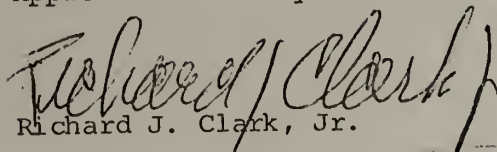
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A Dissertation

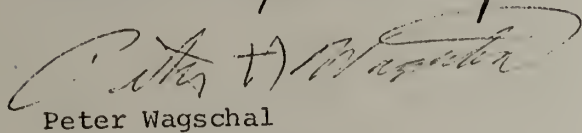
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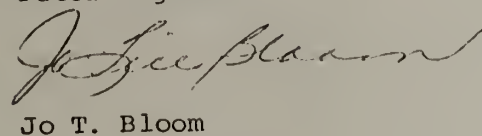
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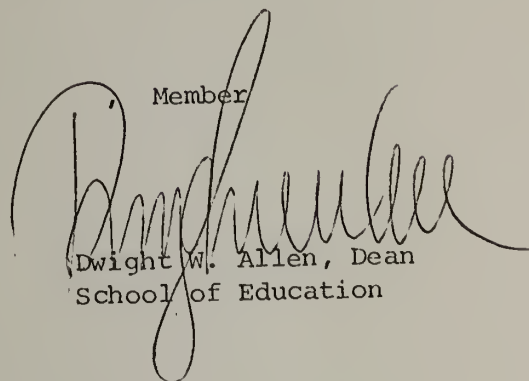
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## ABSTRACT

### Administrative Strategies for Enhancing Teachers' Self-Perceptions

(August 1974)

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Directed by: Dr. Richard J. Clark

School administrators bear a responsibility for assisting teachers in their professional growth toward increased effectiveness. The basic thesis on which this dissertation rests is that administrators can significantly foster teacher growth in schools by providing experiences which enable teachers to develop and maintain positive self-perceptions. The dissertation is directed toward the development of models which form the basis for a discussion of strategies which can be used by school administrators to enhance teacher self-perceptions. The models are intended to serve further as guides for administrators in planning, following and assessing courses of action aimed at this goal.

The rationale for pursuing this course in the dissertation is essentially that a good education for students today is one which teaches them how to learn and which aids them in acquiring the skills, attitudes and knowledge which they can use in directing their own continual learning and growth. Teachers who are most effective in providing this education for students are teachers who view themselves and their students as individuals of value and worth who possess undefinable capabilities and capacities for growth toward independence,

responsibility and creativity. Actually, though, teachers find themselves in a variety of situations which lead them to feel insecure, incapable, not valued as professionals and unable to grow personally and professionally in their teaching roles -- situations in which they are criticized, and portrayed as incompetent and ineffective, and in which the successes that they do achieve receive little recognition. Administrators, then, who would act to make possible teacher growth in schools must provide experiences for teachers which enable them to perceive themselves as successful, valuable, responsible and competent.

In the process of developing models and formulating strategies, literature from three different areas -- staff development and supervision, psychology and organizational behavior -- is examined in the dissertation. The discussion of this literature provides evidence that there are, in fact, experiences which can result in enhanced teachers' positive self-perceptions, and over which administrators can exercise some influence. The following suggestions which are derived from the review of the literature and from this writer's own ideas, observations and interpretations are used as the basis for the development and presentation of models and the discussion of the implications of the models for administrative strategies. Administrators can provide the following experiences for teachers which are likely to lead to the development of more positive self-perceptions in those teachers:

1. experiences in self-confrontation and self-evaluation of their teaching effectiveness;
2. experiences in which teachers can succeed and in which they are portrayed in positive ways -- as having valuable ideas, as being responsible, as being capable of making decisions, etc.;

3. experiences which enable teachers to meet their personal needs -- especially needs for security, esteem, achievement, competence and self-actualization;
4. experiences in which teachers are provided guidance, direction and support in degrees appropriate to their needs.

The ideas discussed in the dissertation, the models presented and the implications suggested all point to the conclusion that experiences which administrators provide for teachers in schools can be very significant determinants of teachers' self-perceptions. It is the nature of these experiences which influences whether or not teachers come to view themselves, as teachers in schools, in positive or negative ways. Experiences which allow teachers to meet their personal needs and which enable teachers to perceive themselves as successful in accomplishing school goals, independent and competent, and as being respected and valued by others are experiences which will most likely result in teachers' increased positive self-perceptions.

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## CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

## Aim of the Dissertation

The years gather by sevens  
to fashion you. They are blind,  
but you are not blind.

Their blooms resound,  
they are deaf, those laboring  
daughters of the Fates,

but you are not deaf,  
you peck out  
your own song from the uproar

line by line,  
and at last throw back  
your head and sing it.

-- Denise Levertov (1966)

The aim of this dissertation is to examine ways in which school administrators can exert positive influences on teachers' self-perceptions. Models which can serve as guides for administrators in generating and testing propositions, interpreting observations and information, and planning, following and assessing courses of action which will aid teachers in increasing their positive self-perceptions are developed and presented. Although this writer believes that teachers who perceive themselves in positive ways (as worthy, capable, relatively independent, successful, likeable, etc.) and who are treated by school systems and school administrators in ways which support these positive perceptions will be able to teach students in ways which will best assist students in their growth, she has observed that many teachers

do not, in fact, seem to view themselves positively, but seem rather, to doubt their abilities as teachers and their worth as professionals.

The dissertation rests essentially on the following argument. Human individuals possess unrealized potentialities for creating their own lives; the most valuable education is that which teaches individuals how to learn, and which supports and nurtures individuals in utilizing their own abilities and creativity in directing and controlling their own lives. Those teachers who most effectively assist students in acquiring the skills, attitudes and knowledge that will be instruments for personal growth and continual learning are those teachers who are themselves in the process of growth toward their own self-actualization. These teachers perceive themselves as worthy, valuable and capable human beings, are thus enabled to perceive others, their students in particular, from the same perspective and, correspondingly, are in a position to enhance their students' growth.

However, this writer has observed that many teachers do not seem to view themselves positively and are not, in any large degree, concerned with self-actualization. Many teachers are concerned primarily with meeting their needs for self and public esteem. Ultimately, the dissertation rests on this writer's belief that there are identifiable modes of administrator behavior and theories underlying administrative patterns of behavior which can either enhance, detract from or affect neutrally teachers' perceptions of themselves. Administrators who work with teachers in schools are in a position to enable and to enhance teachers' development as individuals in their professional roles. Administrators influence teachers, directly and

indirectly, in ways which can assist, antagonize, frustrate, encourage or inspire those teachers. They can, in short, assist teachers in perceiving themselves positively and in growing toward self-actualization, or they can impede that growth and contribute significantly to teachers' feelings of insecurity and worthlessness.

This argument is elaborated further in the following section of this chapter, and the procedure utilized in developing strategies for school administrators to enhance the development of teachers' positive self-perceptions is described.

#### Assumptions and Propositions

Explicit and implicit in the preceding discussions are the following assumptions which will serve as the basis from which the writer will examine literature, discuss ideas and generate models:

1. All human individuals possess the potentiality for perceiving themselves in positive ways, for undefined growth, for accepting responsibility for their own lives, and for acting independently.
2. A good education is one which teaches individuals how to learn, and which aids them in acquiring the skills, attitudes and knowledge that will be instruments which they can use in directing their own learning and continual growth, and which assists individuals in growing toward the point where they can take charge of their own lives, assume the responsibility for what they do, and develop and actualize their potentialities.

The following propositions are statements which will be examined and supported by observations, references to evidence, and ideas and theories in this dissertation in the process of building models and identifying strategies for administrators:

1. Those teachers who most effectively aid students in achieving this goal are teachers who themselves are growing toward the actualization of their own potentialities, who recognize that they are responsible for their own lives, and who have essentially positive perceptions of themselves as persons and as teachers -- who see themselves as adequate, competent, worthy, etc..

2. In fact, many teachers do not view themselves in positive ways. Their negative self-perceptions can be characterized by feelings of inadequacy, insecurity, lack of self-esteem, lack of recognition, dependency, lack of ability and opportunity to grow, etc..

3. Negative self-perceptions stand in the way of teacher growth toward proposition (1), and of teacher accomplishment of the goal for education as stated in assumption (2).

4. Administrators can do things which will enhance teachers' positive perceptions of themselves and which will foster teacher growth in schools. These administrator actions need not be serendipitous, but can be identified and incorporated into "courses of action" and "patterns of behavior."

## Rationale

The only inexhaustable occupation of man will be the pursuit of knowledge and understanding and the effort to relate them to one's attitudes and actions. In such a world, the intellectually indolent will find idleness and perhaps create mischief. But for the prepared -- for those who love to learn -- life will be a perpetual opportunity to grow and, through understanding, to develop a closer relationship with the universe.

-- Richard Renfield  
If Teachers Were Free

Today's world is characterized by rapid and pervasive economic and social changes. For this society, individuals need above all to be adaptable and to live and grow in a changing environment; they need to be constant learners. Educators today increasingly share the view that the most useful education is one which teaches an individual how to learn, and which aids the individual in acquiring the skills, attitudes and knowledge that will be instruments which he can use to direct his own continual growth.<sup>1</sup>

Schools are, in fact, moving away from practices based on the notion that students are passive recipients of knowledge and objects of instruction and away from the assumption that once a body of knowledge has been transmitted to the learner, the educator's responsibility and

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<sup>1</sup>Discussions of this goal for education in:

Melvin L. Silberman, J. S. Allender and Jay M. Yanoff, The Psychology of Open Teaching and Learning, Part II: "Cognitive Functioning" (Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1972).

Thomas Sergiovanni and R. Starratt, Emerging Patterns of Supervision, Ch. 11, "The Present State of Curriculum Programs," (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1971).

"Changing Our Schools: An Interview with Barbara Sizemore, Superintendent, D. C. Public Schools," The Washington Post (Sunday, July 7, 1974).



involvement ceases. They are attempting to eliminate situations where students must learn to obey without question, to perform a list of assigned tasks without choice, to begin and stop working and playing on demand, to accommodate their own pace to their fellow students', and to work to a mean level of group achievement rather than to the highest level as measured by their own ability. Schools are moving to cease measuring students only against standardized norms, but to measure them also in terms of each individual student's unique potential for growth.<sup>2</sup>

Certainly there are, among schools and school systems, exceptions to this description. However, this general characterization of trends in education is supported in the literature as well as by this writer's experience in schools.<sup>3</sup>

Among the stated goals of one public school system's program are those which support the notion that schools are moving toward assisting learners in:

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<sup>2</sup>A Model for Post-Secondary Education -- Pre-Service/In-Service Continuum for Implementing the Integrated Day: a Proposal (University of Massachusetts, Amherst: School of Education, Integrated Day Program, April, 1973).

<sup>3</sup>Discussions of this movement in education in:  
 Barbara A. Sizemore, The Superintendent's 120 Day Report, Washington, D.C.: D.C. Public Schools, March 1974).  
 Eleanor Maccoby and Miriam Zellner, Experiments in Primary Education: Aspects of Project Follow-Through (New York: Harcourt, Brace, Vovanovich, 1970).

Charles E. Silberman, Crisis in the Classroom (New York: Random House, 1970).

Open Door: New York City, A Report by the Program Reference Service (105 Madison Avenue, New York, June, 1970).

developing positive attitudes toward self and toward learning;  
expressing thoughts, ideas and feelings freely and creatively;  
working successfully in peer group situations;  
assuming increasing responsibility;  
setting realistic personal goals;  
initiating learning experiences.<sup>4</sup>

"Schools which do not produce self-directed citizens have failed everyone -- the students, the profession and the society they are designed to serve."<sup>5</sup> The goal of personal growth and development cannot be achieved without self-direction. The world is changing so fast that schools cannot hope to teach students everything they will need to know even for the next ten or twenty years. The demands of society which changes so rapidly can only be met by intelligent, independent people.

The capability of schools to educate children in this way is not beyond question. Teachers, administrators, students and parents are trying to face very difficult questions of quality and effectiveness in education. These questions are being confronted not only at abstract levels, but primarily in terms of the learning of specific students in specific classrooms and schools.<sup>6</sup> In a milieu of substantial dissatisfaction and frustration, attention inevitably focuses at the

---

<sup>4</sup>Summer Staff Development Program Evaluation (Fairfax County Public Schools, Virginia: Administrative Area III, 1972).

<sup>5</sup>A. W. Combs, "Fostering Self-Direction," in Avila, Combs and Purkey, The Helping Relationships Sourcebook (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1971) p. 244.

<sup>6</sup>Gregory R. Anrig, "In-Service Education" (speech to the State Dept. of Educ. Administrators' Conference, Hyannis, Mass., 1973).

point of direct contact with learners -- the teacher. Teachers feel pressure from educational reformers, who view the classroom as the locus for significant change, from parents, who hold teachers directly responsible for the successes and failures of their children, and from school administrators, who must evaluate teachers' performance in schools. Eighty-seven per cent of the teachers responding to one survey questionnaire reported that they felt there is more criticism of teachers and schools today than there has ever been in the past.<sup>7</sup> Many teachers, as a result, feel little confidence and security as professionals and as competent educators.

Teachers work in a psychologically debilitating atmosphere, characterized by lack of trust and stereotyped expectations which tends to diminish them as persons and move them toward a role which is dehumanizing. The teacher role represents a stereotyped, unflattering image which the public has created and which has been perpetuated by the mass media and internalized by teachers themselves.<sup>8</sup>

Teachers themselves report that they do not consider their schools to be ideal places to practice their professions.<sup>9</sup>

There is further evidence which suggests that many teachers do not view themselves in positive ways. Sergiovanni and Trusty conclude that teachers as a group tend to focus primarily at the need for

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<sup>7</sup>Gordon A. Sabine, Teachers Tell It Like It Is -- Like It Should Be (Iowa City: American College Testing Program, 1971).

<sup>8</sup>Charles Silberman, (1970).

<sup>9</sup>N. Cecil Clark, An Instrument For Measuring Staff Sentiments Toward Self, School And Profession (April, 1972) ED 064391.



personal esteem; they observed that the most pressing need for the teachers in their study was the need for esteem.<sup>10</sup> B. R. Dillman reports a negative correlation between the relative importance of activities in terms of their perceived contribution to teacher growth, as rated by teachers, and the actual time and distribution of energy expended in these activities by teachers in the course of their work. That is, many teachers do not spend much time in activities which they see as enhancing their own growth.<sup>11</sup> Brian L. McCauley reports that teachers express a desire for higher levels of professional autonomy than they now feel they have in their work.<sup>12</sup>

In the light of present public criticism of teachers and schools, teachers have reason to feel inadequate and insecure, as well as reason to feel that they are unable to grow personally in their professional roles; many teachers feel that they cannot afford to make mistakes. Walberg cites evidence that conflict between teachers' personality needs, particularly the needs to establish rapport with students, and teachers' role demands, particularly the demand for maintaining authority and discipline in the classroom, lead to feelings of self-deprecation in teachers.<sup>13</sup> Fuller and Parsons report that the

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<sup>10</sup>Sergiovanni and Trusty, "Perceived Need Deficiencies of Teachers and Administrators," Educational Administration Quarterly (Vol. 2, 1966).

<sup>11</sup>In Travers, Handbook of Research on Teaching (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1973).

<sup>12</sup>Evaluation and Authority in Alternative Schools and Public Schools (Stanford University: Center for Research and Development in Teaching, June 1972) ED 064 787.

<sup>13</sup>H. J. Walberg, "Self-Conceptualization in Beginning Teachers," Journal of Teacher Education (17, 1966).

two primary concerns of teachers today are: 1) concerns about their role orientations -- expectation of supervisors, principals, students, parents, communities, etc., and 2) concerns about their self-adequacy as teachers.<sup>14</sup>

At the same time, there exists a need for teachers who can provide rich, responsive learning environments in which students can develop realistic, positive self-images, can learn how to live and work with others, and at the same time develop necessary academic and social skills according to their own abilities and needs. In this writer's judgment, formed as a product of working with teachers in the capacity of supervisor and of resource person for staff development activities and also as a product of experience as a classroom teacher, teachers who are effective in providing such a learning environment are teachers who have, beyond a repertoire of information, materials and methods, essentially positive views of themselves as persons and as teachers. These teachers believe that self-direction, for themselves and for their students, is important. They trust students to be responsible and capable of assuming responsibility for their own lives. They expect that, along with the successes that they experience, they will also make some mistakes. With positive views of themselves, teachers can dare to be open to experience; they can risk involvement and can dare to try.

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<sup>14</sup>Frances F. Fuller and Jane S. Parsons, Current Research on Concerns of Teachers (April 1972) ED 063 257.

Similarly, Goldhammer states:

It is the teacher-student relationship that teaches, rather than the text. Pupils feel the personal structure of the teacher long before they feel the impact of the content offered by that same teacher.<sup>15</sup>

Ann Bussis and Edward Chittenden, in their Analysis of an Approach to Open Education<sup>16</sup> examine aspects of the teachers' role in effectively meeting their goal for open education: development of the ability and willingness on the part of individual students to draw upon and extend their individual resources and capabilities. Included in their definition of effective open teachers are the following categories: seeking activity to promote personal growth, communication with other teachers, involvement in an area of purely personal interest, respect for other persons and respect for the self as a legitimate source for guiding behavior.

Arthur Combs and his associates at the University of Florida define the effective teaching relationship between teacher and student as a helping relationship,<sup>17</sup> demanding the use of the teachers' self. This relationship is possible only when the teacher (the helper) feels basically fulfilled and adequate. People who feel inadequate cannot afford the time and effort required to assist others as long

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<sup>15</sup>Robert Goldhammer, Clinical Supervision (New York: Holt, Rinehart, Winston, 1969).

<sup>16</sup>Princeton, New Jersey: Educational Testing Service, 1970.

<sup>17</sup>The helping relationship is defined by Carl Rogers as one where at least one of the parties has the intent of promoting the growth, development and maturity of himself and the other.

as they feel deprived themselves.<sup>18</sup> This position is substantiated by the following evidence: in a study of a sample of teachers described categorically as effective or ineffective by principals and supervisors, the researchers found a high degree of similarity in the perceptual organizations of effective teachers. The following dimensions of perceptions of self and of others of these teachers are among those reported in the Florida Studies:<sup>19</sup>

1. Feel basically adequate.
2. See themselves as wanted, likable and attractive (as opposed to feeling unwanted, ignored or rejected by others).
3. See themselves as dependable, reliable and able to cope with events.
4. See themselves as identified with rather than apart from others.
5. See themselves and others as persons of worth, consequence, dignity and integrity.
6. See themselves as willing to disclose and be themselves.
7. See students as able and as having the capacity to deal with problems and manage their own lives.
8. See others as basically friendly and well intentioned.
9. See others as trustworthy and dependable.

Further, there is evidence which indicates that the way teachers perceive their students is influenced to a large extent by the way the teachers see themselves. For example, those who accept themselves tend

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<sup>18</sup>Combs, Avila and Purkey, Helping Relationships (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1972). p. 13.

<sup>19</sup>Combs, et al., Florida Studies in the Helping Professions (Gainesville, Florida: University of Florida Press, 1969).



to be more accepting of others.<sup>20</sup> Teachers who are unsure of their own capabilities may treat students as if they too were incapable.<sup>21</sup> Teachers who have positive and realistic attitudes about themselves are more likely than teachers without those attitudes to like and respect students.<sup>22</sup> Teachers who reject themselves tend to hold correspondingly low opinions of others.<sup>23,24</sup>

That students react positively to their teachers' positive perceptions in terms of their self-concepts and academic achievement has been extensively documented.<sup>25,26</sup> Ruth Middleman and Thomas Hawkes,

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<sup>20</sup>E. M. Berger, "The Relation between Expressed Acceptance of Self and Expressed Acceptance of Others," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 47 (1953) pp. 778-782.

<sup>21</sup>W. F. Fey, "Acceptance of Self and Others," Journal of Clinical Psychology, 10 (1954) pp. 266-269.

<sup>22</sup>J. Luft, "On Non-Verbal Interaction," Journal of Psychology, 63 (1966) pp. 261-268.

<sup>23</sup>R. D. Trent, "The Relationship between Expressed Self-Acceptance and expressed Attitudes toward Negro and White," Journal of Genetic Psychology, 91 (1957) pp. 25-31.

<sup>24</sup>K. T. Omwake, "The Relation between Acceptance of Self and Acceptance of Others," Journal of Consult. Psychology, 18 (1954) pp. 443-446.

<sup>25</sup>A summary of this research in: Reuben G. Pierce, Models for Improving Teachers' Perceptions of Students: A Guide for Administrators, a dissertation, School of Education, University of Massachusetts, Amherst (April, 1974).

<sup>26</sup>Some representative studies indicating that teachers' perceptions of students directly influence both the students' self-perceptions as well as their academic success: Brookover et al, "Self-Concept of Ability and School Achievement," Sociology of Education (Spring, 1964) pp. 271-278; and Davidson and Lang, "Childrens' Perceptions of Their Teachers' Feelings Toward Them Related to Self-Perception, School Achievement and Behavior," Journal of Experimental Education, (1960) pp. 107-118.

for example, measured the responses of students to positive and negative teacher behaviors (indicating operationally, in terms of this study, positive and negative teacher perceptions of students) with regard to three tasks: 1) accuracy in following directions (a drawing task); 2) accuracy in hearing and in extracting information from a verbal context; 3) amount of words produced in a required essay. An experimental teacher was trained to enact negative, positive and neutral affect styles while teaching a lesson via a prepared script using eight categories of non-verbal behavior: distance behavior, eye movements, facial expressions, body movements and position, movements of arms and legs, vocalizations and intonations. They found that the students responded with greater productivity to positive teacher behaviors than to negative or neutral teacher behaviors.<sup>27</sup>

One of the tasks of the school administrator is to provide a good education for students and to enable and assist teachers in their work in providing this education. In the terms of the goal for education as stated previously in this paper, among the responsibilities of a school administrator is a responsibility to teachers and to students to facilitate their growth and movement toward self-directed education. In doing so, it is incumbent upon the school administrator to recognize the skills, strengths, capabilities, doubts, fears and weaknesses of teachers and to make accessible to them widely varied resources and guidance, and an environment which makes possible the

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<sup>27</sup>An Experimental Field Study of the Impact of Non-verbal Communication of Affect on Children, (April, 1972) ED 061 550.

planning and realization of their own continuing education, as well as resources and assistance for looking at their own teaching and at their students' learning.

Administrators are of necessity central figures in the lives of teachers in that they can affect to a great extent the environment in which teachers work and in that they interact with and influence teachers continually, day after day. Administrators are in a position to enhance teachers' positive perceptions of themselves or to contribute to the maintenance of negative teacher self-perceptions. They can act in ways -- in their administrative capacities -- which say to teachers: "You are responsible, capable and worthy individuals who have many things to offer to students and to the school organization as well," or, they can send the opposite message. The position of this writer is that administrators who accept as the goal for education the development of self-directed learners must, in working toward the realization of this goal in schools, take actions and interact with teachers in ways which enable those teachers to perceive themselves in positive ways and which facilitate the growth of those teachers, in the school setting, toward maturity, autonomy, self-direction, responsibility and self-actualization.

#### Point of View

Important educational decisions are inevitably decisions that are inseparable from views of the world, humanity, truth, knowledge and morality. It is the intent of this writer, as part of the introduction to the dissertation, to present her point of view regarding what

education can and should do, in terms of what individual human beings are like, and what they can do with their lives. The writer believes that, in the context of this dissertation, a stated point of view can serve as a framework for examining greatly diverse literature and research and for assessing the usefulness and importance of information with respect to achieving the goal for education, and as a basis from which models for administrative action can be developed and discussed. The writer further believes that an administrator who would effectively pursue any set course of action or adopt a specific pattern of behavior in order to enhance teachers' positive self-perceptions must be cognizant of the assumptions that underly those positions and must at the same time affect a congruence between the administrator's own point of view and the points of view which are the bases for the ideas, theories and models which he embraces. Toward this end, this writer will, in the following pages, present a point of view which is her own, and which is the point from which this writer will examine and discuss literature and develop and illustrate models.

The subject and starting point for this position is the individual; it is only on the ground of human existence in its concrete relations to the world that human beings can philosophize, theorize, plan and act, individually as well as collectively.

I come to myself as a gift: it is clear, it is evident, now that it is decided, it could never have been other than simple. How was it possible for doubt to last so long?<sup>28</sup>

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<sup>28</sup>Karl Jaspers, source unknown.



Human existence can best be known internally; concrete human dilemmas, human emotions and human conflict are experienced directly by each individual. Individuals experience their own being and individuality through direct access; this knowledge is to them as certain as anything could possibly be, and is the basis for any other fact or understanding which they might have of the world. Individuals also experience the world directly and are conscious not only of themselves, but of things and other selves in the world. In experiencing themselves directly, individuals see that they are unique -- they know of no one else exactly like themselves. Each individual has this very basic awareness of self, as an entity which exists, which is conscious of other entities and events, which is unique, and which is essentially and irrevocably alone in experiencing and interpreting existence. What individuals become, beyond this fundamental level of self-awareness, is up to them -- they are the ones who will create their own identities and who will determine the courses of their own lives.

Individuals may acknowledge and accept the responsibility for their lives or they may shun this responsibility by placing it outside of themselves -- on other people, situations, forces, etc.. This writer describes as authentic the individuals who take the former position. Because they are aware of themselves, because they have intimate knowledge of what they think, feel, need and want, authentic individuals have the option of choosing how to act. They are in a position to acknowledge responsibility for what they do (including what they do to themselves) and to recognize that they are the cause of their actions.

The awareness of self and of possibilities, along with the recognition of the freedom to make choices, characterizes the authentic person.

In the light of this awareness of self, authentic individuals recognize their freedom to choose and to act, and in doing so, to create their own lives, and to make of themselves what they are and what they can become. Authentic individuals are alone with this responsibility for making their lives.

But, the individual does not exist in isolation. Each individual's being is known in a concrete situation. Authentic individuals are conscious of themselves in the world, in relation to other human beings, things and events. They must live in this world. Authentic individuals perceive experiences, situations and other persons in terms of their meanings for them, and will behave according to what seems to them to be so. How persons behave is a result of how they perceive the situation and themselves at the moment of acting. This is true for inauthentic as well as for authentic individuals. Authentic individuals, however, are aware of their perceptions. They know that events from which these perceptions developed may have occurred outside of themselves, but they also know that they are the ones who continually give meaning to their perceptions, that their meaning is subject to change, and that they, themselves, have the ability to change their perceptions. In perceiving and acting, authentic individuals will assert their own being and individuality, and will do so in the awareness that they are choosing and making themselves. They will act in favor of asserting the self, recognizing that they alone have the responsibility for their lives.

The distinction made here between authenticity and inauthenticity is essentially a distinction between a view of individuals as beings who can make independent choices, who can exert their own will in determining their lives, and who can, consequently, be responsible for their own actions, and a view of individuals as beings who can do little more than react to forces that are external to them, and who are subject to respond to an environment which is responsible for their behavior. It is from the basis of the point of view expressed in this section that this writer takes the position that individual human beings are capable of authentic existence as defined in this section, and throughout the paper examines other ideas and recommends administrative actions with the awareness of this point of view.

#### Definitions

The following definitions will be used in this dissertation:

Models -- descriptive analogies used to help visualize, often in a simplified form, phenomena that cannot be easily or directly observed. Models are projections of possible systems of relationships among phenomena expressed in verbal, material, graphic or symbolic terms.

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<sup>29</sup>Richard E. Snow, "Theory Construction for Research in Teaching," in Travers (ed.) Second Handbook of Research on Teaching (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1973) p. 81.

Perceptions -- the meanings an individual attaches to experience. Perceptions are assumptions made on the basis of personal experience about what things are like and what they will continue to be like.<sup>30</sup>

Perceptual Field -- the complex of all the perceptions existing for an individual at a given moment.

Self-perceptions -- individuals' perceptions of themselves; their appraisal of their appearance, background and origin, abilities and resources, attitudes and feelings; their view of what they are, what they have been and what they might become.

Self-concept -- the complex of all self-perceptions existing for an individual at a given moment.

Self-actualization -- individuals' actualization of all their potentialities, capacities, capabilities and talents in becoming fully all that it is possible for them to become.<sup>31</sup> Self-actualization can apply to the individual in a particular role -- self-actualization as a parent, teacher, writer, etc. -- or can apply to the individual's actualization of many facets of being. The following characteristics of self-actualizing people are among those described by Maslow and are accepted as a definition of self-actualization for the purposes of this dissertation:<sup>32</sup>

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<sup>30</sup> A. Combs and Donald Snygg, Individual Behavior: A Perceptual Approach (N.Y.: Harper and Bros., 1959).

<sup>31</sup> As per A. Maslow, Toward a Psychology of Being (Princeton: D. Van Nostrand Co., 1962).

<sup>32</sup> Ibid. p. 148.



1. a superior perception of reality
2. increased acceptance of self and others
3. increased spontaneity
4. increased autonomy
5. increased identity with humanity
6. improved interpersonal relationships
7. increased creativity

Responsibility -- consciousness of being the cause, agent or source of an event or of an object.

Independence -- freedom from the influence, control or determination of other person(s) or thing(s); freedom from persuasion or bias; self-determination; self-reliance.

Growth -- development or movement toward self-actualization.

Teachers' positive self-perceptions -- self-perceptions held by teachers which portray themselves, as teachers and as people, positively: as responsible, worthy of respect and trust, capable, competent, successful, independent, and capable of continued growth toward self-actualization. The following teacher behaviors constitute an operational definition of teachers' positive self-perceptions:

1. Enters into interactions with others -- teachers, students, administrators, parents, etc..
2. Expresses own feelings frankly and directly.
3. Listens to other people.
4. Emphasizes students' strengths and successes.
5. Encourages and assists students.
6. Sets standards of behavior and performance for students that students must work to reach, but can attain.

7. Shares own ideas, information, opinions with others.
8. Requests information and feedback from others.
9. Engages in professional development activities; seeks such opportunities.
10. Tries new things -- organizational plans, methods, curricula, etc..
11. Makes suggestions for change and improvement.
12. Responds to others' feelings -- "I sense that you are angry with me, right?"
13. Sets and accomplishes own goals.
14. Works to accomplish goals with minimal control and direction from authority figure.

Teachers' negative self-perceptions -- self-perceptions held by teachers which portray themselves, as teachers and as people, negatively: as incompetent, incapable, inferior, irresponsible, prone to failure, lacking initiative, unable to cope, unable to deal with other people, unintelligent, dependent, insecure and threatened. The following teacher behaviors constitute an operational definition of teachers' negative self-perceptions.

1. Engages in few interactions with others; remains aloof.
2. In interactions with others, action and speech vary according to who the other is, their relationship and the situation.
3. Refers to and uses "position power" as teacher when dealing with students.
4. Constantly supervises students closely; controls, coerces and manipulates students.
5. Poses situations where students repeatedly fail.
6. Emphasizes students' weaknesses, mistakes, misbehavior.
7. Consistently fails, and emphasizes own weaknesses.

8. Asks for evaluative, judgmental statements from authority figures.
9. Constantly requests stated rules, policies and directions.
10. Expresses feelings of being ignored, unwanted, rejected.
11. Defends self from feedback (says that feedback is invalid, etc.).
12. Makes negative judgmental statements about the worth of others -- administrators, teachers, students, etc..
13. Defers choices to authority figures.

### Procedure

Content of the dissertation. This chapter (Chapter I) of the dissertation includes:

- a) a statement of purpose -- aim of the dissertation;
- b) a statement of rationale and point of view related to the selection and accomplishment of the dissertation aim;
- c) a summary statement of assumptions on which the dissertation is based and of propositions which are to be substantiated in the body of the dissertation; statement of definitions;
- d) a description of the content of the dissertation and of the methodology which is employed in arriving at the product of the dissertation.

Chapter II includes a description of contemporary modes of inservice teacher education and staff development in schools and school systems whose stated aims are consistent with the aim of developing self-actualizing teachers, in order to point out strategies which might significantly affect the development of teachers' positive self-perceptions. Where there is research evidence describing the effects of these strategies on teacher self-perceptions, this is reported. Sources for the content of Chapter II are: staff development and

supervision textbooks, this writers own experiences in staff development and inservice, and ERIC searches using the descriptors teacher attitudes, teacher perceptions, teacher concerns, teachers, staff development programs, in-service programs, changing teachers' perceptions, self-concept, self-evaluation, self-actualization, teacher behavior, supervision and administration.

Chapters III and IV consist of a presentation and analysis of selected content in two areas of knowledge, organizational behavior and psychology, in order to provide supporting evidence for the propositions as stated in Chapter I and as a means of identifying ideas and theories which may serve as a basis for the development of strategies and models for administrators for enhancing the development of teachers' positive self-perceptions. The following are some of the criteria used in selecting the content to be examined, in the light of the assumptions, rationale and point of view stated in Chapter I:

1. Deals with or allows for application to individual persons.
2. Considers the individual in the context of society or organizations.
3. Allows for continual change, growth and development of the individual.
4. Allows independence for the individual.
5. Provides a framework for viewing individual development.
6. Provides a framework for viewing the individual in a group.
7. Deals with perceptions and behavior.
8. Discusses self-perceptions and behavior.



9. Has potential relation to school administration.
10. Describes interactions among individuals.

These criteria are the parameters for the investigation of literature in the preparation of the dissertation. Theories which violate or are inconsistent with these criteria are not included as a main part of the body of the dissertation. They are, however, considered briefly in the discussions as contrary or competing ideas.

Research studies which provide evidence relating to the ideas and theories in the organizational behavior and psychology literature are cited.

Clearly, the consideration of the literature is not all-encompassing. That content was selected which meets at least some of the above criteria and which can stand a critical analysis in terms of available, valid supporting or opposing research evidence and/or observations reported by this and other writers. Briefly, the areas examined and discussed in Chapter III include: perceptual psychology and theories of perceptions describing the development, maintenance and changing of perceptions, and the relationship of perceptions (especially self-perceptions) to behavior; Maslow's discussion of individual motivation and of growth toward self-actualization; and a discussion, in the terms of transactional analysis, of movement toward, and the nature of, the I'm OK -- You're OK position. Ideas from the organizational behavior literature are examined in Chapter IV to state relationships between administrative practices and individual behavior and growth in organizations directed ultimately toward making a theoretical connection between the things that an administrator does

and the development of teachers' positive self-perceptions. Some of the ideas examined in this section are:

- a) Argyris' discussion of maturity and immaturity and recommendation that employees in organizations be given increasing responsibility;
- b) MacGregor's Theory X and Theory Y assumptions;
- c) Life Cycle Theory (Hershey and Blanchard);
- d) Likert's management theory;
- e) Getzels, Guba, Parsons: administration as a social process;
- f) Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory of work motivation.

In the Summary of the ideas discussed in Chapter IV central and related ideas are pulled together, inconsistencies and disparities, where they exist, are pointed out, new insights and ideas which are products of comparing and contrasting ideas from the two content areas and from the writer's own experiences are discussed.

Models are presented in Chapter V which represent some of the ideas discussed in the preceding chapters in graphic form, and which represent some new ideas and relationships. Where divergent ideas are discussed, the writer does not attempt to develop a "unified" model which may artificially place discrepant ideas in juxtaposition, but rather to present and discuss divergent representations in the form of models based on the assumption that differing administrative styles and points of view make a variety of models and ways of looking at ideas useful. Where ideas and theories do have commonalities and show relationships between different positions, this is so represented in the models. It is the intent of this writer that the models be useful to administrators as a guide to action and as a way of visualizing

ideas and phenomena which may have relevance to their functions in schools and school systems, with the aim always in mind of acting so as to enhance teachers' positive self-perceptions and to allow for and foster teachers' growth.

In Chapter VI the writer discusses some implications of the models developed in the dissertation for the functioning of the public school administrator -- in particular, the school building principal. First, the implications of the models in terms of administrator point of view, administrator self-perceptions and administrator growth are discussed. Secondly, these dimensions of the school administrator's role are considered: supervision, staff development, management, curriculum, and community-school interactions, in order to illustrate ways in which the models can be related to the administrator's various tasks in schools by using concrete examples from the writer's own experiences, from discussions with school principals and central office staff members, teachers and from suggestions in the literature. Also included in this chapter is a discussion, in greater depth, of two staff development programs directed toward the aim of developing self-actualizing teachers which incorporate many of the strategies previously described. The organization and implementation of these programs is emphasized in order to shed some light on possible administrator actions leading to the development of staff development programs and implementation of strategies directed toward fostering teacher growth toward self-actualization and the development of more positive teacher self-perceptions.

Chapter VIII includes a summary, a statement of conclusions drawn by the writer from the ideas, models and implications discussed in the dissertation and recommendations for future study as well as recommendations for administrator utilization of the models to accomplish the end of enhancing teachers' self-perceptions.

Methodology. The methodology employed by this writer in preparing and presenting the dissertation consists, in brief, of the following steps:

- a) a delineation of criteria for selecting and examining literature;
- b) a critical analysis of the literature;
- c) the selection and reporting of central and relevant ideas;
- d) a comparison and contrasting of information from organizational behavior and psychology including presentation of any new ideas and insights and a summary;
- e) a discussion of the relationships between these ideas and the information gained from the staff development/ inservice research literature review;
- f) an examination of the ideas in the light of the starting assumptions -- either discarding conflicting ideas or changing the assumptions to accommodate them. Where the assumptions accommodate conflicting generalizations and ideas a decision is made either to select one set of ideas as more valuable than the other, or to retain and accept both;
- g) an examination of the ideas in terms of the starting propositions; substantial supporting evidence supports the propositions; overwhelmingly contradictory evidence would cause the propositions to be rejected;
- h) a discussion of the ideas in the light of opposing points of view and theories;

- i) the presentation of the ideas "screened" through this process in the form of models;
- j) a discussion of the relationships between the models and the functioning of the school administrator.



## CHAPTER II

## STAFF DEVELOPMENT AND SUPERVISION

School system inservice and staff development activities are the professional growth activities which are most commonly engaged in by teachers.<sup>1</sup> Among these, teachers view as most helpful those activities which: a) provide resources which assist them in their classroom teaching;<sup>2</sup> b) provide opportunities for communication among teachers;<sup>3</sup> c) are directed toward meeting needs identified by the teachers themselves;<sup>4</sup> d) involve teachers in planning and implementation.<sup>5</sup> Such activities are components of many contemporary school staff development programs whose stated aims are consistent with the aim of assisting teachers in perceiving themselves in essentially positive ways and in their development toward self-actualization. Emphases which are characteristic of many of these efforts and which may bear upon teachers' positive self-perceptions are described in this chapter:

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<sup>1</sup>Six in ten public school teachers participated in school system workshops in the three year period 1969-1972. Reported by Elizabeth C. Moffatt, Status of the American Public School Teacher (Washington D.C.: National Education Association, Research Division, 1972) ED 066 800.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Ralph W. Tyler, "In-Service Education of Teachers: A Look at the Past and Future," in Louis J. Rubin (ed.) Improving In-Service Education: Proposals and Procedures for Change (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1972) 5-16.

<sup>4</sup>Ronald Lippitt and Robert Fox, "Development and Maintenance of Effective Classroom Learning," in Rubin . . . 133-167.

<sup>5</sup>Robert N. Bush, "Curriculum-Proof Teachers: Who Does What to Whom," in Rubin . . . 37-68.

1. Supplying information to teachers about their own teaching behaviors -- opportunity to see teacher-student interactions;
2. Examining the nature of teacher-supervisor interactions;
3. Allowing and fostering teacher-teacher interactions in the staff development process.

Where there are statements and evidence in the educational research literature regarding the effects of these strategies on teachers' positive self-perceptions, these are reported.

### Supplying Information

In order for individuals to change their behavior and to make deliberate choices which can result in new experiences and new perceptions it is necessary that they have opportunities to observe the consequences of their behavior. Feedback can be viewed as data which enables individuals to test new behaviors and to discover new relationships and new meanings. Feedback which is most useful for this purpose is feedback which is descriptive and which speaks to behaviors which can be changed. (e.g. "You spoke with your back turned to the class," as opposed to "Your legs are short.") Useful feedback about classroom teaching also indicates consequences. ("While your back was turned the students did not hear what you were saying.") Teachers who receive this kind of feedback are able to begin to assess their strengths and weaknesses and their successes and failures. They then have identified strengths that they can build on. Where administrators or supervisors aid teachers in evaluating and identifying successes, the administrators can provide further situations in which the teachers can see themselves succeeding. To the extent that teachers are able

to assess their own strengths and successes, they, themselves, are able to assume some responsibility for their own growth and for providing situations for themselves where success is possible.

Robert N. Bush, reporting on current research at the Stanford University Research and Development Center, discusses four forms that current in-service teacher education programs take: 1) expository exhortation, 2) demonstration teaching, 3) supervised trials and 4) analysis of performance.<sup>6</sup> The first, he states, has long characterized inservice teacher education, but seems to be the least important of the four. He notes a return, after a period of absence, of demonstration teaching. The use of audio and video tape recorders makes it possible to record models of teaching, to have time for teachers to view and thoroughly analyze these, to record their own teaching, to play and replay, and to obtain an "indelibly clear impression" of the teaching behavior modeled. The combined use of demonstration teaching with supervised trials and analysis of performance, Bush reports, represents the most powerful "treatment" thus far observed at the Stanford Center. This strategy places on teachers the responsibility for interpreting and analyzing their own behavior, for identifying their own needs and for viewing, assessing and trying out other ways of behaving. The combination and sequencing of these four forms are subjects of current research at the Center.

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<sup>6</sup>Bush (1972).

Jeanette A. Brown et al report on the Portsmouth Project (Virginia),<sup>7,8</sup> a program which was directed at developing in teachers a consciousness of how they acted in their own classrooms and of the observable effects of this behavior on students. The assumption underlying the project was that if teachers are given insights into their own behavior, then their classroom interactions with students will change. This hypothesis was posed: given an opportunity to examine, discuss and model behaviors, teachers will manifest behaviors which will result in increased positive self-perceptions for themselves and for their students. Students and teachers were videotaped, using two videotape recorders, and then the teachers viewed the tapes on a split screen showing teachers and students behaving simultaneously. Teachers analyzed the tapes, emphasizing classroom management behaviors, participated in group discussions of the tapes, and also viewed, analyzed and discussed other teachers' tapes. Teachers were shown a range of positive behaviors (shown on theirs and other teachers' tapes). The selection and interpretation of positive behaviors (behaviors defined operationally as those which would have the effect of increasing students' positive self-perceptions) provided the content of discussion sessions which emphasized the following areas: 1) affective and cognitive relationships, 2) how self-perceptions are learned, 3) the effects of certain teacher behaviors (positive and negative behaviors)

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<sup>7</sup>Changing Culture Perceptions of Elementary School Teachers (Charlottesville: U. Virginia, April 1972) ED 066 537.

<sup>8</sup>Consulting for Improved Self-Perceptions of Elementary School Teachers (Presented at APGA convention, Chicago, March 1972) ED 067 564.



on the behavior of students, 4) learning climates, and 5) the self in relation to other selves. The trainers also provided for cognitive input in the following two areas: 1) students' social and cultural environments, and 2) the importance of class management techniques which support a positive climate. The researchers report significant gains in teachers' and students' positive self-perceptions after the completion of the program, particularly in the area of self-perception of competence.

An aspect of "supplying information" to teachers about their own behaviors which is discussed in the literature and which this writer's experiences have shown to be important is the question of who supplies the feedback to the teachers. Feedback is "objective" and non-evaluative; it simply describes, in terms of behaviors, what has taken place during a period of time. However skillful an administrator may be in observing, recording and providing feedback, the information which that administrator provides to teachers about their behavior is most likely, as a result of the administrator's position in the school organizational hierarchy, value-laden as perceived by the teacher to whom the feedback is directed. Feedback from the administrator is likely to be assigned positive and negative values by the teacher as a product of the teacher's perceptions of how the administrator views the behavior; the teacher is aware that ultimately, the administrator is the one who will eventually evaluate teaching performance. Bush<sup>9</sup> cites the importance of an "impartial outsider" (someone from outside the school system, or at least from outside the school administrative hierarchy) in providing

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<sup>9</sup>Bush (1972).



feedback to teachers and in helping teachers to make diagnoses and to analyze their teaching. B. W. Tuckerman and W. F. Oliver<sup>10</sup> give the results of a study showing that student feedback to teachers about teachers' behavior led to behavior change among teachers, while feedback from supervisors did not. In this writer's experience, teachers who are trained in observation techniques can also provide feedback to other teachers which is accepted and made use of in objective terms.

A major contribution to the task of supplying teachers with information on what behaviors they use in their classrooms was made by Flanders. Lenore W. Dickman designed and conducted a study to assess how the teaching behaviors of practicing teachers is affected by learning and using the Flanders system of interaction analysis.<sup>11</sup> The hypothesis that teachers who learn and use the Flanders technique will become more indirect in their classroom verbal behavior was supported. Amidon and Hough found that indirect patterns of teacher influence were associated with independent student attitudes. They also found that in content areas examined in the study, students of the more indirect teachers scored higher on achievement tests than students of more direct teachers.<sup>12</sup> Teachers trained in interaction analysis showed greater awareness of what they were doing in their

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<sup>10</sup>"Effectiveness of Feedback to Teachers as a Function of Source," Journal of Educational Psychology 59, 4 (1968) ED 297 301.

<sup>11</sup>in L. Berman and M. Usury, Personalized Supervision (Washington D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1966).

<sup>12</sup>Interaction Analysis: Theory, Research and Application (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1967) 329-345.

classrooms than teachers not trained in the technique.<sup>13</sup> Soares and Soares describe the results of a study in which a group of teachers are exposed to training and use of the Flanders interaction analysis.<sup>14</sup> The teachers who received the training and had the experience of using and of being provided feedback through the use of the Flanders instrument scored significantly higher on a self-concept measure after that period. Soares and Soares suggest that the higher self-image occurred partly because of increased awareness of verbal interaction and improved interpersonal climate in the classroom.

James Olivero reports that microteaching has been shown to be a powerful agent for changing certain types of teaching behaviors, including: using questions effectively, recognizing and obtaining attending behavior, providing feedback, and setting a model. He emphasizes that self-evaluation has been a necessary ingredient in in-service programs; teachers have been shown to be more likely to improve instruction as a result of introspection and self-evaluation than through the process of supervision by a principal or a supervisor.<sup>15</sup> Other investigators have used the microteaching technique using videotape as a means of providing accurate and immediate feedback to teachers and of establishing a frame-of-reference for communication between the

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<sup>13</sup> Norma Furst, The Effects of Training in Interaction Analysis on the Behavior of Student Teachers in Secondary Schools (paper presented at the American Educational Research Association annual meeting, Chicago, February, 1965).

<sup>14</sup> The Effect of Analyzing Teacher Behavior on Self-Concepts of Teachers (May 1973) ED 079 250.

<sup>15</sup> Microteaching: A Medium for Improving Instruction (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1970).

teacher and the consultant or supervisor;<sup>16</sup> a way of illustrating effective teaching behaviors to teachers using video tape and providing practice-time in microteaching sessions;<sup>17,18</sup> a way of providing realistic approximations of classroom teaching allowing prediction of subsequent classroom teaching performances to be made with a high degree of accuracy;<sup>19,20</sup> a means for teachers to gain new information about their teaching in a relatively short time and as a means of changing teachers perceptions of their own teaching behavior.<sup>21</sup>

Richard A. Bedics and Jeaninne N. Webb related skills in self-evaluation to micro-teaching experience.<sup>22</sup> They assumed that skills in self-evaluation must be developed, and asked the following research questions: 1) does experience in viewing teaching behavior influence teachers' self-evaluation, 2) does training in certain observational techniques influence teachers' self-evaluation, and 3) what changes occur in teachers' self-evaluations over time? Three groups of

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<sup>16</sup>Micro-Teaching (Palo Alto, Ca.: Research and Development Center, 1968).

<sup>17</sup>Warren Kallenbach, "The Effectiveness of Micro-teaching in the Preparation of Elementary Student Interns," AERA Paper Abstracts, American Educational Research Association, Washington, D.C. 1968.

<sup>18</sup>John K. Hemphill, Contractor's Request, Berkeley, Ca.: Far West Lab. for Educational Research and Development (September 1968).

<sup>19</sup>An Analysis of Micro-teaching: A New Procedure in Teacher Education, Stanford University (August, 1967).

<sup>20</sup>Dwight W. Allen, Micro-teaching: A New Framework for In-Service Teacher Education, Stanford University, 1968.

<sup>21</sup>Ibid.

<sup>22</sup>Measuring the Self-Evaluation of Teaching Behaviors Through the Use of Video-Tape (1971) ED 051 079.

teachers participated in the study:

- A) a control group which received no training in observational techniques and no microteaching experience;
- B) a group which received microteaching experience but no training in observational techniques;
- C) a group which received microteaching experience as well as training in observational techniques.

The control teachers (A) showed more concern and preoccupation with themselves as persons -- appearance, mannerisms, posture, voice quality -- than did the other teachers. They also tended not to like what they saw. Experience in viewing recordings of their own teaching was accompanied by a shift in the focus of what the teachers noticed in the tapes. Those teachers who had several opportunities to view themselves tended to move from concern with themselves as persons to concern with student behaviors and teaching behaviors (groups B and C). They tended to like some of the things that they saw, and to be dissatisfied with other things. Most importantly, they did see things that they liked. The movement toward emphasis on the teaching act itself was slightly more pronounced in the teachers who had been trained in skills of observation as well as given microteaching experience (C). However, the main influence seemed to be the microteaching experience.

Clinical Supervision provides a model for incorporating the provision of feedback with strategies for analysis and for modifying teaching behavior. In clinical supervision, as described by Goldhammer,<sup>23</sup> supervisors and teachers interact face to face in

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<sup>23</sup>Robert Goldhammer, Clinical Supervision (New York: Holt, Rinehart, Winston, 1969).



considering observational data of the teachers' classroom behaviors and interactions with students. Teachers are allowed considerable autonomy in this mode: the teacher is presented with data which he requests; both teacher and supervisor participate in setting objectives for a particular lesson or strategy; data is interpreted cooperatively and utilized jointly in planning subsequent lessons or strategies.

Goldhammer's prototype of clinical supervision includes five stages:

- I. Preobservation conference between teacher and supervisor where procedures and objectives for the lesson to be viewed are discussed.
- II. Observation -- the supervisor "records" what happens in the classroom while the teacher is teaching.
- III. Analysis -- the supervisor analyzes the feedback which he has recorded, and devises a strategy for presenting the feedback to the teacher.
- IV. Teacher-supervisor conference.
- V. Postmortem -- analysis of conference by the supervisor (without the teacher).

Fischler emphasizes that to assist the teacher in functioning more effectively it is essential to focus on recurrent patterns manifest in the teachers' classroom behaviors, and to organize a "personalized" program of staff development to help teachers to accomplish their self-determined goals more effectively.<sup>24</sup> The mode of clinical supervision, he states, makes possible a confrontation

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<sup>24</sup> Abraham S. Fischler, "Confrontation: Changing Teacher Behavior Through Clinical Supervision," in Rubin . . . pp. 171-185.



which sets the groundwork for change by presenting disparities to teachers, where disparities exist, between their aims and results.

David B. Young proposes a model for clinical supervision which incorporates participation in a training session or program:<sup>25</sup>

1. observe and code teaching behavior
2. feedback to teacher
3. analysis with teacher of teacher and student behavior and of content
4. training
5. practice
6. more observations
7. analysis
8. repeat cycle.

Leroy G. Callahan reports that the clinical interview has potential for increasing teachers' skills of diagnosis of their own behavior and self-evaluation. He terms this technique especially useful when it is coupled with video-taping.<sup>26</sup>

The techniques of supplying information to teachers about their own teaching behavior which have been discussed in this section -- video-taping, micro-teaching, interaction analysis, clinical supervision -- aim to change teacher behavior through confrontation. Teachers are asked to compare data about their own actual performance with their own ideals and goals. The underlying assumption is that there will be discrepancies between the two and that confrontation with these

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<sup>25</sup>Effective Supervisory Conferences: Strategies for Modifying Teacher Behavior, ASCD, Chicago, 1969. ED 041 840.

<sup>26</sup>Clinical Evaluation and the Classroom Teacher, 1973, ED 076 640.

discrepancies will motivate teachers to change their own behavior. Schmuck notes that this process frequently fails and attributes this failure to psychological processes which intervene between new cognitive insights and changed behaviors.<sup>27</sup> One of these factors has to do with the clarity of the teachers' goals. Teachers often view their major task in the classroom as controlling the students. When goals are unclear, or almost non-existent, teachers may have a hard time telling whether they are meeting their teaching goals or not. Additionally, even when teachers do have clear goals, they may still have difficulty in assessing the actual state of affairs in their classroom, and may perceive no discrepancies.

Festinger states that most people want to evaluate their own abilities.<sup>28</sup> Most teachers want to know how well they are doing in their classrooms. Such motivation is manifested on the part of teachers by asking others for feedback -- peers, administrators, supervisors, students, etc.. And further, people want to keep improving. Schmuck also proposes that teachers want to resolve discrepancies which they perceive between their goals and what actually is happening, at least for their own psychological comfort.

Where teachers do perceive discrepancies, these perceptions often give rise to anxiety and some defensive reaction. Schmuck describes some possible defensive reactions as the following:

- 1) teachers may change their perceptions of their goals to perceive that these "ideal states" are unrealistic

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<sup>27</sup> Schmuck, Self-Confrontation of Teachers (March 1971) ED 062 700.

<sup>28</sup> L. A. Festinger, "A Theory of Social Comparison Process," Human Relations, 8, 117-140.

- 2) teachers may perceive information about their actual performance as invalid
- 3) teachers may perceive the discrepancies which they notice between their own behavior and goals as being typical to all teachers
- 4) teachers may argue for the worth of what they presently are doing by presenting a new set of ideals not previously stated as goals.

Highly anxious teachers, when confronted with discrepancies, tend to be pessimistic about their chances for future success, and tend to blame themselves for failures. These teachers also tend to hold strongly negative self-perceptions.<sup>29</sup> They tend to lack curiosity and self-confidence and are restrictive and controlled.

A person's level of self-confidence (positive self-perceptions of competence) is directly and positively correlated with how willing that person is to be exposed to new and dissonant information.<sup>30</sup>

People with self-confidence (positive self-perceptions in this area) are better able to cope with, and often search out, dissonant information.<sup>31</sup>

Schmuck, Chester and Lippitt propose these strategies to make the self-confrontation process more effective:<sup>32</sup>

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<sup>29</sup> Sarason, et al, Anxiety in Elementary School Children (N.Y.: J. Wiley and Sons, 1960).

<sup>30</sup> L. K. Canon, "Self-Confidence and Selective Exposure to Information," in L. A. Festinger, Conflict, Decision and Dissonance (Stanford University Press, 1964).

<sup>31</sup> R. S. Schmuck and P. Runkel, A Preliminary Manual for Organizational Training in Schools Eugene, Oregon: Center for Advanced Study of Educational Administration, 1968.

<sup>32</sup> Problem Solving to Improve Classroom Learning (Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1966).

1. Each teacher defines a concrete classroom problem in behavioral terms. (i.e. "many students do not participate in class discussions.")
2. The teacher reconsiders the stated problem in terms of a goal not being reached, and tries to identify forces which contribute to the meeting of the goal, and forces which tend to block meeting the goal.
3. Teacher and supervisor brainstorm ways of influencing these forces to increase the driving forces and decrease the restraining forces.
4. The teacher tries out a new procedure aimed at reducing restraining forces.

#### The Teacher-Supervisor Relationship

Rogers<sup>33</sup> and Combs<sup>34</sup> describe the ideal teacher-supervisor relationship as a helping relationship. That is, both the supervisor and the teacher are engaged, individually, in the process of growth and self-actualization, and the supervisor is further concerned with enhancing the growth of the teacher. Supervisor and teacher engage jointly in problem-solving and/or planning, the supervisor supporting and facilitating the teacher's efforts to make decisions and act independently. This procedure is based on two assumptions: first, that the growth of each, teacher and supervisor, as an independent individual is valued, and second, that teachers who participate in this relationship will see the value of and be able to establish similar relationships with students. Baldwin calls the accepting-democratic attitude of parents to children (similar to the "helping relationship" between

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<sup>33</sup>Carl Rogers, On Becoming a Person (1961).

<sup>34</sup>Combs, Avila and Purkey, The Helping Relationship (1972).



teacher and student) the most growth facilitating relationship.<sup>35</sup> The parents who provide this relationship are warm and equalitarian, the children in this relationship characteristically show increased I.Q.s, originality, emotional security and control, are friendly and non-aggressive.

The helping relationship has been characterized further by researchers as:

- 1) one in which each of the participants views and respects the other as a person.<sup>36</sup>
- 2) one of mutual trust and confidence
- 3) one in which each of the participants likes the other,<sup>37</sup> and as
- 4) a relationship which is positively and directly correlated with increased self-perceptions of self-worth on the parts of the participants.<sup>38</sup>

Carl Rogers has identified certain qualities and behaviors of therapists which facilitate learning in helping relationships:

Congruence - the helper is being totally himself in relations with others.

Unconditional Regard - the helper accepts others as a separate person with permission for them to have their own feeling and experiences and to find their own meanings.

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<sup>35</sup> A. L. Baldwin, et al, "Patterns of Parental Behavior," Psychological Monographs 58, 268 (1945) pp 1-75.

<sup>36</sup> J. C. Whitehorn and B. J. Betz, "A Study of Psychotherapeutic Relationships." American Journal of Psychiatry, III, (1954) pp. 321-331.

<sup>37</sup> J. Seeman "Counselor Judgments of the Therapeutic Process and Outcome," in C. R. Rogers and R. F. Dymond (eds.) Psychotherapy and Personality Change (Chicago, U. Chicago Press, 1954) Chapter 7.

<sup>38</sup> J. M. Butler and G. J. Haigh, "Changes in Relation between Self Concepts and Ideal Concepts Consequent Upon Client-Centered Counseling," in Rogers and Dymond.



Empathic Understanding - the helper has the ability to understand others' reactions.<sup>39</sup>

Barret-Lennard measured these qualities of the helping relationship as described by Rogers (Barret-Lennard Relationship Inventory). These qualities are exhibited by the supervisor and perceived by the teacher in an effective helping relationship.<sup>40</sup> That is, in order for learning and growth to take place in a helping relationship, the helper must maintain these qualities, and additionally, the other person in the relationship must perceive these conditions as actually existing.<sup>41</sup> Churukian and Cryan propose that in the teacher-supervisor relationship the degree of directness or indirectness of supervision is not the issue; the issue is how the teachers perceive the type of supervision they receive as compared to what they feel they want. Data indicates that as positive interpersonal relations are established between teacher and supervisor, the discrepancy between what teachers want from the supervisor and what they feel they are getting is minimized when it is in the direction that the teacher wants more indirect supervisor behavior. Establishment of positive interpersonal relations does not, however, seem to be a factor reducing the discrepancy when the teacher wants more direct supervisor behavior.<sup>42</sup>

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<sup>39</sup> Carl Rogers (1961).

<sup>40</sup> Dimensions of Therapist Response as Casual Factors in Therapeutic Change (1962).

<sup>41</sup> Churukian, George A, Cryan, J. R. "Interpersonal Perceptions as a Factor in Teacher Perceptions of Supervisory Style." April 1972. AERS (064 233).

<sup>42</sup> Ibid.

Arthur Blumberg describes the relationship between teacher and supervisor as an "interaction for planned change."<sup>43</sup> Implicit in this concept is the notion that this process involves a giving and receiving of help, and that: a) the supervisor is perceived by the teacher as being potentially helpful and b) the giving of help to the teacher is not seen by him to be ego-deflating. The responsibility for the development of this relationship rests with the supervisor who is the one who potentially exercises the most influence, and the tone of the relationship is largely dependent on the supervisor's attitude and behavior. Blumberg takes the position that by studying the interaction between teacher and supervisor it is possible to gain a better understanding of the dynamics of the relationship and to enable supervisors to work more effectively. He transfers and utilizes the concept of interaction analysis in the supervisory situation,<sup>44</sup> and proposes a system that offers information about 1) how the supervisor offers help, 2) a characterization of supportiveness or defensiveness of communication, 3) how the teacher reacts to the supervisor's behavior, and 4) how the supervisor reacts to the teacher's behavior. The interactions system that he presents has fifteen categories; of the fifteen, ten are concerned with behavior of the supervisor, four with behavior of the teacher, and one indicates silence or confusion.<sup>45</sup>

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<sup>43</sup>A. Blumberg, "Interaction for Planned Change" (Syracuse University 1968).

<sup>44</sup>"A System for Analyzing Supervisor-Teacher Interaction" (Syracuse University 1968).

<sup>45</sup>Ibid. Combines Flanders' and Bales' interaction analyses.

The interaction between supervisor and teacher is taped (video or audio) and then coded and analyzed by the supervisor or by another person after the conference. Blumberg reports the following among results from an analysis of supervisor - teacher interactions<sup>46</sup> in fifty-one supervisory conferences:

- 1) On the average, supervisors talked 48% of the time, teachers 51% and 1% was spent in silence or confusion.
- 2) 48% of supervisors' talk consisted of giving information.
- 3) 89% of teachers' talk consisted of giving opinions, information, or ideas.
- 4) The least used supervisor behavior was that of asking the teacher for action suggestions. This behavior occurred 0.7% of the time.
- 5) The least used teacher behavior was that of asking the supervisor any kind of question. This behavior occurred 1% of the time.
- 6) About 6% of the teachers' verbal behavior was spent in some kind of defensive reaction to the supervisor. The teacher tended to react to the supervisor with positive emotionality 3% of the time.
- 7) Supervisors reflected or conveyed some understanding of the teachers' ideas 11% of the time. However, they engaged in extending and clarifying their understanding only 1% of the time.

On an inferential level, the examination of matrices of teacher-supervisor conferences in educational settings indicates that these conferences tend to be little more than a giving and receiving of information on the part of both supervisor and teacher. Little in the way of problem solving discussion is evident, nor do supervisors

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<sup>46</sup>Some Initial Findings Concerning Supervisor-Teacher Interactions: A Study by Arthur Blumberg, Syracuse University 1969.

appear to constitute a source of help for the teacher. Blumberg's findings are also supported in another study using the Blumberg system to analyze teacher-supervisor conferences.<sup>47</sup>

### Teacher-Teacher Interactions

Emerging supervisory practices are characterized by an increased emphasis on supervisory work groups.<sup>48</sup> As an illustration, the emphasis shifts from "Supervisor A working to improve the teaching of reading by Teacher B to teachers of reading working to improve the teaching of reading."<sup>49</sup> Increases in teacher professionalism, specialization, sophistication of analyses of teaching methods, and sophistication in curriculum content have increased the complexity of educational decision-making. The resulting very complex problems require a coalition of professionals with a variety of expertise for their solution rather than reliance on one administrator, supervisor or authority figure to provide all the information and guidance needed. To this end teacher teamwork, and especially team planning, are being increasingly utilized in curriculum and staff development efforts.<sup>50</sup> David Carlisle and his associates at the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development found that teacher teaming, as an organizational arrangement, increased the ability of a

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<sup>47</sup>L. A. Hazur Pierce and Irene M. Lober, Analysis of Supervisor-Teacher Interaction (Virginia Polytechnic Institute, April, 1972).

<sup>48</sup>Sergiovanni and Starratt, p. 180.

<sup>49</sup>Ibid.

<sup>50</sup>Sheila Molnar, The Analysis of Teachers' Task Contributions to Decision-Making Interaction: Differences in Three Content Areas and Two Types of Teaching Teams (Stanford U., Ca., April, 1972) ED 063 256.



group of classroom teachers to use research-based information in developing their classroom instructional programs.<sup>51</sup> Investigators at Peabody College, Nashville, describe teacher team planning as a continuing process of in service education. In their design for teaming, teacher teams met regularly. Each team was composed of teachers who were "specialists" in a variety of subject areas (i.e. language arts, science, math, reading, etc.). Each team member provided leadership for the team in his particular subject area by sharing information and by assisting in the solution of instructional problems in that area.<sup>52</sup> The organization of teachers into teams having decision-making responsibility has been shown to have impact on teachers' perceptions of their influence on decision-making in the school in general. Increased interaction in team meetings is related to teachers' increased positive perceptions of their influence in the school organization and of their own independence as professionals.<sup>53</sup> Teachers on teams in which all members participate equally perceive themselves as most influential and independent.<sup>54</sup>

The following summary statements can be made about the relationship of some of the strategies discussed in this chapter to the

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<sup>51</sup>The Instructional Planning Team: An Organizational Arrangement to Accomplish Planning, Teaching and Evaluation (October 1971) ED 066 795.

<sup>52</sup>Williams Gaskell, The Inservice Education Potential of Team Teaching/Planning (November 1967) ED 036 502.

<sup>53</sup>Sheila Molnar, Teachers in Teams: Interaction, Influence and Autonomy (November 1971) ED 058 177.

<sup>54</sup>Marjorie Arikado and Donald Musella, Status Variables Related to Team Teacher Satisfaction in the Open Plan School (February 1973) ED 076 562.



development of increasingly positive teacher self-perceptions:

1. Some teachers who are given repeated opportunities to view, examine and analyze their own classroom behaviors show increased positive self-perceptions of competence.<sup>55</sup> These teachers tend to have largely positive self-perceptions to start with.<sup>56</sup>
2. Some teachers do not change when given feedback about their teaching behaviors. Some of these teachers do not perceive discrepancies between their actual teaching performance and their stated aims as teachers.<sup>57</sup> Some teachers, when confronted with discrepancies, tend to be pessimistic about change and about their chances for success in resolving these discrepancies.<sup>58</sup> These teachers tend to hold largely negative self-perceptions.<sup>59</sup> Other teachers react defensively to being confronted with their classroom behavior.<sup>60</sup>
3. Teachers' skills in self-evaluation tend to increase with increased experience in self-evaluation and in viewing their own teaching behavior, enabling a more realistic perception of their teaching including increasingly positive perceptions of their own success and competence.<sup>61</sup>
4. Teachers' participation in school decision-making teams or groups is related to teachers' increasingly positive perceptions of their influence in the school organization and of their own professional independence.<sup>62</sup>

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<sup>55</sup>Brown, et al, (March 1972), Soares and Soares (1973), Gedics and Webb (1971).

<sup>56</sup>Canon (1964).

<sup>57</sup>Schmuck (1971).

<sup>58</sup>Sarason, et al (1960).

<sup>59</sup>Ibid.

<sup>60</sup>Schmuck (1971).

<sup>61</sup>Furst (1965), Olivero (1970), Bedics and Webb (1971).

<sup>62</sup>Molnar (1971) and Arikado and Musella (1973).

Also, in summary, there seems to be an increasing concern about and attention given to the nature of teachers' relationships with their supervisors. The trend in describing the "ideal" seems to be in the direction of increased supportiveness and indirectness in supervisor behavior and of increased independence on the part of the teacher.<sup>63</sup> Actually, data indicates that, in general, teacher-supervisor conferences still involve little more than giving and receiving information.<sup>64</sup> These ideas will be discussed further in the process of developing and presenting models. Specific practices and strategies will also be examined in Chapter V in the discussion of implications of the models for administrator action.

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<sup>63</sup>Combs, Avila and Purkey (1972), Churukian and Cryan (1972), Blumberg "Interaction . . ." (1968).

<sup>64</sup>Blumberg, Some Initial Findings . . . (1969).

## CHAPTER III

## RELATED IDEAS: PSYCHOLOGY

Theories of psychology characteristically are attempts to explain why people do as they do -- to understand behavior in order to predict with some accuracy how people will behave. Perceptual psychology postulates a set of intervening variables called perceptions which mediate between those things that happen to an individual (stimuli) and those things that the individual says or does (responses or behavior). Ideas from the realm of perceptual psychology that are examined in this chapter focus on the development, maintenance and changing of individuals' perceptions and the relationship of these perceptions (especially self-perceptions) to behavior. Perceptions and behavior are further related to individual needs and to a theory of motivation which concentrates on need satisfaction as the central explanation for why people behave as they do. Particular attention is given to the need called self-actualization and to the perceptions of self-actualizing people. These ideas are examined for two purposes: a) to substantiate the propositions stated in Chapter I and b) to provide a theoretical basis for discussing in following chapters way in which administrators can influence teachers' self-perceptions.

## Perceptions

People do not behave according to "facts" as seen and reported by others, but according to what seems to them to be true. People accept things as "real" according to the way they seem to them. By

definition, perception means more than seeing, feeling, hearing, etc.. It refers to the meanings that the individual attaches to those experiences at the moment of sensation. Ittleson and Kilpatrick define perceptions as:

. . . never a sure thing, never an absolute revelation of "what is." Rather, what we see (perceive) is a prediction -- our own personal construction designed to give the best possible bet for carrying out our purposes in action. We make those bets on the basis of past experience.<sup>1</sup>

Every perception is essentially an "involuntary bet" based on probabilities that each of us has learned from previous experiences.<sup>2</sup>

Perceptions are predictions of the results of future actions based on probabilities learned from acting in the past. In this way perceptions acquire a cumulative nature -- they arise as a product of past experiences and earlier perceptions, and, in turn form the bases for viewing future experiences.

If, according to perceptual psychology, people behave as a function of their perceptions, then it is possible to understand how people are perceiving by working backward from their behavior. Through a process of making observations, drawing inferences, testing these inferences, observing further, drawing new inferences and so on, psychologists are able to come closer and closer to estimating and describing the probable state of a person's perceptual field.

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<sup>1</sup>W. H. Ittleson and F. P. Kilpatrick, "Experiments in Perception," Scientific American, 185, 2 (August 1951) p. 55.

<sup>2</sup>D. Avila, A. Combs and W. Purkey, The Helping Relationships Sourcebook (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1971) p. 126.

The use of self as an instrument for making observations does, indeed, add a possible source of distortion not present in more mechanical ways of observing and recording behavior. This does not warrant rejection of the method, however, if the sources of error can be controlled.<sup>3</sup>

Again, the process of making, testing and remaking hypotheses is a process used by all branches of the sciences including physical sciences in arriving at theories. The making of inferences is not unscientific; it is the testing of those inferences that may be scientific or unscientific.

In identifying personal internal states, an individual partially relies on the same external cues that others use when they infer the internal states of other people. Cues from our external environment, including our own behavior, weigh heavily in determining how we perceive and interpret our internal states. That is, A infers that B is experiencing some internal state by relying on observational cues in B's behavior. B also relies on some of these cues to inform himself of what feelings he is experiencing and what attitudes he holds.<sup>4</sup> A person gains awareness of his own perceptions through intimate knowledge; he experiences them, and he alone can know what is in his mind. Additionally, the person gains information about his internal state through external cues, from observing the things that he does, as well as from direct internal and personal experience.

Perceptions form the bases for action; people accept things the way they seem to be, and act accordingly. In terms of perceptual

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<sup>3</sup>A. Combs, D. Avila and W. Purkey, Helping Relationships (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1971) p. 191.

<sup>4</sup>Daryl J. Bem, Beliefs, Attitudes and Human Affairs (Belmont, California: Brooks/Cole Publishing Co., 1970) p. 57.



psychology, as explicated by Snygg and Combs in Individual Behavior,<sup>5</sup> all behavior is a function of the perceptions which exist for an individual at the moment he acts. The universe, including himself, as perceived by the individual at the moment of his behaving is called his phenomenological field, perceptual field, cognitive field, conceptual field or cognitive structure.<sup>6</sup> The individual's behavior is always appropriate to his perceptual field; all behavior is determined by and appropriate to the field at that instant. In this way the individual perceives new experiences in terms of an already existing framework and attaches meaning to these experiences in terms of concepts and relationships previously existing in his mind.

The most significant perceptions influencing behavior are those perceptions the individual has of himself -- those perceptions to which an individual refers when he says "I" or "me."<sup>7</sup> Self-perceptions include the person's perceptions of his appearance, background and origin, abilities and resources, attitudes and feelings, and ideas about what he is, what he has been and what he might become. Each individual may have thousands of self-perceptions. The complex of self-perceptions is called the self-concept. The self is composed of perceptions concerning the individual, and this organization of

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<sup>5</sup>Individual Behavior: A Perceptual Approach (New York: Harper and Bros., 1959).

<sup>6</sup>D. Snygg, "A Cognitive Field Theory of Learning," in Avila, Combs and Purkey, The Helping Relationships Sourcebook . . . 93-113.

<sup>7</sup>Combs, Avila and Purkey, Helping Relationships . . . p. 39.

perceptions in turn has vital and important effects on the behavior of the individual.<sup>8</sup>

The self is the center of a person's universe, his frame of reference and the point from which he makes all observations and interpretations. As the self changes, what the individual perceives and believes to be true also changes. The self does more than provide the basis for reality; it determines what things the individual perceives. Each person perceives the world around him filtered through his own self-perceptions (whether he is aware of this or not). In the process the self-concept corroborates and supports the already existing beliefs about self, and so tends to maintain its own existence. The self looks upon the world largely in terms of its own enhancement or defense. It tends to extend in the direction of that which promises to make it better off. It withdraws from that which seems to endanger it.<sup>9,10</sup> Perceptions of the self and of other people tend to be maintained as the individual encounters the world and people in it. What individuals tend to perceive is based on the probability of things being like they were in the past, especially in their relation to those individuals' selves. Individuals tend to perceive things as they are accustomed to seeing

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<sup>8</sup>D. Snygg and A. Combs, "The Phenomenal Self," Theories of Personality, Hall and Lindzey (eds.) (New York: J. Wiley and Sons, 1963) p. 470.

<sup>9</sup>Earl C. Kelley, "The Meaning of Wholeness," in Avila, Combs and Purkey, Helping Relationships Sourcebook . . . pp. 161-167.

<sup>10</sup>J.S. Bruner and L. Postman, "Emotional Selectivity in Perception and Reaction," Journal of Personality 16 (1947) 69-77.

them.<sup>11</sup> New experiences are evaluated in this way: those perceptions which are consistent with and relevant to already existing perceptions are readily accepted and assimilated; those perceptions that have no relation or relevance are ignored; those that are inconsistent and contradictory are likely to be either rejected or altered to fit.<sup>12</sup> For example, a teacher who believes he cannot teach science avoids teaching science and avoids experiences that might be "learning experiences" for him. When the occasion to teach science does arise, he perceives the things that go wrong in his lesson, and notices the students who don't seem interested or don't seem to learn. This corroborative effect is also true of self-perceptions. People who believe they can are likely to succeed; they create and approach situations which are likely to end in success for them, in their perceptions.

Self-perceptions, like other perceptions, are learned as a consequence of experiences and interactions with the physical world and with other people in it. Soares and Soares propose that the concept of self is basically derived from:<sup>13</sup>

1. Responses made toward the individual by significant people in his environment (people who are important to him);
2. His perceptions of their behavior relevant to him;
3. The internalization of perceptions into a coherent set of self-views;

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<sup>11</sup>W. W. Purkey, Self-Concept and School Achievement (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1970) pp. 10-11.

<sup>12</sup>Ibid.

<sup>13</sup>Louise M. Soares and Anthony T. Soares, Tests of Self-Concept as Measures of Personality Change (a paper presented at the American Educational Research Association meeting, New Orleans, February, 1973) ED 076 638.

4. The resultant self which he perceives as reflected back in the eyes of significant others;
5. The reinforcement of that self as seen by him and by others and by view of their perceptions of him; and
6. His responses to the challenges and pressures of living.

As perceptions are developed as a consequence of experiences, they can also be modified as a function of other experiences. Generally, the more central the perception is to the self, the more slow it is to change. The most important changes in self-perception come about only as a consequence of many experiences repeated over long periods of time. In the example in the preceding paragraph, should a supervisor have said to that teacher as he attempted to teach science, "Your lesson was very successful," the teacher would, most likely, not believe or accept the positive feedback. The more central a perception to the self, the more experiences will be required to establish it and the more experiences will be necessary to change it. Perceptions which are peripheral to the self can often be acquired or changed fairly quickly. For example, an individual who perceives himself as one who has never seen snow is likely to change that perception after only one experience of seeing snow. However, for an individual who perceives himself as unintelligent, many experiences where that individual is able to perceive himself as behaving intelligently are likely to be necessary before that perception will change. Nevertheless, with regard to all aspects of the self, peripheral and central ones, the individual is constantly faced with the necessity for continued and rapid examination and reassessment of perceptions because



every living individual is constantly faced with experiences which are in some way new. Perceptions which no longer "work" for the individual, or which don't work for him in a particular situation are questioned. Cantril makes the following generalization as a result of an examination of research studies of people's perceptions of the physical world. Subjects were confronted with contrived physical situations where ways of perceiving depth, space etc. which usually work are not effective.

The major condition for change in our perceptions is a frustration experienced in carrying out our purposes effectively -- because (in this case) we are working on the basis of assumptions that prove wrong.<sup>14</sup>

Assumptions need to be continually reevaluated, and new assumptions tried out.

#### Needs

The notion that perceptions can and do change is consistent with the position that individual human beings, themselves, also can and do change. Psychologists describe the changes that take place throughout an individual's life in many ways; those ideas which will be considered in this section are those which conceive of change in an individual's life over time as a directed process of development -- growth. Carl Rogers describes growth as the tendency and the capacity of the individual to move forward toward maturity -- to expand, extend, become independent -- and as the tendency to express and activate all the capacities the individual possesses.<sup>15</sup> This tendency may be, in some

<sup>14</sup>Hadley Cantril, "Perceptions and Interpersonal Relationships," American Journal of Psychiatry, CXIV (1957) pp. 119-126.

<sup>15</sup>Carl R. Rogers, On Becoming a Person (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1961) p. 35.



individuals, buried under defenses or hidden under a facade, but it does exist in every human being, and awaits only the proper conditions to be released and expressed.

Maslow discusses in some detail the process of growth. Growth, according to Maslow, takes place when the next step forward is perceived by the individual as more satisfying than the last. Maslow views the individual's life, beginning in childhood, as a series of choices -- between safety and growth. Both safety and growth have anxieties and delights; people grow when the delights of growth and anxieties of safety are greater than the delights of safety and the anxieties of growth.<sup>16</sup> The choice for increased growth demands courage and even daring; it is a choice which takes a person a step beyond where he is at present into a future which is uncertain, unknown and not entirely predictable. Individuals will take the choice of acting to further their own growth when they feel secure and capable of dealing with uncertainty. Growth forward apparently takes place in little steps, and each step is made possible by the feeling of being safe.

The self grows into adulthood partly by discovery, uncovering and acceptance of things that are given -- environment, history, situation, background, physical abilities etc.. Adulthood is also partly a creation of the person himself. The main determinants of the choices that an individual makes throughout his life are his perceptions of himself as he already is and his perceptions of the person he can imagine himself being in the future.

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<sup>16</sup> Abraham H. Maslow, Toward a Psychology of Being (Princeton, New Jersey: D. Van Nostrand Co., 1962) p. 45.

The drive for growth provides a motive force for an individual's behavior and finds expression through goals which seem to provide a means to the individual for his well-being at any particular point in his life. Maslow calls these interim goals needs; his theory of motivation concentrates on need satisfaction as the central explanation for why people behave as they do. Maslow visualizes needs as arranged in an hierarchical order.

Human needs arrange themselves in a hierarchy of prepotency. The appearance of one need as a motivator rests on the prior satisfaction of another, more prepotent need.<sup>17</sup>

The only needs which motivate behavior are those which are not yet satisfied. And, of all those unsatisfied needs, at any given instance in an individual's life, one need will be prepotent, and will, at that point, be the strongest determinant of the person's behavior. Maslow describes the hierarchical arrangement of needs as depicted in the following figure.

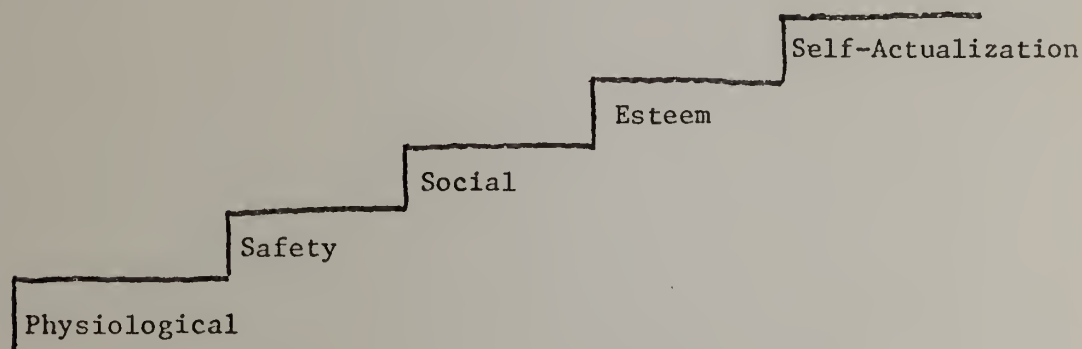


Fig. 1.-- Hierarchy of Needs

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<sup>17</sup>A. Maslow, "Cognition of Being in the Peak Experiences," in Hamachek (ed.) The Self in Growth, Teaching and Learning (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1965) p. 247.

Physiological needs are the starting point for the hierarchy. This means, in Maslow's terms, that a person who needs food, safety, love and esteem will, most probably, strive to satisfy the need for food more strongly than for any other need until the need for food is satisfied. All of the individual's behavior would be motivated toward the end of obtaining food and additionally, his way of looking at the world and at other people, and of planning for the future, are all functions of his need for food. He would tend to perceive objects, people and events in the world in terms of their value as potential providers of food.<sup>18,19</sup> His goal and orientation toward the future would be centered around food. Maslow, in referring to physiological needs, is speaking of chronic and real deprivation; he is speaking of individuals who actually do not get enough to eat (or shelter, drink, rest, exercise, etc.). It is possible, in extreme situations, that an individual who has been severely and chronically deprived of something may lose the ability to focus on or to be motivated by another need.

In most people, however, when the physiological needs are fairly well satisfied, higher needs emerge as motivators. Safety needs generally appear next as prepotent needs. Maslow gives a particular definition to safety needs as a consequence of the society in which most Americans live today. Most adults in this society are

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<sup>18</sup>R. Levine, I. Chein and G. Murphy, "The Relation of the Intensity of a Need to the Amount of Perceptual Distortion," Journal of Psychology (13, 1942) 283-293.

<sup>19</sup>D. McClelland and J. W. Atkinson, "The Projective Expression of Needs: The Effect of Different Intensities of the Hunger Drive on Perception," Journal of Psychology, 25 (1948) 205-222.

largely safe from assault, tyranny, natural disasters; safety needs, in these terms, are only seen as motivators in cases of emergency. On the other hand, safety needs of a somewhat different nature can be observed as motivators among adults: preference for a job with tenure and protection and permanency, desire for financial security -- not just money to buy food and shelter in the present, but to provide for the assurance of food and shelter in the future -- desire for insurance, preference for orderliness and predictability in environments etc.. When an individual is in a dependent, or even partially dependent relationship (i.e., relationships of children and parents, employee and employer, etc.) safety needs may assume considerable importance. Actions which arouse uncertainty in these situations can be causes of behavior which is motivated toward safety. The individual who has not satisfied his needs for safety may be dominated by behavior which is motivated toward this end.

If both the physiological and safety needs are fairly well satisfied for an individual, the love, belongingness, affection and acceptance needs will emerge as prepotent. These needs involve both giving and receiving love and affection. These needs are sometimes referred to as "social needs" -- needs for affiliation, camaraderie, group membership, etc..

The esteem needs appear next in the hierarchy -- needs for a stable, firmly based, high (usually) evaluation of self, and for the esteem, recognition, appreciation and respect of others. Satisfaction of the esteem needs leads to feelings of self-confidence, worth, strength, capability, adequacy and of being useful and necessary in



the world. But, thwarting of these needs produces feelings of inferiority, of weakness and of helplessness.<sup>20</sup> Seeman relates the need for status and esteem toward tendencies toward dependency; dependency and the need for status seem to go together. He found that teachers who are oriented toward achieving status favor principals and superintendents who are directive.<sup>21</sup>

If all these needs are satisfied, the individual can fully devote his energies and attention to self-actualization -- the desire to become more and more what one is, and to become everything that one is capable of becoming. The expression of motivation toward satisfying self-actualization needs will vary greatly from person to person. Maslow describes self-actualization as the actualization of potentialities, capacities, talents, capabilities, and fuller self-knowledge and self-acceptance.<sup>22</sup>

The average individual is most often partially satisfied and partially unsatisfied in all of his needs. That is, as the individual grows (matures) he does not move up the hierarchy from physiological to self-actualization needs in a rigid step-by-step fashion. The "hierarchy" principle can better be interpreted as a representation of probabilities, and is usually observed in terms of increasing percentages of non-satisfaction. The probability that at any point in the life of a particular individual he will be satisfied in his

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<sup>20</sup>A. H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality (New York: Harper, 1954) p. 34.

<sup>21</sup>Leadership in American Education (Chicago: U. of Chicago, 1950).

<sup>22</sup>A. Maslow, Toward a Psychology . . . p. 147.



physiological needs and unsatisfied in his self-actualization needs is great.

The relative strengths of needs as motivators of behavior vary as an individual moves from immaturity to maturity. An immature individual is most likely, most often, to be motivated by lower level needs and rarely motivated by higher level needs. This can be illustrated:

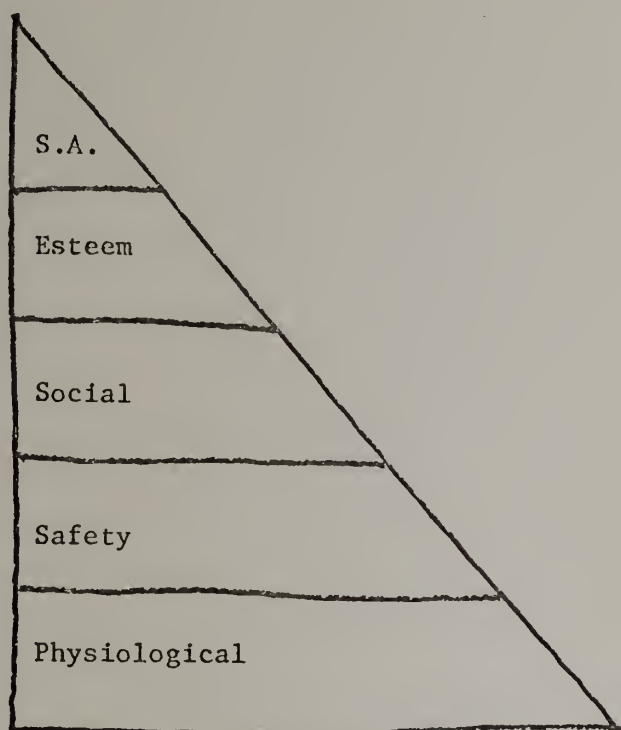


Fig. 2.-- Needs as motivators for immature individuals.

A more mature individual, though more motivated by unsatisfied self-actualization needs, still has needs for esteem, love, safety and

physiological satisfaction, though in increasingly lesser degrees, as represented in the following figure:

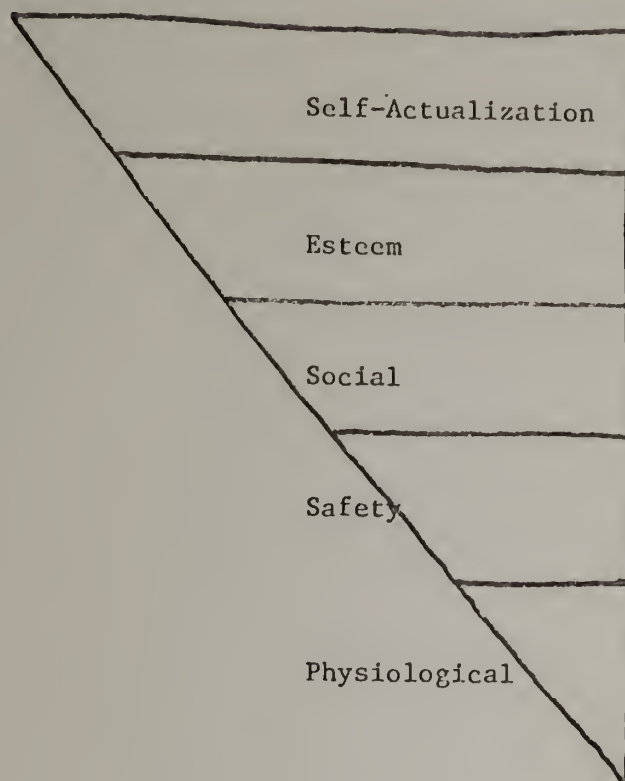


Fig. 3.-- Needs as motivators for mature individuals.

Movement through the hierarchy can be viewed on a continuum from immaturity to maturity, where at any point on the continuum, needs appear as motivators in different proportions, ranging from

prepotent physiological needs to prepotent self-actualization needs.

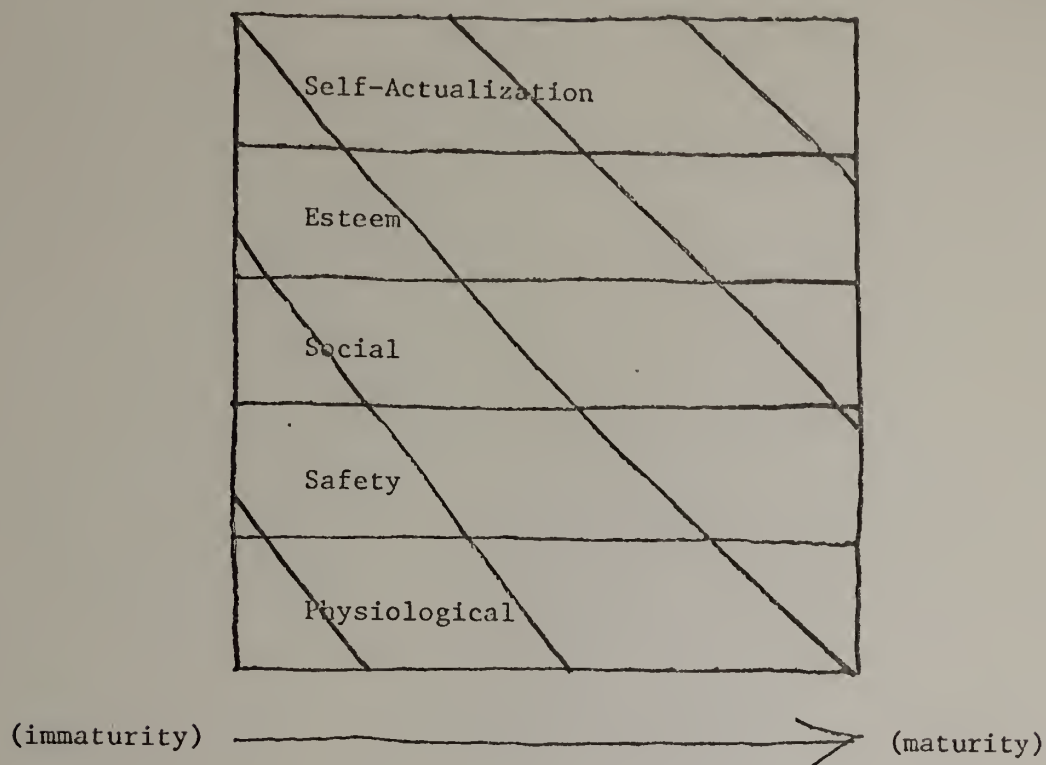


Fig. 4.-- Immaturity -- Maturity Continuum

Other writers have emphasized a relationship between individuals' needs and the society in which those individuals live.<sup>23</sup> Bruner suggests that it is not the amount of a need but the way a person learns to handle that need which leads him to behave in one way or another.

<sup>23</sup>Kenne Turner, A Theory of the Functional Self (Carbondale: Southern Illinois University, 1973) 078 195.

It is conceivable that in a culture or in a family setting where emphasis is placed on asceticism and denial of lower level needs that autism would be the exception.<sup>24</sup>

He cites a study by Brozek, during wartime, of conscientious objectors, who, under conditions of prolonged and chronic semi-starvation (self-imposed fasting), showed no interest at all in food, wished to avoid the topic, and when tested, showed no increase at all in the number and quality of food associations or readiness to perceive objects in terms of food.<sup>25</sup> Bruner suggests that for these young men, giving into hunger may have been something to avoid as a matter of pride and honor. Selectivity, then, on the basis of interests, values and attitudes influences a person's striving to satisfy even the very basic human needs.

On the basis of Maslow's representation of needs and on the above discussion, this writer takes the position that individuals have a variety of needs which can be classified into the categories of physiological, safety, affiliation, esteem and self-actualization needs. The function of a particular need as a motivator of behavior is based on individuals' past histories in terms of needs which they have been successful or unsuccessful in meeting, as well as on perceptions of themselves and their world at present. This writer will, in future discussions, group needs into two categories:

lower level needs -- including physiological, safety, and affiliation;

higher level needs -- esteem and self-actualization

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<sup>24</sup> Bruner and Postman (1947) p. 126.

<sup>25</sup> J. Brozek, H. Guetzkow and M. G. Baldwin, "A Quantitative Study of Perception and Association in Experimental Semi-Starvation," Journal of Personality, 19 (1951) 245-264.

and will adopt, as a statement of probability, the position that, in most individuals, lower level needs must be relatively well satisfied before individuals will be primarily motivated to meet the higher level needs. That is, most individuals at some point in their lives are motivated by higher level needs; those individuals whose lower level needs are relatively well satisfied will be more frequently and consistently motivated by the higher level needs.

### Self-Actualization

Self-actualization is more a matter of degree and frequency than an all or none affair. Every individual, at some point in his life, experiences moments in which all of his capabilities and powers work together in a particularly effective way. Maslow terms these moments "peak experiences."<sup>26</sup> These experiences, by definition, occur more frequently in self-actualizing people than in others. Maslow lists the following among clinically observable characteristics of people who are, for the most part, self-actualizing:<sup>27</sup>

1. A superior perception of reality.
2. Increased acceptance of self and others.
3. Increased spontaneity and ability to express ideas freely without fear of ridicule.
4. Increased autonomy.
5. Increased identity with humanity in general.

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<sup>26</sup>Maslow reports descriptions of peak experiences in Toward a Psychology, Ch. 6.

<sup>27</sup>Ibid. 23-24.



6. Improved interpersonal relationships.

7. Increased creativeness.

Particularly relevant to the discussion in this paper is Maslow's characterization of "a superior perception of reality" in peak experiences. The self-actualizing person is more likely than others to see the world objectively, rather than only in its relationship to him -- as something to be afraid of, reacted to, used etc.. Perceptions in peak experiences are largely non-evaluative and non-judgmental.<sup>28</sup> Western psychologists largely assume that human needs, fears and interests must always be determinants of perception; that the world can be seen only from the vantage point of the interests of the perceiver, and that experience must be organized around the ego.<sup>29</sup> Maslow, however, contends that perception can be unmotivated, impersonal, desireless and unselfish. Self-actualizing people are most likely to be able to perceive the world as if it were independent of them. They are able to focus on the world and to perceive it in depth and detail.<sup>30</sup>

Carl Rogers describes the person in the process of self-actualization as more effective, more realistic in his views of himself, more self-confident and self-directing, more open to experience, more more accepting of others and as valuing himself more highly.<sup>31</sup> Self-actualizing people are more likely to perceive things independently,

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<sup>28</sup>D. Lee, Freedom and Culture (N.Y.: Prentice-Hall, 1959).

<sup>29</sup>R. G. Pierce (1974) p. 69.

<sup>30</sup>E. Schachtel, Metamorphosis (New York: Basic Books, 1959).

<sup>31</sup>On Becoming . . . Chapter 6.

rather than in categories or stereotypes. They take evidence in a new situation as it is rather than distorting it to fit a pattern which they already hold. They know their own feelings and impulses and can consider probably consequences of their actions. They trust themselves to choose and are not stymied by mistakes. They can quickly "re-choose" when they see a course of action end in error. They evaluate their own choices and decisions; looking less to others for approval and disapproval than to themselves.

Combs, Avila and Purkey stress that self-actualizing people possess a high degree of self-esteem. They see themselves in essentially positive ways, and are likely to behave independently.<sup>32</sup>

The Adult, O.K. person, as described by transactional analysis theories is very much like the self-actualizing person. The Adult recognizes that he is able to act autonomously and to do things on his own -- things that grow from his own abilities, awareness and thought. He has self-direction and the ability to choose his responses and to manipulate his surroundings. The actions taken by the Adult are based on process of data gathering and examination. Adult data accumulates as a result of the individual's ability to find out for himself what is different about life from the "taught" concept of life in his Parent and the "felt" concept of life in his Child.<sup>33</sup>

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<sup>32</sup>Helping Relationships . . . p. 144.

<sup>33</sup>For discussions of the Parent, Child and Adult states, see: Eric Berne, Games People Play (N.Y.: Ballantine Books, 1964) pp. 24-28, and Thomas A. Harris, I'm OK - You're OK (N.Y.: Avon Books, 1973) 40-59.

The three states, Parent, Child and Adult are depicted in the following figure:

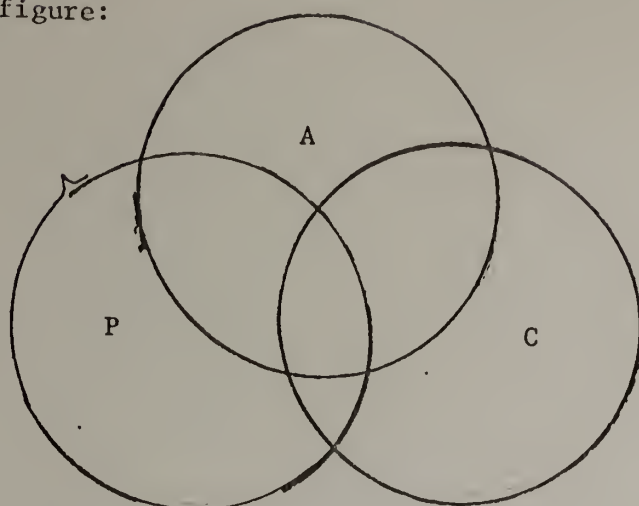


Fig. 5.-- The parent, adult and child

One of the most important things the Adult can do is examine Parent and Child data to see whether it is relevant and applicable at the present, and then to accept and incorporate it or to reject it.

Harris refers to the "I'm OK -- You're OK" position as one of four possible life positions: "I'm Not OK -- You're OK," "I'm Not OK -- You're Not OK," "I'm OK -- You're Not OK," and "I'm OK -- You're OK."<sup>34</sup> The first three positions are unconsciously assumed early in life (childhood) in order to make some sense out of life and to give some predictability to events. They are based on emotions and impressions without the availability of considered data. The fourth position, "I'm OK -- You're OK," is different in that it is conscious decision made on the basis of consideration of a great deal of information about self and others and on the basis of a concept of the

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<sup>34</sup> I'm OK -- You're OK . . . pp. 65-77

future -- of the way the individual and other people and things might and could possibly be.

It is the Adult who assumes the "I'm OK -- You're OK" position. It is the Adult who alone has freedom of choice, and who is able to change himself at will. The Adult can deal with present reality, can estimate consequences and can accept responsibility for his choices and actions.

The perceptual psychologists, transactional analysts and Maslow agree that there are conditions which must be met or needs which must be fulfilled before an individual can devote maximum energy to self-actualization, becoming O.K. etc.. Endangered safety is a primary block to growth -- it means regression. The need for safety will ordinarily win out over any higher needs. According to Maslow, there are also certain conditions which must be met in order for even the very basic needs to be met: freedom to speak, to do what one wishes so long as no harm is done to others, justice, fairness and honesty.<sup>35</sup>

Combs poses the following questions:

How can a person feel liked unless somebody likes him?

How can a person feel acceptable unless somewhere he is accepted?

How can a person feel he has dignity unless someone treats him so?

How can a person feel able unless somewhere he has some success?<sup>36</sup>

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<sup>35</sup> Maslow, Toward a Psychology . . . p.34.

<sup>36</sup> A. Combs, "Some Basic Concepts in Perceptual Psychology," in Avila, Combs and Purkey, Helping Relationships Sourcebook . . . pp. 117-126.

Nathaniel Braden views awareness as a necessary component in the movement toward self-actualization.

When a person acts without knowledge of what he thinks, feels, needs or wants, he does not yet have the option of choosing to act differently. This option comes into existence with self-awareness. . . . When a person becomes self-aware he is in a position to acknowledge responsibility for that which he does, including that which he does to himself, to acknowledge that he is the cause of his actions and thus take ownership of his own life. Self-responsibility grows out of self-awareness.<sup>37</sup>

People feel challenged when they are confronted with problems which interest them and which seem to lie within their capacities for solution. People feel threatened, on the other hand, when they are confronted with problems which they do not feel able to deal with. Continually feeling threatened, like feeling insecure and unsafe, blocks growth toward self-actualization.<sup>38</sup>

Too great a reliance upon authority tends to undermine a person's confidence in himself. It gives him the feeling that all the good answers are held by the authority figures, and he may defer autonomous choices in order to wait for them to supply answers, or spend time and effort trying to think of ways to cajole the person in authority into sharing some wisdom with him.<sup>39</sup>

Overemphasis on evaluation also gets in the way of growth. It is true that most people require feedback in order to help them assess how they themselves are doing, and many people need positive feedback

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<sup>37</sup>In Clark Moustakas and Cereta Perry, Learning to Be Free (N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1973) p. 4.

<sup>38</sup>Combs, Avila and Purkey (1972) pp. 6-108.

<sup>39</sup>Ibid. 237-238



in the form of recognition and encouragement, but many people are evaluated by others who frequently do not want or need evaluation -- at least in the terms in which it is provided.<sup>40</sup> One of the certain destroyers of an atmosphere for initiative, exploration, experimentation and discovery is the fear of making mistakes. Authority figures characteristically reject mistakes, and consequently people are afraid to try new things. In such an atmosphere creativity and innovation are not possible. At the opposite extreme, authority figures who solicitously "protect" people from making mistakes may run the risk of cutting them off from challenge and growth.

A positive view of self is a priceless resource for learning and growth. Whatever dehumanizes people gets in the way of growth, learning and self-actualization. Much of the world does, in fact, have dehumanizing effects. The provision of positive experience of self often runs counter to some of societies most valued modes of operation.<sup>41</sup> Whatever causes a person to feel that his self is less good, less valuable and less acceptable than others interferes with growth.

A positive view of self is learned, therefore, it can be taught in the sense that experiences that will make the development of positive self-perceptions likely can be provided for the individual. Positive self-perceptions come about as a consequence of successful experiences with the world. People learn that they are liked, wanted and accepted, and that they are persons of worth and dignity because they have been

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<sup>40</sup> Ibid. 115-117.

<sup>41</sup> Combs, Avila and Purkey, p. 233.

treated as such. Lack of self-esteem is a product of failure -- of falling short repeatedly. "Whatever undermines self-esteem interferes with psychological freedom and reduces the likelihood of effective and satisfying behavior."<sup>42</sup>

What psychologists have in mind when they speak of a self-concept that facilitates and even makes possible growth toward self-actualization is a self-concept that is largely positive. The person with a positive self-concept, for the most part, thinks well of himself. He recognizes his weaknesses and shortcomings but does not consider himself a less valuable or worthwhile person because of them. The positive self-concept is largely stable; the individual is aware of his self-perceptions, can depend on himself, and can understand what he feels and does. The person with a positive self-concept values himself highly and feels secure. When he asks himself, "Who am I," he answers confidently, emphatically and consistently, and is generally pleased with his answer.<sup>43</sup>

With regard to working with people, the question for the psychologists whose points of view have been discussed in this section, and for other people who adopt those points of view, is changed from the question, "How can I treat, cure or change the person I am working with?" to "How can I provide a relationship with this person which the person may use for his own personal growth?"<sup>44</sup> Rogers, Combs, Avila

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<sup>42</sup> Ibid. p. 148.

<sup>43</sup> John J. Brownfain, "The Stability of the Self Concept as a Dimension of Personality," in Hamachek . . . pp. 269-287.

<sup>44</sup> Carl Rogers, On Becoming . . .

and Purkey call this relationship a helping relationship. The goal of the helping relationship is defined as producing free and intelligent persons who are capable of behaving effectively and with personal satisfaction, and who can be free and autonomous agents. At least one of the parties to the helping relationship must have the intent of promoting the growth and development of the other. At least one must intend that there should come about, in both parties, more appreciation and expression and more functional use of the latent resources of the individual.<sup>45</sup> Some examples of situations where helping relationships may exist are: between parent and child, physician and patient, teacher and supervisor, counselor and client. The relationship may be a one to one or an individual to group relationship.

In the context of this paper, the helping relationship can be viewed as beneficial between the teacher and child in assisting the child in his growth toward maturity. Similarly, the teacher-administrator relationship could potentially be helpful in assisting the teacher to mature to the point where he can be an effective "helper" for a child.

In terms of perceptual psychology, changing behavior requires changing personal meanings; it is necessary, therefore, to involve the behavior in the process of change. He must be induced to explore and to discover new meanings with respect to himself and his world. The self, however, is precious and cannot be placed in jeopardy. The self can only be committed to change when there seems some likelihood

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<sup>45</sup>Ibid. p. 40

that commitment will result in a measure of fulfillment and that the self will not be damaged in the process. This is true for all individuals, and especially true in a great degree for persons who feel inadequate and threatened to the extent that they must be continually maintaining and protecting themselves from further destruction.<sup>46</sup> An atmosphere that will make self-involvement in change likely is probably one in which a person can feel: a) that it is safe to try; b) reassured that he can; c) encouraged to make the attempt; d) largely satisfied in doing so. Making change possible is also a matter of eliminating, as nearly as possible, the blocks that lie in the way of growth toward self-actualization. This involves a sensitivity to the nature of such barriers and a systematic attempt to find ways of removing them.

### Summary

The discussion in this chapter has been presented in order to identify those conditions of the school environment which are conducive to the development of positive self-perceptions in teachers and over which administrators can exercise some influence.

Basically, from consideration of the ideas in this chapter it seems clear that individual behavior is motivated by individual needs and by the individual's tendency to strive for growth toward self-actualization. That behavior is further influenced by the individual's perceptions and by conditions in the environment which make behavior

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<sup>46</sup>Combs, Avila and Purkey (1972) Ch. 6.



directed toward growth and make the development of positive perceptions more likely to occur. There is further evidence to indicate that administrators can affect (influence) these conditions by acting to create an environment which makes teachers' positive self-perceptions possible.

At any given moment, every human being has a set of unmet needs. The individual's behavior is at that time directed toward the fulfillment of those needs. Further, the individual achieves a more satisfying state as the need is met. Maslow describes needs as occurring in a hierarchical fashion, the satisfaction of one level of needs allowing the emergence of another "higher level" need as a motivator of behavior. The most important notion seems that, whether strictly hierarchically arranged or not, there seem to be conditions which must be met, and lower level needs which must be fulfilled, before the individual can be primarily concerned with acting to meet higher level needs (esteem and self-actualization).

Persons A and B who are exposed to the same stimulus may respond differently. One thing which may account for the differences in response may be different perceptions held by A and B. A and B's personal histories and repertoires of past experiences, viewed at the present moment, are factors determining those perceptions, which can be defined as the meanings which the individual attaches to his experiences in the world and with other people.

While it is not explicitly stated as such in the literature discussed in this chapter, this writer sees a relationship between perceptions and the function of needs in determining behavior. An



individual's perceptual field is influenced by his needs at a given instant; these needs are, in turn, a product of the individual's previous experiences and the meanings and relationships he ascribes to the experiences (his previously established perceptions).

Diagrammatically:

Maslow's theory says: Needs  $\rightarrow$  Behavior

Perceptual psychology says:

Past experiences  $\rightarrow$  Perception  $\rightarrow$  Behavior

This writer suggests this conceptualization of the relationship between needs, experiences, perception and behavior:

Experience  $\rightarrow$  Needs  $\rightarrow$  Perception  $\rightarrow$  Behavior

Growth is characteristic of human individuals; they tend to move from immaturity toward maturity -- toward self-actualization. While large numbers of people may be thwarted in their growth toward self-actualization, the tendency, under proper conditions, seems to be there.

Need meeting plays a role in the formation of self-perceptions. For example, an individual does not perceive himself as secure unless he has met his needs for safety. The more frequently an individual can meet a particular category of needs, the more positive will be his self-perceptions with regard to that dimension. Needs and need meeting influence perceptions, and need meeting has a particular influence on the development and maintenance of positive self-perceptions. The dimensions of positive self-perceptions are limited by needs which have already been met, and are not necessarily reflected in the areas of prepotent needs. Conversely, then, for a person who perceives

himself as secure, safety needs are not likely to be prepotent. Positive self-perceptions are achieved, in large measure, through the individual's successes in meeting unfulfilled needs. The more completely and frequently he is able to meet those needs the more likely he is to develop a positive perceptions of self with respect to his ability to meet those particular needs. Consequently, as an individual moves toward self-actualization, his positive self-perceptions tend to increase in number as well as in degree of stability.

## CHAPTER IV

## ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR: RELATED IDEAS

Theories of organizational behavior can be as much a part of an administrator's repertoire as "production techniques" or administrative principles. Organizational behavior concepts can be tools which administrators can use to analyze, diagnose, predict and influence group and individual behavior in organizations. In this chapter the writer examines some hallmark ideas in four areas of organizational behavior theory:

Theories of Individual Motivation. Maslow's ideas provide the basis for the thinking of several authors about ways in which organizational structures can be reorganized and leadership practices revised in order to become more congruent with the human needs of the individuals in organizations.

Education as a Social System. Educational organizations are viewed as systems, and interrelationships among various components are examined.

Theories of Social Exchange. Interactions among work group members are discussed in relationship to the goals and functioning of the organization as a whole.

Theories of Leadership. This writer accepts the view that there is no one, single, best leadership style. Examples of leadership styles suggested as effective in the theoretical and research literature are discussed, and Life Cycle Theory is used as a means of synthesizing many of these ideas.

These ideas are examined in order to point out relationships between administrative practices and individual behavior and growth in organizations -- to identify those things that the administrator can do in order to create a school environment where the development and maintenance of teachers' positive self perceptions is likely to occur

and to identify administrative behaviors which may be associated with teachers' positive self-perceptions in schools.

### Theories of Individual Motivation

Two motives which are discussed in the organizational behavior literature -- competence and achievement -- seem to be related to the concept of self-actualization and descriptive of some of the ways that this need is evidenced as a motivator and of some of the ways that dimensions of this need can be fulfilled in organizational settings.

Robert W. White describes the competency motive.<sup>1</sup> People want to understand and to manipulate their physical environment (and their social environment). They want to be able to make things happen -- to create events rather than merely await them passively. White calls this desire for mastery the competence motive. The sense of competence (based on a history and on expectations of success or failure) generally becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy: the individual seldom achieves more than he expects because he usually does not try to achieve more than he thinks he can. In adults, the competence motive is very likely to be expressed as a desire for job mastery and professional growth and can be fulfilled only to the extent that the individual can exercise some control over his professional destiny -- over what he does and what happens to him at work. The competency

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<sup>1</sup>in Saul Gellerman, Motivation and Productivity (The American Management Association, Inc., 1963) 109-114.

motive plays a key role in effecting job success where initiative and innovation are concerned.

David C. McClelland describes the achievement motive.<sup>2</sup> If a man spends his time thinking about doing things better, he is achievement motivated. The individual puts himself into situations in which he takes personal responsibility for finding solutions to problems. The achievement motivated individual has a tendency to set moderate, interim goals for himself; goals which he feels he can successfully reach. The achievement motivated individual wants concrete feedback about his progress (as opposed to recognition, affection and value judgments).

Assumptions about human nature and human behavior -- about individual motivation -- are implicit in every managerial decision. Douglas MacGregor has characterized these assumptions as descriptive of two distinct points of view. One set of assumptions, which he terms Theory X assumptions, are supported by a substantial body of evidence in administrative literature and practice. Theory X assumptions are essentially these:<sup>3</sup>

1. That every human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it at all possible.
2. So, most individuals must be coerced, directed and threatened to get them to work toward organizational goals.

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<sup>2</sup>"The Achievement Motive," Harvard Business Review (July, August 1962) 99-112.

<sup>3</sup>For a discussion of Theory X and Theory Y see: Douglas MacGregor, The Human Side of the Enterprise (New York: McGraw Hill, 1960).



3. The average human being prefers direction and security, and wishes to avoid responsibility.

MacGregor also cites the existence of body of evidence which would seem to support a different and opposing set of assumptions. That is, there do seem to be instances of individuals who work on their own initiative and who assume responsibility for doing good jobs.

MacGregor proposes a second set of assumptions called Theory Y assumptions, which are very similar to Maslow's basic assumption that each individual continuously works to satisfy his needs; when one need is satisfied another appears in its place as a motivator of the individual's behavior. Theory Y assumptions are these:<sup>4</sup>

1. Work is as natural to human beings as play or rest. Depending on conditions under which it is carried out, work may be perceived as a source of satisfaction or as a punishment.
2. External control and threat of punishment are not the only means of bringing about efforts toward goals. Individuals will exercise self-direction and self-control toward reaching goals to which they themselves are committed.
3. Commitment to goals is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement. The most significant of those rewards - satisfaction of esteem and self-actualization needs -- can be direct products of efforts directed toward achieving organizational goals.
4. The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but also to seek responsibility. "Avoidance of responsibility, lack of ambition and emphasis on security are generally consequences of experiences and not inherent human characteristics."<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>4</sup> Ibid.

<sup>5</sup> in Hampton, Summer and Webber, Organizational Behavior and the Practice of Management (Worthington, Ohio: Charles A. Jones, 1970) p. 137.

5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity and creativity in the solution of problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.
6. Under the conditions of modern organizational life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human are only partially utilized.

Theory Y assumptions are dynamic rather than static; they indicate the possibility of human growth and development. Theory Y does not say that some individuals do not act lazy, irresponsible and insecure, but that it is possible that those individuals who do could, given the proper conditions for growth, act in other ways. Management practices, however, that are based on Theory X, do not allow for this growth to take place. "Even though management based on the assumptions of Theory X is perhaps no longer appropriate in the opinion of MacGregor, . . . it is still widely practiced."<sup>6</sup>

Argyris also states assumptions about human development and growth.<sup>7</sup> Human beings tend to develop:

1. from a state of passivity as infants to a state of increasing activity as adults.
2. from a state of dependency on other persons to a state of relative independence;
3. from being capable of behaving in only a few ways to behaving in a variety of ways;
4. from having erratic, casual, shallow, fleeting interests to having deeper interests characterized by facing challenges and analyzing complexities of situations;

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<sup>6</sup>Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior (N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1972) p. 50.

<sup>7</sup>Chris Argyris, Personality and Organization (Harper and Row, 1957).

5. from having a time perspective limited to the present to having the ability to consider the past and the future when taking action;
6. from lack of self-awareness to self-awareness and self-control and to feelings of self-worth.

Argyris views development as taking place along a continuum, from immaturity to maturity. He notes some basic incongruities between the growth trends of a healthy personality and the requirements of formal organizations. Usually, in organizations, individuals are:

- 1) allowed to have minimal control over their own work, 2) expected to be passive, dependent and subordinate, 3) expected to produce under conditions which lead to psychological failure.

As a consequence, Argyris hypothesizes that the organization creates in a healthy individual feelings of failure and frustration which causes these individuals to either leave the organization, work to become administrators, adopt the use of defensive mechanisms, or lower their standards and become apathetic and uninvolved, and place more value on lower level rewards rather than on growth toward maturity. Argyris adds that the impact of directive leadership on subordinates may be similar to the effects of formal organizations on individuals.

He stresses, like Maslow, that a need, once satisfied, is not then a motivator of behavior. The typical organization offers only limited opportunity for the satisfaction of higher level needs. The deprivation most individuals in organizations experience with respect to lower level needs -- safety, affiliation, esteem -- diverts their energies into the struggle to satisfy those needs, and the needs for self-actualization remain in the background (and with them competency

and achievement motives). The means for providing some physiological and safety needs can be provided for or withheld by management (tenure, wages, working conditions, benefits, etc.). Or, management can use these needs as incentives for workers. This is not true of higher level needs. Management cannot offer or provide self-respect or satisfaction of self-actualization needs. Managers can, however, create conditions so that individuals are encouraged and enabled to seek such satisfactions for themselves, or they can thwart and block individuals' growth and satisfaction by failing to provide those conditions.

Frederick Herzberg divides human needs into two categories which are essentially independent of each other and which affect behavior in different ways.<sup>8</sup> When people feel dissatisfied with their jobs, they are generally concerned about the environment in which they work; they are concerned about needs which are not being met by that environment. Herzberg calls these needs hygiene factors. Hygiene factors describe the work environment and serve primarily to prevent job dissatisfaction. He calls the second category of needs motivators. When people feel good about their jobs, this usually has to do with things about the work itself. Motivators seem to motivate people toward a higher level of effectiveness. Hygiene factors include: company policies, benefits, evaluation, working conditions, interpersonal relationships, and security. These are not part of "work" but are conditions under which work is done. Motivators include: achievement, challenging work,

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<sup>8</sup>Frederick Herzberg, Work and the Nature of Man (N.Y.: World Pub., 1966).



increased competence, growth and development. Hygiene needs, when satisfied tend to eliminate job dissatisfaction but do little to motivate an individual to increased performance and capacity. Satisfaction of the motivators, however, will permit an individual to grow and develop toward increased competency in his work.

Rex M. Fuller and Cecil G. Miskel deal with factors related to teachers' work satisfaction in terms of "sources of work attachment" for teachers.<sup>9</sup> They propose a system of incentives where different categories of incentives are offered to teachers according to their degree of job satisfaction. The system is based on the assumption that satisfied, dissatisfied and indifferent teachers have different sets of needs; that is, that teachers in each of the three groups will be motivated by different factors. Fuller and Miskel propose a two tier model for teachers' incentives as depicted in the following figure:

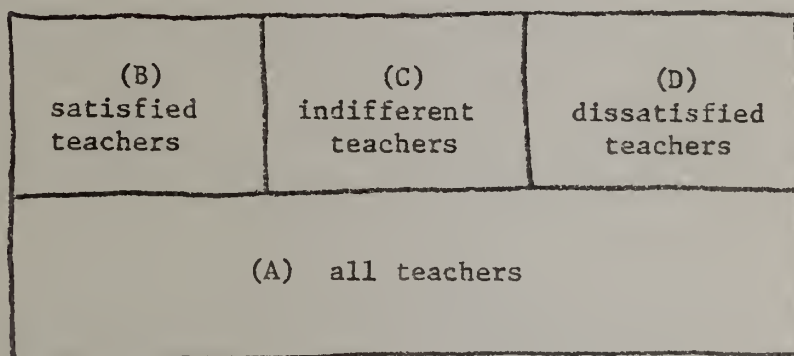


Fig. 6.-- Model for teachers' incentives

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<sup>9</sup> Sources of Work Attachment among Public School Teachers, April 1972. ED 071 171



- A. Minimal incentives are provided for all teachers: extrinsic work factors, security, benefits, patterns and routines for work, enhanced interpersonal relationships.
- B. Incentives offered to satisfied teachers include: achievement and recognition, opportunities to learn new things.
- C. Incentives offered to indifferent teachers: improvements in working conditions and increased opportunities for autonomy.
- D. Incentives for dissatisfied teachers: increased social relationships and improved intrinsic work features.

This categorization of incentives is consistent with Sergiovanni's report of things which are important to teachers. He found that those things important to satisfied teachers are: learning new things, opportunities to participate in in-service programs, and recognition of their accomplishments. Those things which are important to dissatisfied teachers are: policies and administration (the way they are "treated" by the system), supervision and evaluation procedures, salary and working conditions, socializing with other teachers, having their own "personal" materials and supplies.<sup>10</sup> In general these findings reflect Herzberg's discussion of hygiene factors and motivators; when hygiene factors are provided, teachers tend to be "satisfied." This discussion can also be viewed in terms of Maslow's hierarchy. The needs of satisfied teachers tend to be fulfilled up to the esteem level. For these teachers, esteem and some self-actualization needs are motivators. Unsatisfied teachers tend to be motivated by lower level needs; that is, their

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<sup>10</sup>"Factors which Affect Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction of Teachers," in F. Carver and T. Sergiovanni (eds.) Organizations and Human Behavior: Focus on Schools (N.Y.: McGraw-Hill, 1969) pp. 249-260.

behavior will be directed toward fulfilling these needs, and higher level needs such as esteem and self-actualization tend not to have any meaning as motivators.

Other writers have viewed theories of individual motivation in relation to educational organizations and have described, like Argyris, a discrepancy between individual needs and organizational goals and practices -- between behavior directed toward satisfying individual needs and behavior directed toward meeting organizational aims. Gerhardt and Miskel describe an incongruency between the desire of teachers for professional authority and recognition and the demands of the school organization which provide little opportunity for such independence.<sup>11</sup> Teachers' perceptions of the school bureaucracy (hierarchy of authority, rules and regulations, impersonalization) conflict with their ideas what what they think a teaching professional should do.

#### Theories of Education as a Social System

Getzels, Lipham and Campbell describe a system in terms of two dimensions (which interact constantly with each other): 1) the institutionalized roles and expectations which fulfill the goals of the organization and 2) the personalities, level of maturity and needs of individuals in the organization. They propose that to understand the behavior of specific principals (or other administrators) and

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<sup>11</sup>Staff Conflict, Organizational Bureaucracy and Teacher Satisfaction, (presented at the AERA meeting, Chicago, April 1972) ED 064 241.

specific teachers, it is not enough to know the nature of their roles and responsibilities; something must be known about the individuals who are filling those roles. The relationship between the principal and a teacher is perceived by the principal in terms of the principal's needs and goals and vice versa. If the two sets of perceptions are congruent, the teacher and the principal understand each other and can function together effectively. By definition, "social" behavior results when individuals attempt to cope with imposed expectations and responsibilities in ways which are consistent with their own personal needs.

Getzels and Guba present the following model as a context in which to view conflicts that are seen to occur in organizations.<sup>12</sup>

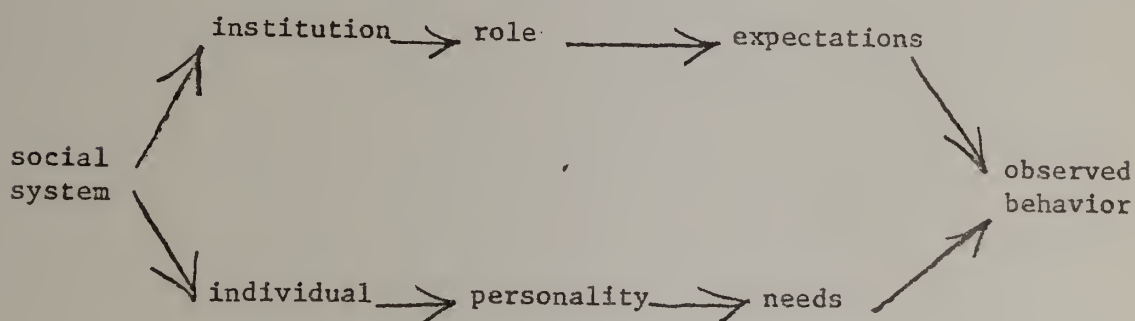


Fig. 7.-- Education as a social process

<sup>12</sup>Educational Administration as a Social Process (N.Y.: Harper and Row, 1968).

They classify conflicts occurring in this system as follows:

- 1) role-personality conflicts -- conflicts between the demands of the role to be filled and the personality of the individual filling that role (expectations v. needs).
- 2) role conflict when an individual is required to conform to conflicting or contradictory organizational expectations (for example, a teacher who must conform to expectations of superintendent, principal, supervisor, parents, pupils, and community).

These conflicts stand in the way of organizational goal attainment and/or individual need fulfillment and growth. One of the striking inadequacies of many social systems (and schools are some of these) is the apparent lack of toleration for divergent behavior. Organizations tend to value stability and equilibrium over uncertainty, disequilibrium and innovation.<sup>13</sup> Pressures on individuals in organizations to conform are overwhelming, and are particularly illustrated in schools by peer pressure against innovation and high orientation to success without failure. Divergent behavior results from the conflict between individual needs and institutional norms, roles and expectations.<sup>14</sup> The objective, then, for effective organizational functioning (meeting organizational goals) must be to somehow arrange for optimum "self-actualization" of both the individual and the organization, and where differences do exist, to channel divergent behavior in the direction of organizational goals.

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<sup>13</sup>W. Michael Martin, Deviant Adaptations as Related to Educational Goal Attainment, (presented at AERA, New York, 1971) ED 050 029.

<sup>14</sup>Ann S. Ferren, Teacher Survival Behaviors within the School School Organization (1971) ED 061 174.

Parsons proposes the following paradigm for analysis of social interactions in organizations in terms of the ways individuals in the organizations respond to conflict.<sup>15</sup>

The expectation of conformity tends to be normative in social interactions, requiring common standards of acceptable or approved behavior. Parsons calls this phenomenon "expectational complementarity." Where any strain or disturbance is introduced into the system, divergent behavior may occur. Individuals holding positive sentiments about the organization and its goals react to conflict or disequilibrium in the organization either actively or passively. Their active reaction is characterized by compulsive performance orientation; passive reaction is characterized by acquiescence to organizational demands and expectations. Persons holding negative sentiments about the organization also react actively or passively. Rebelliousness characterizes the active reaction; withdrawal the passive reaction.

Robert Merton uses Parson's paradigm as a typology for analyzing modes of adaptation of individuals to conflicts between their personal needs and organizational expectations.<sup>16</sup> He suggests the five following modes of adaptation to this conflict:

The conformist agrees with organizational goals and with the means utilized by the organization to reach those goals.

The innovator agrees with organizational goals but disagrees with institutional means of attaining them.

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<sup>15</sup>Talcott Parsons, "Deviant Behavior and the Mechanism of Social Control," The Social System (N.Y.: Free Press, 1964).

<sup>16</sup>Robert K. Merton, "Social Structure and Anomie," Social Theory: Social Structure (1968) 185-214.



The ritualist disagrees essentially with the organizational goals, but complies with and is in agreement with institutional procedures and expectations.

The retreatist disagrees both with goals and means.

The rebel takes an ambiguous position; he neither totally agrees or totally disagrees with goals or means.

Merton suggests that in bureaucratic organizations which have formal policies and regulations, hierarchical ranks and a system of controls and sanctions, the predominant mode of adaptation would be ritualism -- innovation and rebellion are viewed as deviant behaviors.

McKelvey looks more closely at the relationship between organizational expectations and individual needs. He makes the following proposition: an individual perceiving that the organization of which he is currently a member has not fulfilled his expectations will tend toward a deviant style of interaction with the organization. He presents the following model:<sup>17</sup>

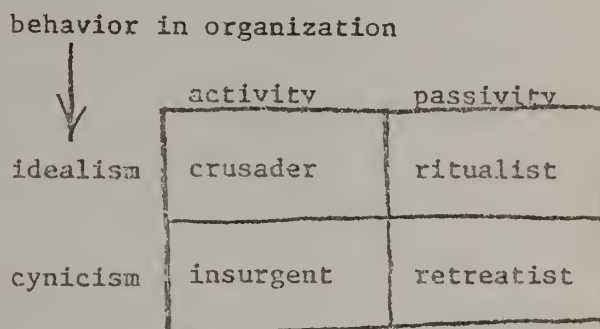
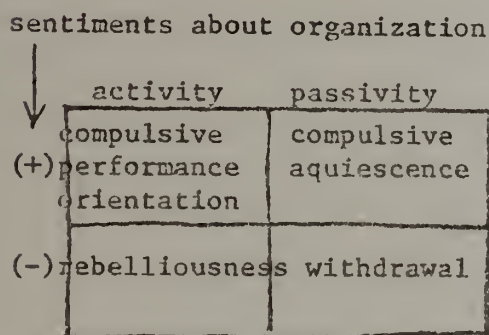


Fig. 8.-- Parsons' model

Fig. 9.-- Deviant styles of interaction

<sup>17</sup>In Martin (1971).

He defines idealism as behavior or thought based on a conception of "things as they should be," and cynicism as the tendency to question the goodness and sincerity of peoples motives and actions. Idealism is found when the individual has positive sentiments toward his organization, and when he feels that he himself has most of the control over his professional life. Cynicism is found when the individual expresses negative sentiments toward the organization and feels that the organization itself has most of the control over his career advancement. Activity, as defined by McKelvey occurs when the individual expresses a preference to change the organization's expectations to get them more in line with his own expectations and needs. Passivity characterizes the reactions of an individual who alters his own expectations to fit organizational expectations.

Martin<sup>18</sup> investigated the relationship between deviant modes of adaption and the process of goal attainment in organizations. He identifies the following modes of adaptation taken by school personnel in relation to their reaction to the goal of school improvement (according to the McKelvey model):

The Crusader -- expresses positive sentiments about and belief in the goals, values and expectations of the organization. He expresses confidence in the existing school structure, but at the same time thinks it could be improved. He is able to meet organizational objectives and fulfill organizational needs with minimal strain. He is willing to innovate and take risks.

The Ritualist -- expresses essentially positive sentiments about the school organization, but feels that to some extent he, as a person, is being abused. He would, however, rather adapt to the conditions as he finds them than attempt change.

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<sup>18</sup>Martin, 1971.

The Insurgent -- expresses negative sentiments toward the organization. He exhibits and expresses frustrations with organizational expectations as being abusive and inequitable. He exhibits vigorous action toward getting rid of or ignoring the present system. His behavior is directed toward fulfilling his own needs, and not toward meeting organizational objectives.

The Retreatist -- expresses negative sentiments and frustrations, and withdraws. His behavior does not fulfill either his personal needs or organizational goals.

Martin formulated the following hypotheses:

I. Schools demonstrating a high frequency of the following "goal attaining processes:" dialogue, decision-making and self-directed action will have a higher frequency of activity and idealism modes than schools demonstrating a low frequency of goal attaining processes.

II. Schools demonstrating a low frequency of goal attaining processes will show a high frequency of cynicism and passivity.

He tested these hypotheses in schools which were members of the League of Cooperating Schools, established by the Kettering Foundation I/D/E/A Institute for the Development of Educational Activities. These schools accepted the goal of "self-renewal" as described by John Gardner:<sup>19</sup> self-renewing institutions are characterized by open communication, direct participation of teachers in change, leadership which clarifies issues and alternatives, pluralism in variety of alternatives available, and the release of individual potential in teachers and students.

Martin found that activity and idealism were the dominant modes in schools which showed a high degree of success in reaching the goal of self-renewal as indicated by a high frequency of occurrence of the goal attaining processes. Teachers in these schools expressed positive sentiments about the schools and about the value of the goal held by the

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<sup>19</sup> John W. Gardner, Self-Renewal: The Individual and the Innovative Society (New York: Harper and Row, 1963).

schools. Decisions in these schools were made through joint action; the faculty felt "in charge" of things that happened and felt that they were self-directed. Martin found no significant difference in cynicism between schools that were high and schools that were low in goal attaining processes. Schools that demonstrated a low frequency of goal attaining processes had a higher frequency of passivity than schools with a high frequency of goal attaining processes. The teachers in these schools exercised little initiative, did not agree on the value of the school goal and communicated with each other infrequently.

The specific significance of this study in the terms of this dissertation is the demonstrated relationship between success in reaching the goal of self-renewal and the modes of "deviant behavior" accepted and encouraged by the schools who did meet this goal most effectively. The "Crusader" mode was evident in these schools: teachers felt that they had the "freedom to fail," and risk-taking occurred. The teachers expressed confidence in the ability of the schools to change and innovations were valued. The inference can be made, according to Martin's definition of the Crusader mode, that while organizational goals were being met, teachers' individual needs and expectations were also being met. That is, some discrepancy between individual needs and organizational goals is inevitable. In situations, however, where teachers are allowed and encouraged to innovate, take risks, make mistakes, participate in school decision-making and make suggestions for change (where the Crusader mode of deviation is acceptable) accomplishment of organizational goals consistent with



"renewal" as described earlier, and meeting of individual needs at the same time is most likely to take place.

### Theories of Social Exchange

These theories basically describe interactions between work group members. Homans describes interactions between persons as an exchange of goods, both material and non-material.<sup>20</sup> Festinger, Schachter and Beck identify two variables which affect this exchange: cohesiveness (anything that attracts people to take part in a group; a measure of the value that members attach to group membership) and communication (a measure of the frequency of interaction among group members).<sup>21</sup> They found that the more cohesive a group, the greater the average frequency of interaction. And, the more cohesive a group, the greater degree of change the members can produce in making group activities and interactions more valuable. In other words, there is a tendency toward proportionality between the value to others of the behavior an individual contributes to the group, and the value of the group contribution to him. For example, if membership in a particular group (note, these groups may be formal or informal groups) gives an individual the opportunity to satisfy his personal needs as well as assistance in performing expected organizational tasks and meeting organizational goals, then the individual will make some contribution

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<sup>20</sup>George C. Homans, "Social Behavior as Exchange," American Journal of Sociology, 62 (May 1958) 597-606.

<sup>21</sup>K. W. Beck "The Exertion of Influence through Social Communication," L. Festinger (ed.) Theory and Experiment in Social Communication (Ann Arbor: Research Center for Dynamics, University of Michigan, 1950).



to the other group members in terms of their meeting individual needs and accomplishing organizational goals.

Leary presents a system for classifying interpersonal behavior along two axes: dominance -- submission and affection -- hostility.<sup>22</sup> Leary developed sixteen categories of behavior that fit into this scheme, for example strong affection for and dominance toward another. Actually any behavior which can be interpreted in the terms of these two axes can be plotted on the grid.

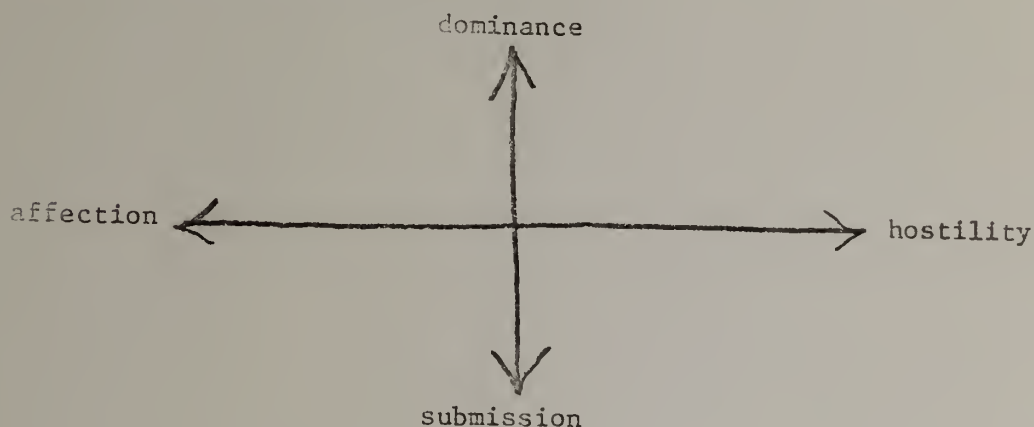


Fig. 10.-- Classification of interpersonal behavior

Leary's model is based on the assumption that to each behavioral act of one person, the other person responds with a complementary act. Along the vertical axis (dominance -- submission) acts of one kind tend to evoke opposite acts -- submissive behavior evokes dominance; dominance evokes submission. Along the horizontal axis (affection -- hostility) acts of one kind tend to evoke acts of the same kind -- hostility evokes hostility; affection evokes affection.

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<sup>22</sup>T. Leary, Interpersonal Diagnosis of Personality (Ronald Press, 1957).

The social relationship between two people is a dynamic one. There are always forces operating to modify the terms of exchange of behavior and attitudes. This has important implications for the willingness of two persons to work together cooperatively. Such cooperation demands some harmony in their perceptions of the work situation, and such concurrence is influenced by the exchange of attitudes and behavior.<sup>23</sup>

Newcomb points out that individuals tend to agree with people they like and to dislike those with whom they disagree.<sup>24</sup> For example, two persons (A and B) interact about X. The attitudes of A and B toward each other and toward X form a system. When one part of the system changes, the other parts are likely to change too.

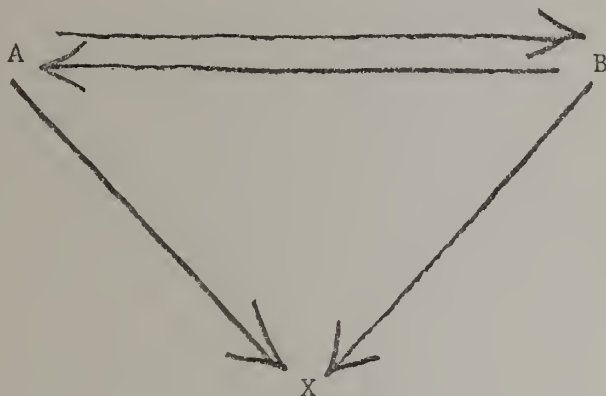


Fig. 11.-- Model for social relationships

<sup>23</sup>Hampton, Summer and Webber, p. 17.

<sup>24</sup>T. M. Newcomb, "An Approach to the Study of Communicative Acts," Psychological Review, 4 (1953).

There is always a movement in the system toward equilibrium, which Newcomb defines as one of two possible balanced states:

1. Mutual attraction between A and B and agreement about X.
2. Mutual rejection between A and B and disagreement about X.

All other states are unstable states and will tend to move toward either of the two stable states. Bidwell discusses consequences of an (X) which is unshared (about which there is disagreement between A and B). If the non-shared X does not represent an antagonism between A and B (e.g., if A likes classical music and B can tolerate it) the focus of the dyad may move to some other (X) that can be shared. But if the non-shared (X) is antagonistic (B actively dislikes classical music), the dyad is likely to dissolve.<sup>25</sup>

Bidwell applies this perspective to the teacher-learner dyad and outlines conditions under which a teacher's activities are likely to effect changes in a learner's attitudes:

1. The teacher knows something or has some skills that the learner wants.
2. The teacher links attitudes -- such as the importance of performing well -- to the content he teaches, and communicates this to the learner.
3. There is a strong positive sentimental tie from learner to teacher -- admiration, respect etc.
4. A difference in attitudes between teacher and student, characterized by weaker commitment on the student's part exists.
5. There is a high rate of interaction between teacher and learner.<sup>26</sup>

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<sup>25</sup>"The Social Psychology of Teaching," in Travers, 1973.

<sup>26</sup>Ibid. p. 420.

Sanctions have a central role in the personal influence perspective. Most powerful are those sanctions that both indicate and affect the solidarity of the social relationship -- such as approval or esteem. Rhea cites evidence that among high school students, sentiments about teachers are centered primarily around the teacher's position and not his personality, and suggests that the teacher-learner dyad in this situation might be quite similar to the relationship between administrator and teachers where the teacher respects the position and expertise of the administrator and where the administrator can apply positive and negative sanctions to the teacher's behavior and attitudes.<sup>27</sup>

Schein states that membership in a group serves essentially three functions for the individual: 1) satisfaction of social needs, 2) emotional support and 3) assistance in meeting organizational goals. Groups, he says, tend to take on lives of their own, and may in actuality assist or limit the individual in meeting goals. Groups develop norms and standards of behavior which may be consistent with or inconsistent with the personal needs of group members, and which may or may not be consistent with organizational goals. Remembering that group membership is generally a function of some reward which the individual derives from group membership, personal needs are likely to be met by groups, organizational goals, however, are not of necessity met by groups.<sup>28</sup>

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<sup>27</sup>"Institutional Paternalism in High Schools," Urban Review 2, 4 (1968) 13-15.

<sup>28</sup>E. Schein, "The Chinese Indoctrination Program for Prisoners War," Psychiatry, 19 (1956) 149-172.

Cartwright and Lippitt make this proposition about groups:

Group decisions may produce changes in individual behavior must larger than those resulting from attempts to change isolated individuals.<sup>29</sup> Desirable consequences of groups (that is, consequences consistent with organizational aims) can be deliberately enhanced.<sup>30</sup>

Needless to say, when group attitudes toward the organization are favorable, the group tends to be productive and effective in working toward organizational goals.<sup>31</sup>

Social relationships between persons (interpersonal attitudes, perceptions and attitudes toward the organization and toward other people) are all interdependent and tend to change together as a system. The manager is inescapably implicated in a web of informal systems as well as the formal organizational system, and he is continuously engaged in transactions in these systems.

Hersey and Blanchard define leadership as the process of influencing the activities of an individual or group toward efforts directed toward the achievement of organizational, group or personal goals.<sup>32</sup> Tannebaum and Schmidt depict leadership styles on a continuum ranging from authoritarian leader behavior at one end to democratic leader behavior at the other end. Authoritarian leader behavior is

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<sup>29</sup>K. Lewin, "Studies in Group Decision," in D. Cartwright and A. Zander (eds.) Group Dynamics: Research and Theory (Evanston: Row, Peterson, 1953).

<sup>30</sup>D. Cartwright and R. Lippitt, "Group Dynamics and the Individual," International Journal of Group Psychotherapy, 7 (Jan 1957) 86-102.

<sup>31</sup>S. F. Seashore, Group Cohesiveness and the Individual Work Group (Ann Arbor: Survey Research Center, U. Michigan, 1954).

<sup>32</sup>Hersey and Blanchard . . . p. 68.



characterized by the leader making and announcing decisions using position power to make those decisions accepted. Democratic leader behavior is characterized by the leader delegating a great deal of responsibility and authority to his followers.<sup>33</sup>

Likert characterizes four organizational management styles.<sup>34</sup> (Organizational management being that particular leadership which is directed at working with and through people to accomplish organizational goals.) System 1 management is perceived by workers as having little trust or confidence in them since they are seldom involved in making decisions. Most of the decisions are made at the top and imposed on workers who are threatened, punished and occasionally rewarded in order to force compliance with managerial decisions. The few supervisor - supervisee interactions that do take place in this system are usually characterized by hostility, fear and distrust. Informal groups which tend to oppose the organizational goals are usually found in system 1 situations. System 2 management Likert terms "benevolent authoritative." The bulk of decisions are made and goals are set at the top. Some decisions are made by workers -- usually within a prescribed framework. Rewards and punishments are used. Supervisor-supervisee interactions are characterized by management condensation and worker fear and caution. Informal groups tend to develop, but are not always resistant to the organizational aims. System 3 management is seen as having substantial but not complete confidence in the workers. Workers make

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<sup>33</sup> R. Tannenbaum and W. H. Schmidt,

<sup>34</sup> Rensis Likert, The Human Organization, (N.Y.: McGraw Hill, 1967).

more decisions. Rewards, some punishment and some offers of involvement are used to motivate workers. There is a moderate amount of supervisor-supervisee interaction, usually characterized by confidence and trust. Significant control is delegated to the workers. System 4 management is seen as having complete trust and confidence by the workers. Decisions are widely participated in. The manager has a well-organized plan of operation, and management holds high expectations for the workers' performance. Workers are involved in setting goals and in assessing progress. Goals of existing informal groups tend to be the same as the organizational goals. Workers display higher goals for their own performance, show cooperation and a positive attitude toward their supervisors, and work more effectively.

The idea of a single type of best leadership style seems, when all the evidence is considered, unrealistic. There is weak and inconsistent support in the research literature for the superiority of democratic, employee-centered, participative leadership.<sup>35</sup>

Other investigators have proposed a "contingency model" for leadership, saying that high levels of worker performance are associated with both leader behavior as well as situational variables -- such as

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<sup>35</sup> As described in the following:

M. Argyle et al, "Supervisory Methods Related to Productivity, Absenteeism and Labor Turnover," Human Relations, 11 (1959) 23-40

R. C. Day and R. L. Hamblin, "Some Effects of Close and Punative Supervision," American Journal of Sociology, 69 (1964) 499-510.

N. C. Morse and E. Reimer, "The Experimental Change of a Major Organizational Variable," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 52 (1956) 120-129.

the task to be performed, the number of workers involved, etc.<sup>36,37</sup>

Again, the predicted relationships have failed to consistently materialize.<sup>38</sup>

Further models have been proposed to explain how the execution of a particular leadership style in combination with situational variables influences individuals' behavior. Evans describes workers' motivation to engage in a certain kind of behavior as a function of the perceived instrumentality of that behavior for attaining his goals and the importance that he attaches to those goals. Administrators, in order to influence behavior, would have to influence these perceptions, by facilitating or blocking the attainment of valued outcomes and by spelling out contingencies existing between effective performance and goal attainment.<sup>39</sup> House states further that administrator influence

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<sup>36</sup>Fiedler, A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967).

<sup>37</sup>J. K. Hemphill, Situational Factors and Leadership (Columbus: Ohio State University, 1949).

<sup>38</sup>As described in the following:

J. G. Hunt, "A Test of the Leadership Contingency Model in Three Organizations," Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 2 (1967) 290-308.

W. Hill, "The Validation and Extension of Fielder's Theory of Leadership Effectiveness," Academy of Management Journal (March 1969) 33-47.

Mitchell, Leader Complicity, Leadership Style and Group Performance, a dissertation (Illinois University, Urbana, 1969).

Graen, et al, "Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness," Psychological Bulletin, 75 (1970) 285-296.

<sup>39</sup>M. G. Evans, "The Effects of Supervisory Behavior on Path-Goal Relationship," Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 5 (1970) 277-298.

on behavior is additionally affected by situational variables.<sup>40</sup>

Hersey and Blanchard define an effective leader as one who is able to adapt his leadership behavior to the needs of the situation and of his followers.<sup>41</sup> They use the tri-dimensional leadership model to describe two dimensions of leader behavior and an effectiveness dimension. Dimensions of leader behavior described are: task orientation and relationships orientation. Task behavior describes the extent to which the leader organizes and defines roles for his followers, and explains what, when, where and how to do things. Relationships behavior is directed toward the establishment and maintenance of interpersonal relationships between leader and followers, the provision of socio-emotional support for followers, friendship, delegating responsibility, "making people happy" etc. With regard to the third dimension, when the style of a leader is appropriate for a given situation it is termed effective. That is the behavior is appropriate in the sense that organizational goals can be made synonymous with individual goals of the workers. In this case, the individual in the organization will work toward organizational goals not only on a short-term basis, when he is forced to, but also on a long term basis because the goals are something that the individual is committed to and wants to accomplish.

Hersey and Blanchard propose Life Cycle Theory to provide a framework for viewing effective leadership styles in relation to the

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<sup>40</sup>R. L. House, "A Path-Goal Theory of Leadership Effectiveness." Administrative Science Quarterly, 16 (1971) 321-338.

<sup>41</sup>Hersey and Blanchard . . . p. 80.



level of maturity of the leader's followers. According to Life Cycle Theory, as the level of maturity of the leader's followers. According to Life Cycle Theory, as the level of maturity of one's followers increases, appropriate leadership behavior not only requires less and less structure (task behavior) while increasing consideration (relationships behavior) but then eventually entails decreases in socio-emotional support.<sup>42</sup> Hersey and Blanchard define maturity in terms of achievement motivation, willingness to take responsibility and task-relevant education and experience. Life Cycle Theory suggests that leader behavior should move through (1) high task-low relationships behavior to (2) high task high relationships and (3) high relationships-low task behavior to (4) low task low relationships behavior if followers progress from immaturity to maturity, as depicted in the following figure:

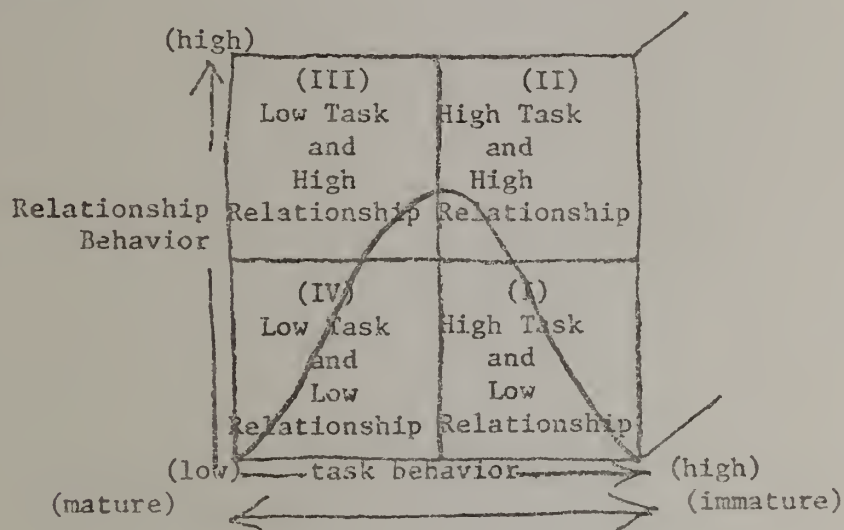


Fig. 12.-- Life Cycle Theory model

<sup>42</sup>Ibid. p. 134.



In other words, immature people need structure in order to work effectively; they will be frustrated and unable to proceed without it. As they begin to mature, or for people who already are more mature, less structure is appropriate, giving the followers the opportunity to increasingly assume responsibility for providing their own structure. As this task ability increases socioemotional supports are provided, and eventually, where the followers approach maturity, less of this support is needed and the followers function relatively autonomously. The task of the leader, then is to assess the current level of maturity of his followers (this may be done in terms of dealing with individuals or in dealing with groups) and must behave appropriately to the end of enabling and fostering followers' growth toward maturity.

Life Cycle Theory serves a synthesizing function for previously discussed theories of motivation. Along the immaturity - maturity continuum depicted in the Life Cycle model, Maslow's hierarchy of needs can be seen as "benchmarks" for the practitioner to use in analyzing and planning courses of action in terms of leadership styles, ranging from quadrant I to quadrant IV that have a high probability of satisfying needs and providing incentives as the level of maturity of the followers increases. Quadrant I behavior has a high probability of satisfying low level needs and so on through quadrant IV behavior which has a high probability of allowing the satisfaction of esteem and self-actualization needs. The same is true of Herzberg's hygiene factors and motivators. Quadrant I, II and III leadership behaviors tend to provide incentives consistent with the hygiene factors; quadrant III and IV behaviors tend to allow the motivators to influence behavior.

Argyris' description of maturity and immaturity coincides with Hersey and Blanchard's immaturity-maturity continuum. The synthesis of these theories is represented in the following figure:<sup>43</sup>

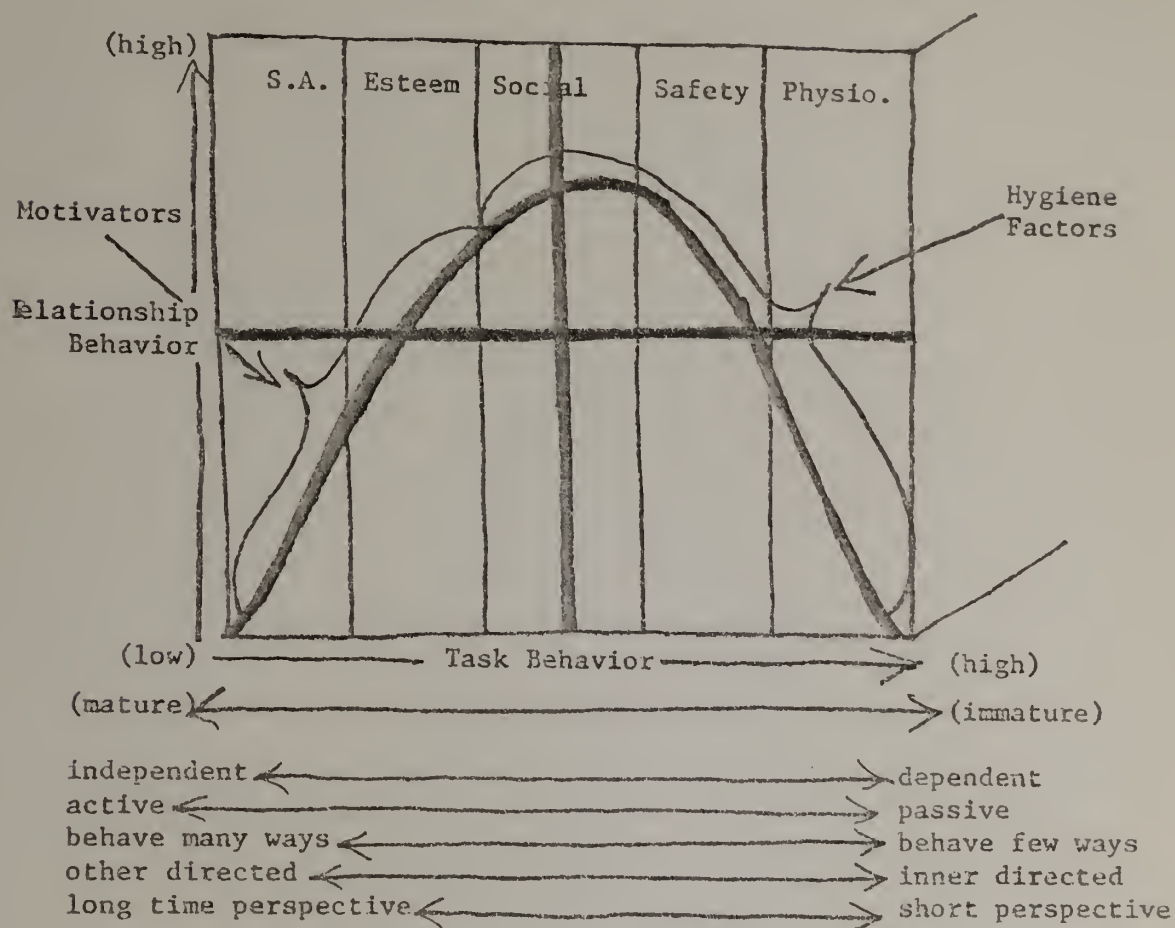


Fig. 13.-- Life Cycle Theory as a synthesis

Life Cycle theory is also consistent with MacGregor's Theory Y; it is dynamic and allows for growth toward maturity and toward increasing responsibility. At the same time, it provides for instances of immature behavior.

<sup>43</sup>Hersey and Blanchard, p. 174.

In terms of Life Cycle Theory, the leader has the responsibility for not only matching styles to needs of followers so that organizational goals might be accomplished but also for facilitating or providing an environment where movement in the direction of maturity may occur.

Likert found that a subordinate generally responds well to a superior's high expectations for and genuine confidence in him. Resulting high performance on the part of the subordinates will justify and support increasing trust and so on in a spiral effect. The converse also works. The leader who conveys his low expectations to workers by telling them what to do and watching them to be sure they do it right, elicits behavior from the followers which supports the leader's low estimation of and expectations for them. Again, spirally, the situation tends to get worse and worse.

Likert also deals with the perceptions of the supervisee of the supervisory act or interaction. These perceptions will determine in part the response of the supervisee to the supervisory act.<sup>44</sup> Likert states the principle of supportive relationships: the leadership and management of an organization must be such as to insure that in all the individual's interactions and relationships with the organization, the individual will, in the light of his own perceptions, needs, expectations and goals, view the experience as supportive and as one which builds and maintains the individual's sense of personal worth and importance.

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<sup>44</sup> Rensis Likert, New Patterns of Management (N.Y.: McGraw-Hill, 1961).

## Summary

One of the stated aims of this dissertation is to examine ways in which school administrators can exert positive influences on teachers' self-perceptions. This aim is the product of an argument which states that a good education is one which teaches each student how to learn and which enables each student to grow toward becoming a relatively independent, self-actualized person. The argument states further that those teachers who most effectively assist students in this growth are teachers who, themselves, are in the process of growth toward self-actualization and who hold essentially positive perceptions of themselves as persons and as teachers. The discussion in this chapter, an examination of related ideas in the area of organizational behavior, has been presented in order to:

1. Identify strategies that administrators can use in affecting environmental variables which are conducive to the development of positive self-perceptions in teachers, and
2. Define points of view which underly administrator action and decision-making directed toward this end.

While the development of positive self-perceptions can be viewed from the points of view of transactional analysis, life cycle theory, definitions of immaturity and maturity, etc., it seems consistent with all those ideas to view the development of positive self-perceptions as a function of the satisfaction of individual needs. While not attempting at this point to explicate each of the theories discussed in this chapter in terms of need fulfillment, one example may serve to illustrate congruities and consistencies:



According to Likert, the system 4 worker has positive perceptions of himself. He arrives at these positive self-perceptions as a result of a "mirror" which is held up by System 4 managers.<sup>45</sup> That is, the worker perceives management as having trust and confidence in him and as holding high expectations for him. The worker then performs so as to maintain these positive perceptions. Put in terms of needs, system 4 management provides incentives for individuals whose higher level needs are acting as motivators. Given opportunities to satisfy these needs (including competency, achievement, etc.) workers move toward self-actualization and at the same time increase their positive self-perceptions.

Positive self-perceptions are a function of success in need meeting, and tend to develop in a pattern where fulfillment of lower level needs is followed by the fulfillment of the higher level needs -- esteem and self-actualization. Based on this, Chapter V will be directed to the formulation and presentation of models which the school administrator may use to devise strategies to enhance teachers' positive self-perceptions. At this point, the following statements will serve to define the concepts and ideas on which the models will be based:

1. The administrator can effectively direct the organization and individuals in that organization toward accomplishing organizational goals and can at the same time enhance individuals' positive self-perceptions when he can act to bring about a congruence between behavior which meets individual needs and behavior which accomplishes organizational aims. This idea is based on the notion that conflicts between organizational expectations for an individual and that individual's personal needs and goals stand in the way of accomplishment of organizational goals and personal growth.<sup>46</sup>
2. Additionally, the administrator can increase effective goal-directed behavior in organizations by acting so as

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<sup>45</sup> Ibid.

<sup>46</sup> Getzels and Guba (1968), Martin (1971).



to influence informal groups in that organization (as well as interpersonal relationships) toward group commitment to organizational goals.<sup>47</sup> Concomitantly he can use teachers' informal group membership as a means of satisfying teachers' needs. In terms of exchange:<sup>48</sup> teachers can benefit from group membership in terms of opportunities to satisfy social or esteem needs and can contribute to the group by aiding in the accomplishment of organizational goals.

3. The leadership that an administrator provides can have direct consequences for the development of teachers' positive self-perceptions. Leadership (in terms of giving followers responsibility and independence and providing socio-emotional supports) which is appropriate to teachers' maturity (prepotent needs) can enable teachers to have experiences which will result in positive self-perceptions and which will make possible growth toward more positive self-perceptions. On the contrary, inappropriate leader behavior may have the consequence of fostering the development of negative self-perceptions in teachers. Some teachers may be at a point where they can be successful and can maintain positive self-perceptions so long as someone in authority tells them what to do. These teachers know that they can be successful in doing what they are told to do. Were these teachers given too much autonomy and responsibility too soon they may flounder and actually begin to develop negative self-perceptions. Again, the object for the administrator must be to diagnose teachers' needs and to provide leadership appropriate to them. Appropriate leadership makes possible the meeting of organizational goals as well as the satisfaction of individual needs.<sup>49</sup>
4. The administrator can act to enhance teachers' positive self-perceptions by "telling" teachers positive things about themselves. Teachers will generally respond to these high expectations by behaving so as to justify these expectations. Consequently, then, the administrator's

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<sup>47</sup>Festenger (1950), Newcomb (1953), Rhea (1968), Cartwright and Leppitt (1957).

<sup>48</sup>Homans (1958).

<sup>49</sup>Evans (1970), House (1971), Hersey and Blanchard (1972).

expectations may further increase, teachers' positive perceptions and behaviors may increase and so on.<sup>50</sup>

The ideas are consistent with the summary statements in Chapter II, particularly with the notions of teachers working in peer groups, and teachers accepting increasing responsibility and acting as relatively independent professionals. The latter point is particularly significant in the light of statement (3) above. All teachers are not necessarily ready to assume responsibility and professional independence, nor may they presently want to; this does not mean, however, that they cannot or will never want to. An additional statement with implications for model-building can be made in consideration of the ideas in Chapter II:

5. Giving teachers opportunities to view, analyze and modify their own behavior can have the effect of enhancing teacher growth and the development of positive self-perception. However teachers, depending on their stages of maturity, respond to feedback in different ways. Administrators who would effectively use this process in enhancing teachers' self-perceptions must devise strategies appropriate for different teachers.

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<sup>50</sup>Likert (1961).

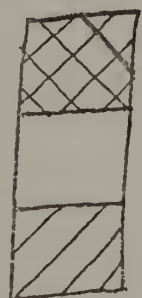
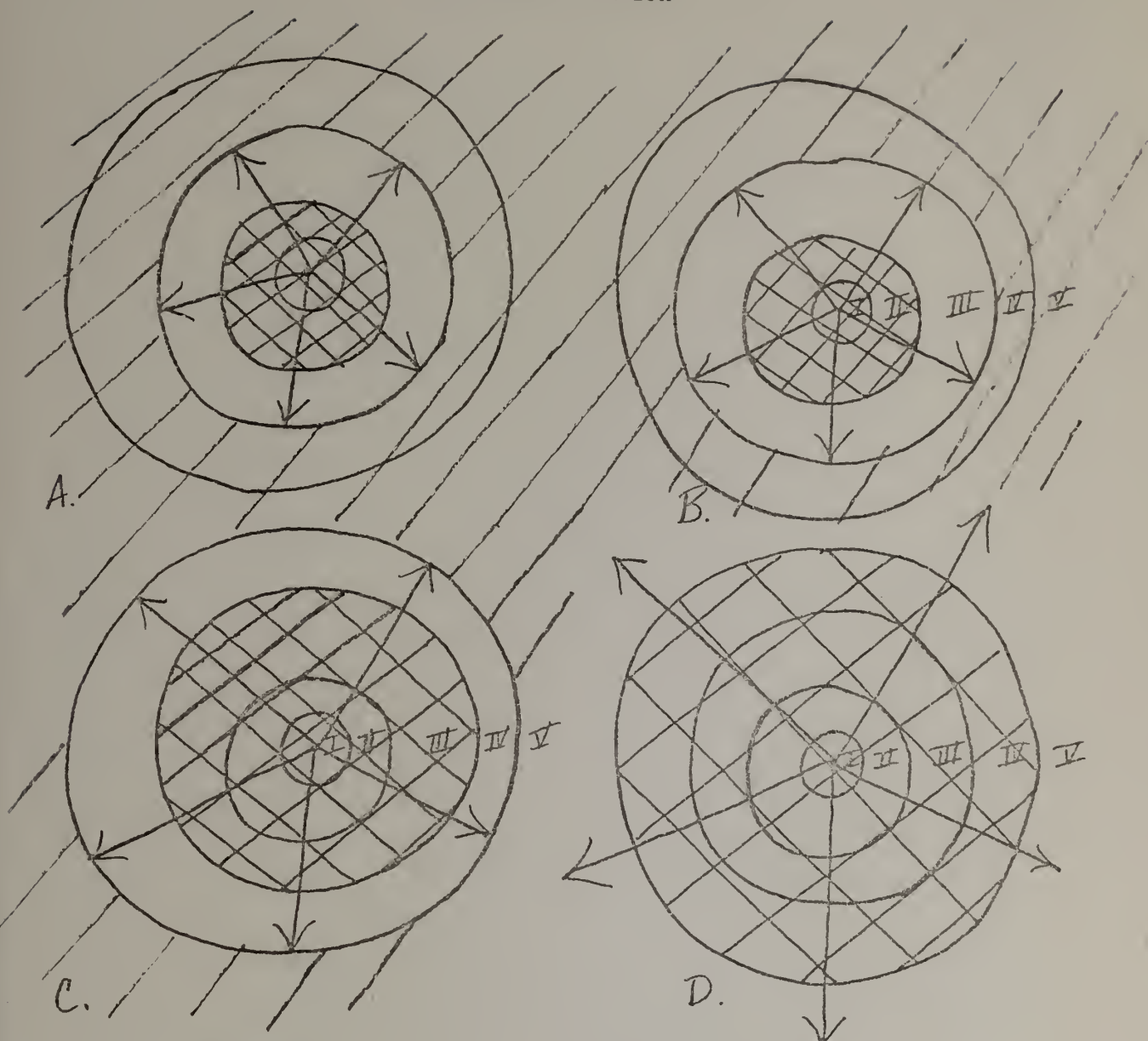
## CHAPTER V

## MODELS

In the preceding pages many ideas, some divergent and some explicitly related, have been explored. It would seem that if the ideas are to be useful and relevant to school administrators in their work with teachers, then some means for organizing and synthesizing the ideas is appropriate. This chapter is designed to organize and to weave these ideas, along with this writer's own interpretations and conceptualizations, into models that will enable administrators to formulate guidelines and plan strategies for acting so as to enhance the development of teachers' positive self-perceptions. The models embody diverse ideas, and consequently, it is this writer's expectation that they will have applicability to a variety of administrative styles and points of view.

MODEL I

NEEDS AND BEHAVIOR



satisfied needs

motivators (prepotent needs)

unfulfilled needs that are not yet prepotent

I } lower level needs  
 II } (physiological, safety and social)  
 III }  
 IV } higher level needs  
 V } (esteem and self-actualization)

Figure 14.

Every human individual, at any given moment, has a set of needs which includes some needs which are fulfilled, some needs which are prepotent, and some unfulfilled needs which are not yet prepotent (illustrated in Figure A). It is the prepotent needs which, at this moment, motivate the individual's behavior<sup>1</sup> -- the individual acts to fulfill these needs (→ indicate this behavior in Figures A through D). The individual's behavior is at this time directed toward meeting prepotent needs and at the same time limited to activity which relates to the meeting of that set of needs. These needs are classified for the purpose of these Models into lower level and higher level needs. Lower level needs include: physiological, safety and affiliation needs; higher level needs include esteem and self-actualization needs. Satisfied needs do not motivate behavior; unfilled needs which are not prepotent needs are not motivators. For example, the individual represented in Figure B is satisfied with respect to some lower level needs. For that individual, other lower level needs (social needs in this example) are prepotent, and actions are directed toward fulfilling needs for love, affiliation, belonging, etc. And, for that individual, the higher level needs, esteem and self-actualization, have little meaning as goals or as motivators of behavior. When the lower level needs are fulfilled, esteem needs become motivators of behavior (Figure C). Again, behavior is circumscribed by those needs; behavior tends to be directed toward activities which will in one way or another fulfill these needs. Self-actualizing individuals (as

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<sup>1</sup>Maslow (1954).



represented in Figure D) have wider options for behavior. The expression of motivation toward self-actualization varies greatly from person to person and may have many manifestations within the activities of any one individual.<sup>2</sup> Again, as discussed in Chapter III, the average individual is most often partially satisfied and partially unsatisfied in all needs. This model represents, however, the general probability that a) an individual has more unfulfilled self-actualization and esteem needs than lower level needs and so on, b) at any moment propotent needs at a particular level will be motivators of behavior, c) movement tends, in general, to proceed from fulfillment of lower level toward fulfillment of higher level needs. It is possible, for example, for an individual who is satisfied in physiological needs, and for whom safety needs are prepotent (the strongest motivators of behavior) to be also motivated by higher level needs at a given instant. The greater probability is, however, that the individual's behavior will be directed toward fulfilling safety needs until those needs are fairly well satisfied.

The development of positive self-perceptions in an individual can be viewed in terms of successfully met needs. In the following figure (————→) represents successful need-meeting activity; (---→) represents unsuccessful need-meeting activity. Where the individual is more successful than unsuccessful in meeting a need, or needs, at a particular level, positive perceptions with respect to ability to meet that need will result. This is illustrated:

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<sup>2</sup>Rogers (1961).

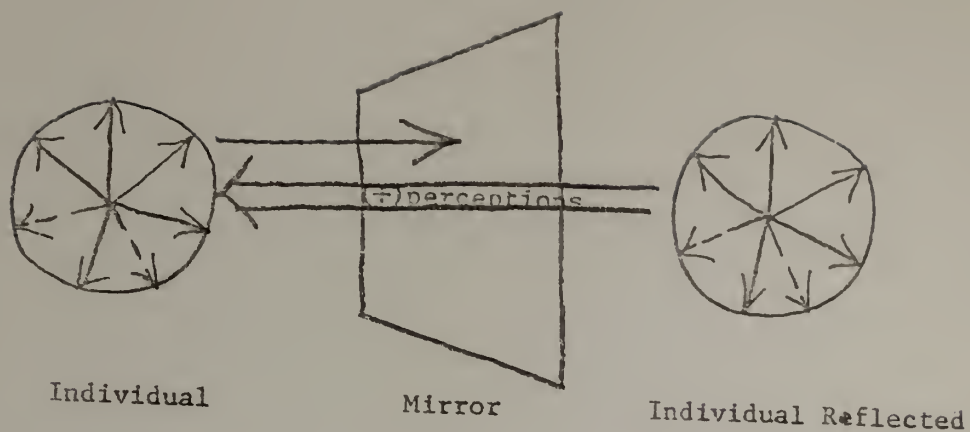


Fig. 15.-- Development of positive self-perceptions and successfully met needs (A).

For example, an individual who is largely successful in meeting his esteem needs will perceive himself as worthy, valuable, etc.. Fulfillment of needs can, in this way, be related to dimensions of self-concept. The individual in the following figure is satisfied with respect to physiological and safety needs; he has positive self-perceptions with respect to his ability to meet those needs. (He feels safe, secure, etc.)

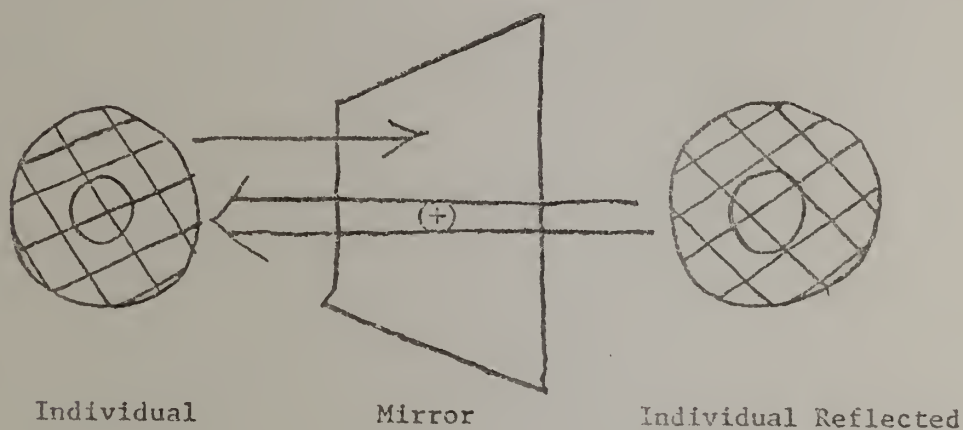


Fig. 16.-- Development of positive self-perceptions and successfully met needs (B).

In the next diagram, the individual is represented as having lower level needs that are met, and prepotent esteem needs. He holds essentially positive self-perceptions with respect to the physiological and safety areas. His self-perceptions in the esteem area are as yet undefined. Activities in this area may result in positive or negative self-perceptions as experience accumulates -- successful experiences leading to positive self-perceptions and vice versa. Outside the limit of the prepotent needs, in the areas of esteem and self-actualization, the individual's self-perceptions are also largely undefined. He may have no self-perceptions at all in this area, he may have some negative and/or some positive self-perceptions, but these perceptions are not very stable or fixed -- certainly not as stable as the perceptions resulting from repeated experiences in meeting needs. So, as the individual approaches self-actualization, the dimensions, number and stability of his positive self-perceptions increase.

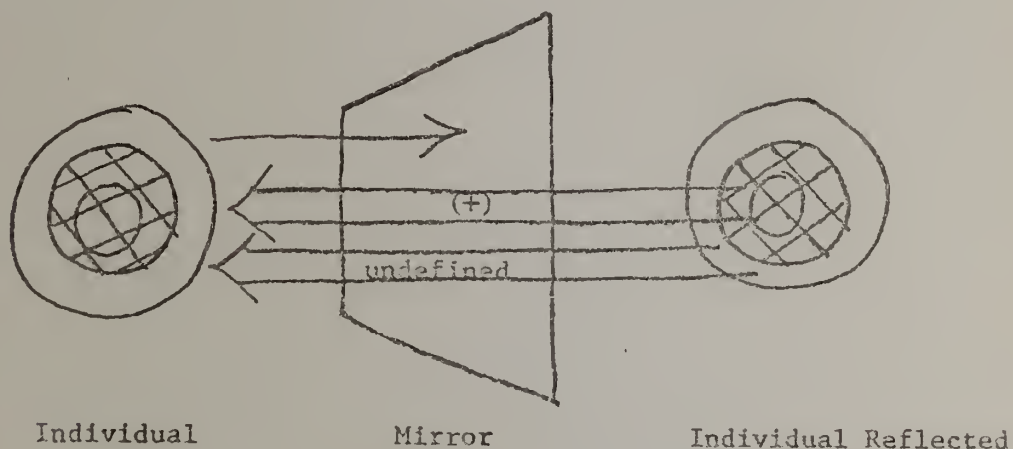


Fig. 17.-- Development of positive self-perceptions and successfully met needs (C).

In summary, successful need-meeting activities lead to the development of positive self-perceptions with respect to those needs. This is represented in Model II (next page). The development of more positive self-perceptions is concomitant with growth toward self-actualization. This conceptualization is consistent with the explanation, in terms of perceptual psychology, of how perceptions are developed. Perceptions are formed as a product of experiences, with other individuals and with the world. Self-perceptions, too, are a function of these experiences. An individual who perceives that he is treated by others as a valuable, worthy and capable person will develop self-perception of worth and competence as these experiences accumulate.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>3</sup>Combs, Avila and Purkey (1972).

MODEL II  
NEEDS AND SELF-PERCEPTIONS

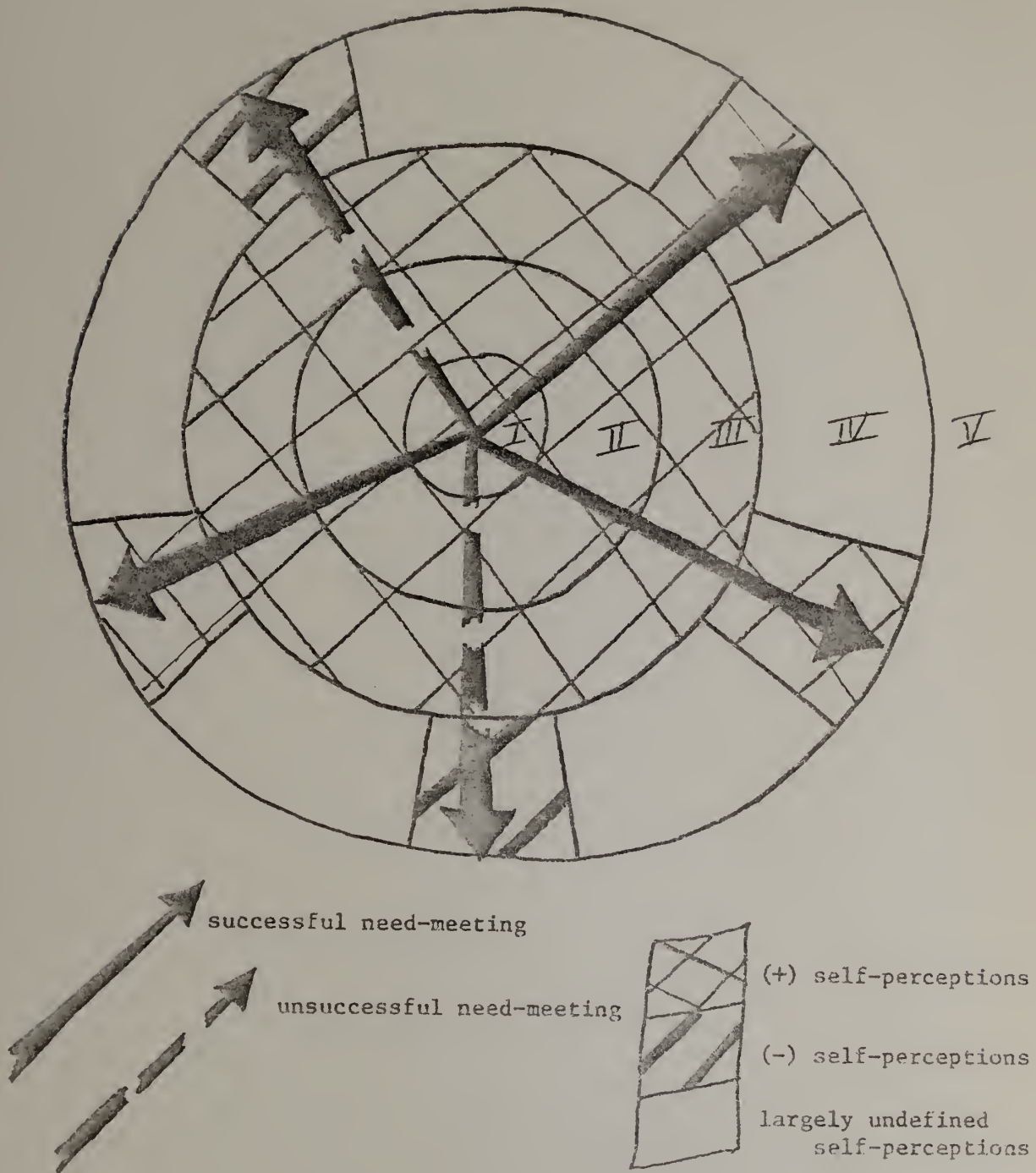


Figure 18.



This writer has previously suggested the following relationships among experience, needs and perceptions:

Experience → Needs → Perceptions → Experience → Needs . . .

Experiences include behavior, interactions, cognition etc. Needs arise from past experiences and meanings; it is in relation to these experiences that a need arises. An individual's perceptual field is greatly influenced by his needs at any instant. His perceptual field, then, greatly affects the way that individual behaves and the meanings and relationships which he attaches to his experiences. The relationships between experience, needs and perceptions might better be represented in this way:

Experience ↗ Needs ↘ Perceptions ↗ Experience ↘ Needs . . .

to indicate that between each step in the chain, other factors may also be operating. That is, while perceptions may be a major determinant of experience, other factors may also come into play, and so on.

Nevertheless, the relationship as represented on this page seems to hold. Further, the relationship can be represented in spiral fashion to indicate that as this pattern progresses continually, the individual grows -- experiencing new things, developing new needs and forming new perceptions.

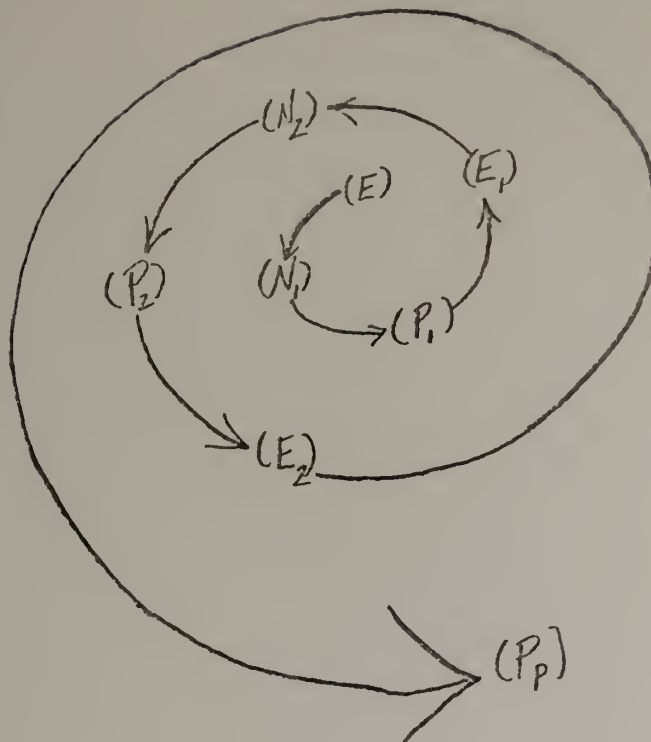
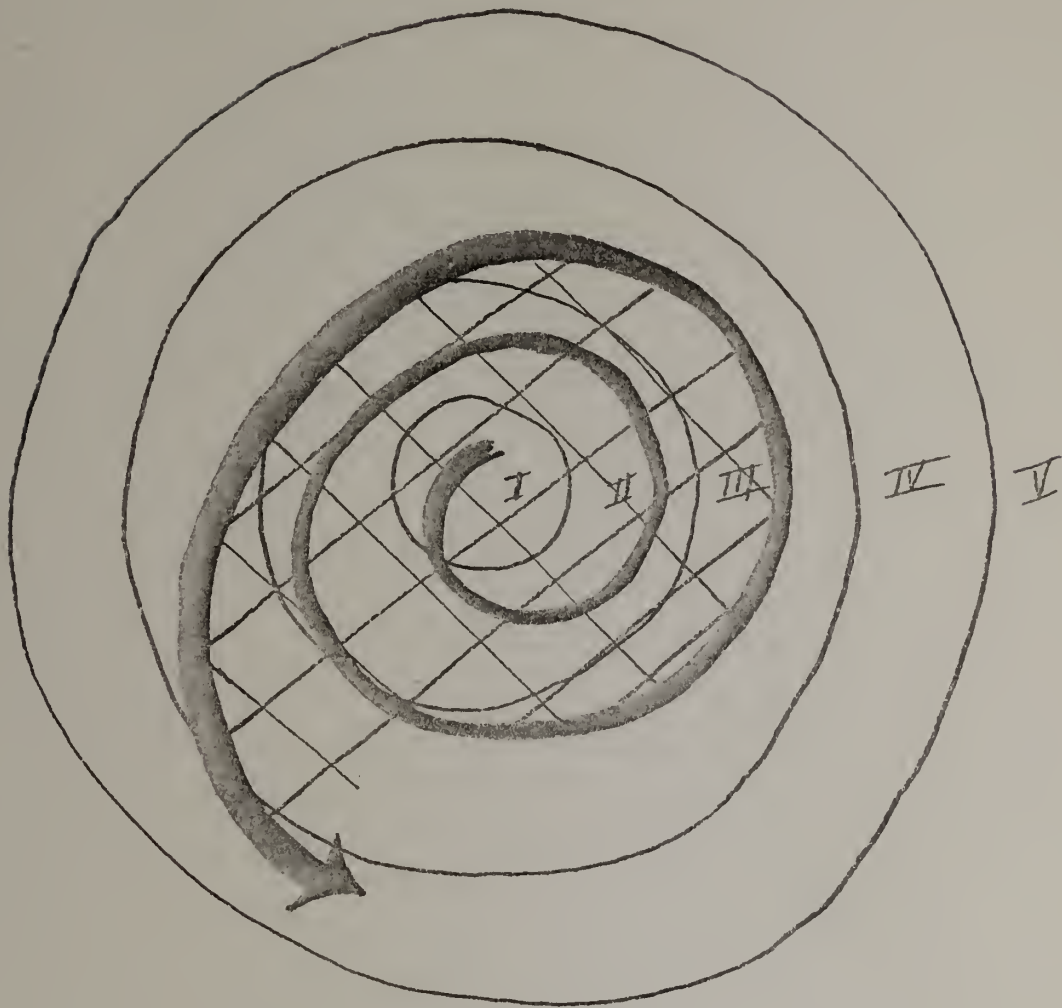


Fig. 19.-- Experience, needs and perceptions

Present perceptions ( $P_p$ ) are a function of all the individual's previous perceptions and experiences. For example, an individual who perceives himself as competent probably has in his repertoire an accumulation of experiences in which he has perceived himself as behaving successfully.

In Model III on the following page, this spiral is superimposed on the representation of individual need levels, indicating that experiences may either engender new needs or the same needs at one level, or, when needs at that one level are fairly well satisfied, experiences may engender new, higher level needs and so on as the individual grows toward self-actualization and as his positive self-perceptions increase.

MODEL III  
NEEDS, SELF-PERCEPTIONS AND GROWTH



area of positive self-perceptions

Figure 20.

Change in self-perceptions can also be viewed in terms of this model. An individual who perceives himself negatively (as unsuccessful, for example) may, as a consequence of his future experiences continue to perceive himself negatively or begin to perceive himself more positively according to the quality of those future experiences. Experiences in which the individual perceives himself as not succeeding will maintain and confirm negative self-perceptions. Experiences in which the individual see himself as successful make possible a change in his self-perceptions. It is important to note, here, that an individual who at a given point in his life perceives himself negatively -- as unsuccessful will probably require a large number of "successful" experiences before his negative self-perceptions will change. His already existing negative self-perceptions form a screen through which he is likely to view new experiences. He is, therefore, likely to perceive himself in ways which are consistent with his already existing self-perceptions.<sup>4</sup> That is, he may perceive himself, as unsuccessful when he is, in fact, succeeding. Change in his negative self-perceptions is likely to result only as a consequence of repeated experiences which result in success for him.

Needs function in this process to make the development of (+) self-perceptions more likely. An individual who has prepotent needs in the realm of esteem and competence will be more likely to interpret successful behavior as successful behavior -- that is as behavior which serves to meet his pre-potent needs.

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<sup>4</sup>Purkey (1970).

An individual's goals can be viewed as goals which enable that individual to meet his needs. An individual, at any given point, has a set of goals for his life which may be quite diverse, but which, most probably, represent that individual's views of what things he can do to meet his personal needs. Individual goals are represented by the concentric circles in the figure below. The individual's movement toward meeting those needs is represented by the spiral.

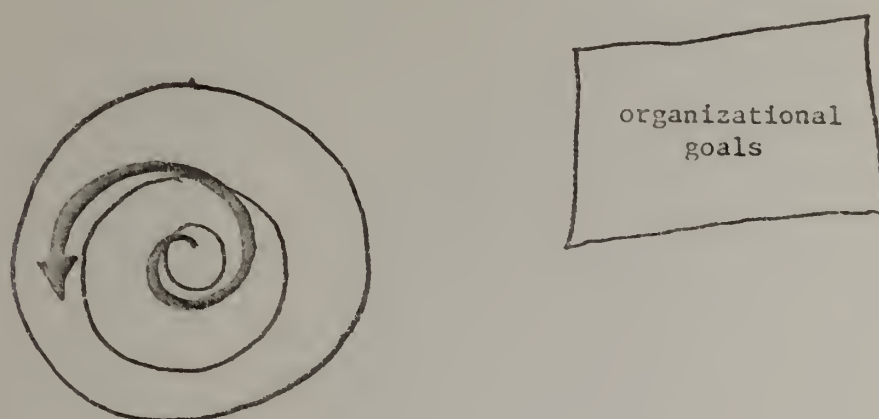


Fig. 21.-- Individual and organizational goals (A).

Where this individual is working in an organization, organizational goals, expectations, etc. also come into play. These goals are represented by the box above. It is probable that for any individual who joins an organization, at least some small part of his personal goals are coincident at that time with at least some organizational goals, as represented on following page.





Fig. 22.-- Individual and organizational goals (B).

In view of the task of the administrator to bring about some greater congruence between individual and organizational goals in order that organizational goals might be effectively met, and in terms of the relationships expressed in Model III, this writer suggests that the administrator, in working to effect congruence can set up situations in which individual behavior which is directed toward satisfying individual needs coincides with behavior which is effective in meeting organizational goals. The administrator will, in this way, be acting so as to enhance the individual's growth toward self-actualization by influencing the individual's goal-meeting and development of positive self-perceptions in a very particular area -- that area which directly relates to organizational goals. This is represented by the area in

the angle AOB in Model IV on the following page. Where a conflict exists between the demands of an individual's role in an organization and his individual needs, organizational goal attainment is hampered and individual growth and need fulfillment, in that part of his life that pertains to his work or profession is blocked. Negative self-perceptions with regard to himself at work result. Where an individual in an organization can behave and see himself behaving in ways which are consistent with his views of how he, as a professional and organization member, should act, positive perceptions in this regard result. Actions that administrators can take to bring about coincidence between need-directed and organizational goal-directed behavior include allowing and fostering individual growth in the organization and setting interim organizational goals which are compatible with individual needs the meeting of which lead to fulfillment of needs and toward achievement of the primary organizational goals. Specific strategies and implications will be discussed in the following chapter.

MODEL IV  
NEEDS, GROWTH AND ORGANIZATIONAL GOALS

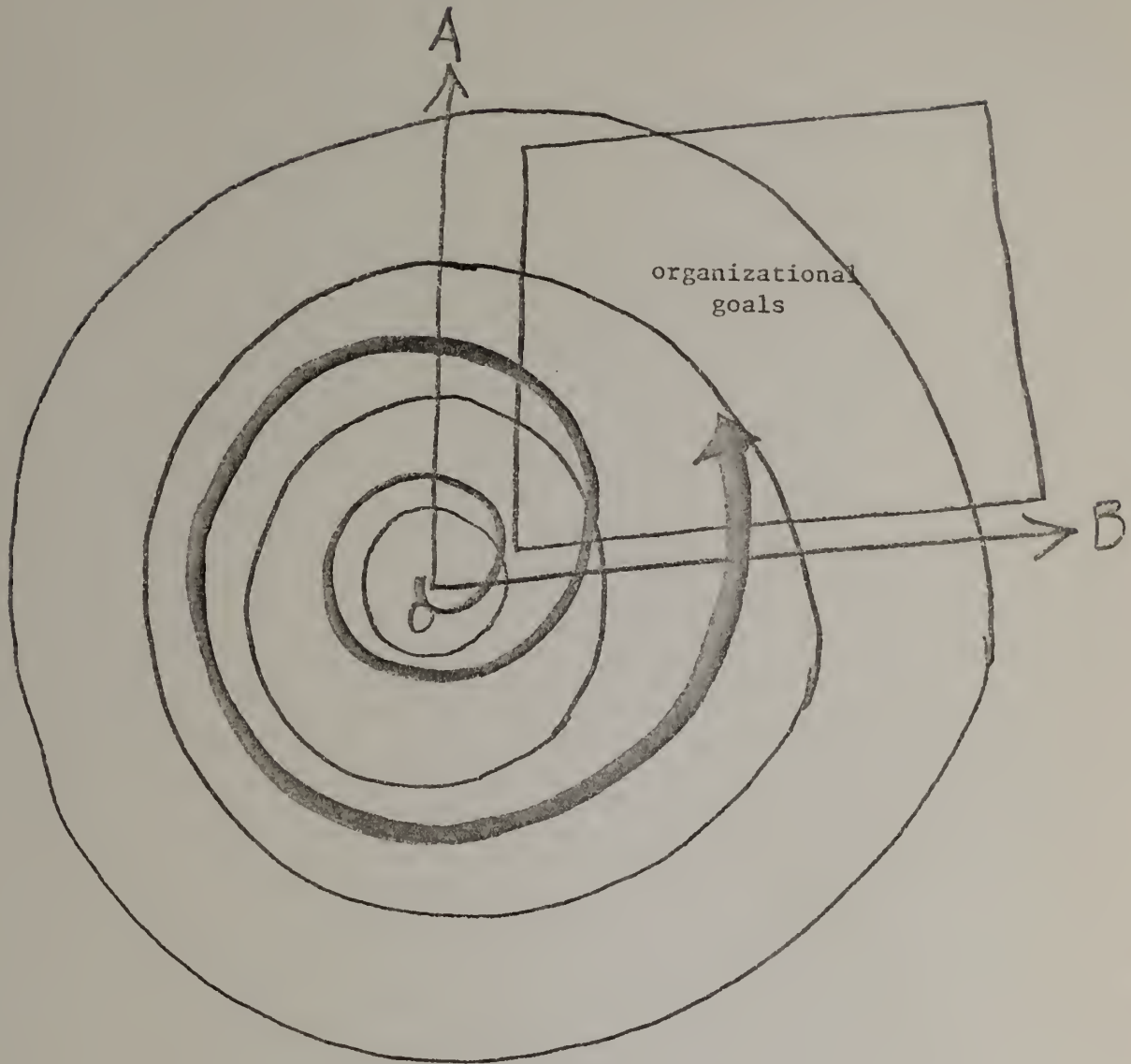


Figure 23.

In terms of the models presented and discussed up to this point, increased positive self-perceptions are brought about as a product of growth toward self-actualization (a product of more and more satisfied needs). As depicted in Model IV, the administrator has a large area in which to work to influence individual need meeting and the development of positive self-perceptions in the areas of social and especially esteem needs. The opportunity is available for the administrator to provide many experiences in these areas which will lead to congruence with a large area of organizational goals. This is consistent with the observations and information previously discussed (Chapter I) which indicate that for the majority of teachers, esteem and some social needs are prepotent.<sup>5</sup> The objective for the administrator, then, becomes to provide increasing experiences for teachers, in the area AOB (Model IV) where individuals can be successful in meeting social and esteem needs. The administrator can be particularly effective in providing these experiences because at the point in the individual's life where social and esteem needs are prepotent, the individual is especially susceptible to the influences of other people with respect to how the individual feels about himself, and how those needs are met. The individual's fulfillment of social and particularly esteem needs and his concomitant development of positive self-perceptions in these areas depends greatly on other people and how the individual perceives their behavior toward him. In a school setting, for example, the administrator is a very

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<sup>5</sup>Sergiovanni and Trusty (1966), Walberg (1966), Fuller and Parsons (1972).

important one of those people for teachers. At this level the administrator can quite effectively block growth toward more positive self-perceptions, he can effectively enhance the development of more positive perceptions, or he can affect the individual neutrally. These effects are depicted in the following figure:

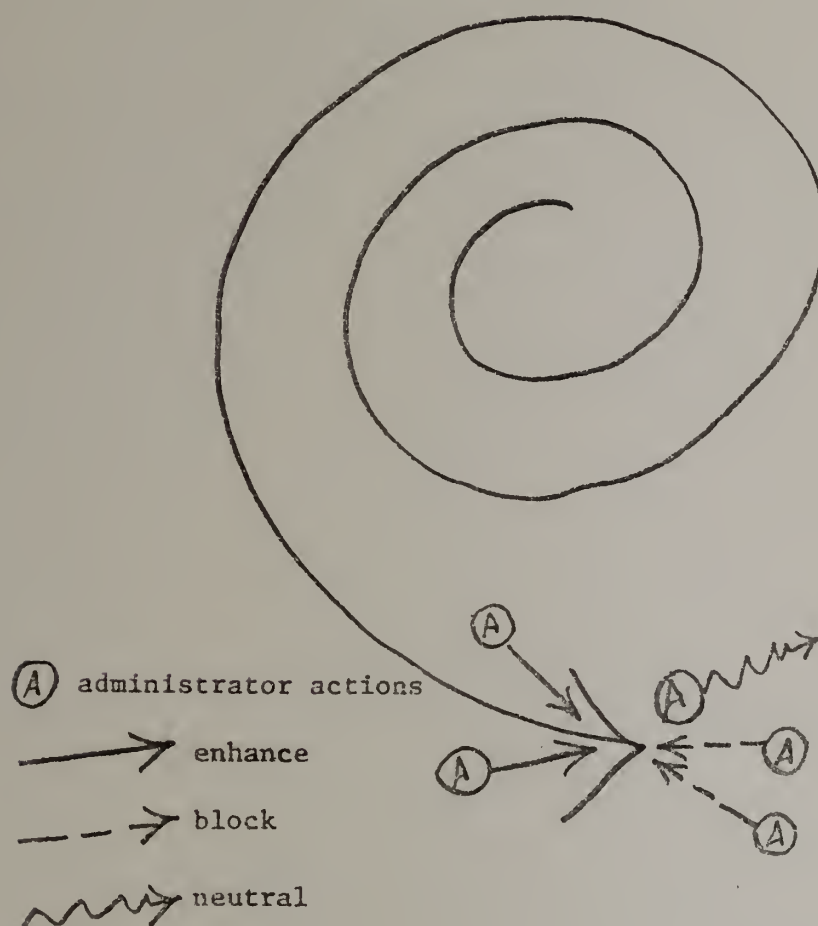


Fig. 24.-- Administrator actions and teacher growth

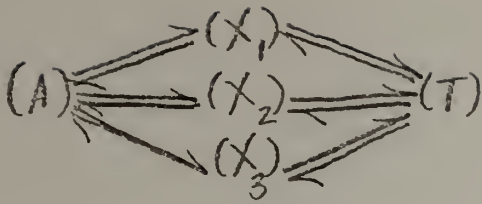


Again, it is at the point of experience in the sequence experience  
 → needs → perceptions → experience . . . that an administrator  
 can exert the most influence on the development of positive self-  
 perceptions. The administrator can, in order to do this: a) provide  
 experiences where teachers can be successful and/or b) provide  
 experiences which portray teachers in additional positive ways.

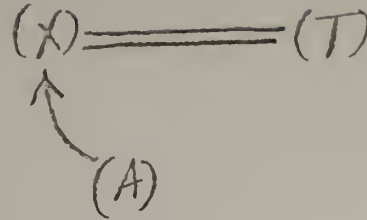
The writer has been speaking, up to this point, of direct  
 administrator actions. "Indirect" actions in area AOB can also be  
 effective in enhancing teachers' growth toward more positive self-  
 perceptions. The administrator can act "through" other teachers,  
 students, community members, etc. As represented in the following  
 figures, the administrator (A) can influence these other people  
 ( $X_1, X_2 . . .$ ) in ways that have the effect on the teacher (T) of  
 increasing positive self-perceptions and of meeting esteem and social  
 needs (Figure 25) and/or the administrator (A) can act to influence  
 the relationship between (X) and (T) by in some way altering the  
 position of either (X) or (T) (Figure 26) or by affecting something  
 else (Z) that is also a part of the relationship between (X) and (T)  
 (Figure 27-A), and consequently, affecting the (X) -- (T) relationship.  
 Or, as in Figure 27-B, (A) can influence (T), thus altering (T)'s  
 feelings about (X) in the direction that those feelings become more  
 like (A)'s feelings about (X).<sup>6</sup>

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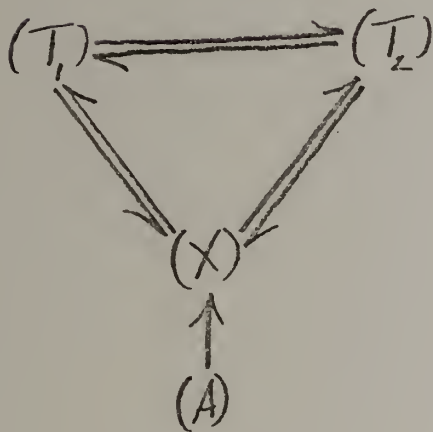
<sup>6</sup>Newcomb (1953).



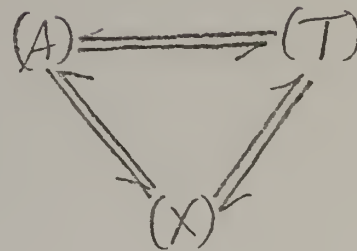
25.



26.



27-A.



27-B.

- Fig. 25.-- Indirect administrator influence (A).
- Fig. 26.-- Indirect administrator influence (B).
- Fig. 27-A.-- Indirect administrator influence (C).
- Fig. 27-B.-- Indirect administrator influence (D).

This discussion about administrators and others being able to influence teachers so strongly, particularly those teachers whose esteem and social needs are prepotent, leads this writer to point out what seems to be a discrepancy and inconsistency among some of the theories examined earlier. In terms of needs, as discussed in this Chapter and previously, as an individual moves from physiological to safety to social to esteem needs his dependency on other people in order to meet these needs increases. That is, an individual cannot possibly feel esteemed unless he perceives that others treat him as if he were valuable, worthy, etc. Social needs can be met when the individual is simply accepted by others; esteem needs cannot be met unless at least some of those others act positively toward him and "tell" him good things about himself. Then, suddenly, when a individual's esteem needs are satisfied, and he becomes self actualizing, he becomes independent. Actually, for people operating at the higher need levels there is probably a vacillation between dependency and independence -- times when esteem needs are prepotent and times when selfactualization needs are prepotent. Nevertheless, the tendency seems to be toward increasing dependence as the individual moves from lower level to higher level needs until the individual reaches a point (esteem needs are satisfied) where he becomes independent. This is consistent with the postulate of transactional analysis where the average individual proceeds through life feeling "I'm Not OK," and depending on other people to "tell" him about himself, until as an adult, he may reach a point where he decides "I am and can be OK." This decision is made mostly on the basis of enough accumulated "I'm OK" information from

others and his ability to see himself being OK in the future.<sup>7</sup> This interpretation of dependency does, however, seem to be inconsistent with theories that depict dependence and independence on a continuum with an individual moving gradually through his life in the direction of decreasing dependence and increasing independence (Argyris,<sup>8</sup> Life Cycle Theory).<sup>9</sup> True, the individual, and this is particularly evident as children grow up, does move toward independence in being able to fulfill his physiological and some of his security needs -- provide food and shelter and earn a living, etc. But, with regard to higher level needs dependency seems to increase rather than decrease. The particular importance of this question must be considered in terms of how an administrator should act in order to facilitate growth. Clearly if one adopts the dependence - independence continuum point of view, the administrator would facilitate growth by gradually, as the individual matures, decreasing direction and socioemotional support. From the other point of view, however, these things must be considered: 1) where individuals are dependent on the administrator for meeting their needs, the administrator can facilitate growth toward more positive self-perceptions by providing the experiences and interactions which will make need-fulfilling possible; 2) dependent people also tend to want direction with respect to tasks;<sup>10</sup> 3) behavior or situations which

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<sup>7</sup>Harris (1973).

<sup>8</sup>Argyris (1957).

<sup>9</sup>Hersey and Blanchard (1972).

<sup>10</sup>Seeman (1950).

can be perceived as constituting a threat are particularly dangerous for dependent people in terms of blocking their growth (threats may be in the form of threats to self-esteem, threats to lower level needs, like safety, which were previously satisfied needs, or threats in the form of too high and seemingly unmeetable expectations);<sup>11</sup> 4) where directive behavior may be what is needed, continued strong direction or authoritarian leader behavior may make it impossible for the individual to experience and try out things on his own which could also lead to satisfaction of esteem needs and increased positive self-perceptions. That is, authoritarian leader-behavior elicits dependent follower behavior.<sup>12</sup>

The writer conceptualizes an individual's growth toward self-actualization -- to the point where he can act independently to meet his goals and fulfill his needs, and to the point where he can make the decision that he is OK -- as an accumulation of an increasing number of positive self-perceptions which are largely a product of other people's interactions with him which tell him positive things about himself. As these accumulated positive feelings or positive experiences with other people reach a "critical" level, the individual becomes independent and continues his growth on his own. This relationship is represented in the following figure:

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<sup>11</sup>Combs, Avila and Purkey (1972).

<sup>12</sup>Leary (1957).



MODEL V-A  
GOAL-MEETING BEHAVIOR AS A FUNCTION OF GROWTH  
AND EXPERIENCES WITH OTHER PEOPLE

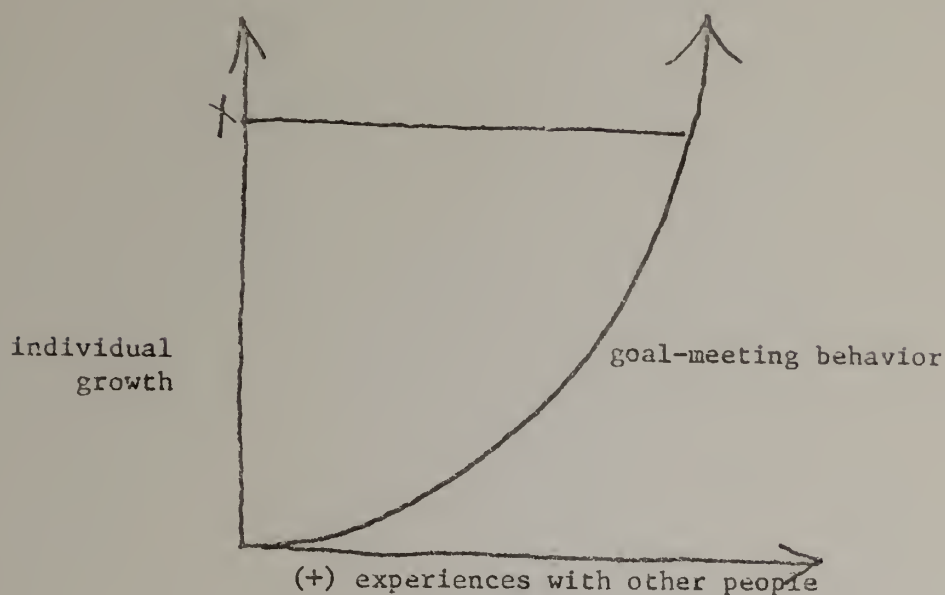


Figure 28.

Goal meeting behavior which is a function of the individual's growth is also a function of the individual's positive experiences with other people until point X. After point X (the "critical point") the individual's success in meeting goals depends only on himself. This relationship can be viewed in terms of administrator action in organizations in the sense that in the context of the organization, through providing socio-emotional support, and direction for accomplishing tasks, the administrator can largely provide for these positive experiences with other people. The relationship between

leader direction and support, goal meeting behavior and growth can be represented:

MODEL V-B  
GOAL-MEETING BEHAVIOR AS A FUNCTION OF GROWTH  
AND LEADER DIRECTION AND SUPPORT

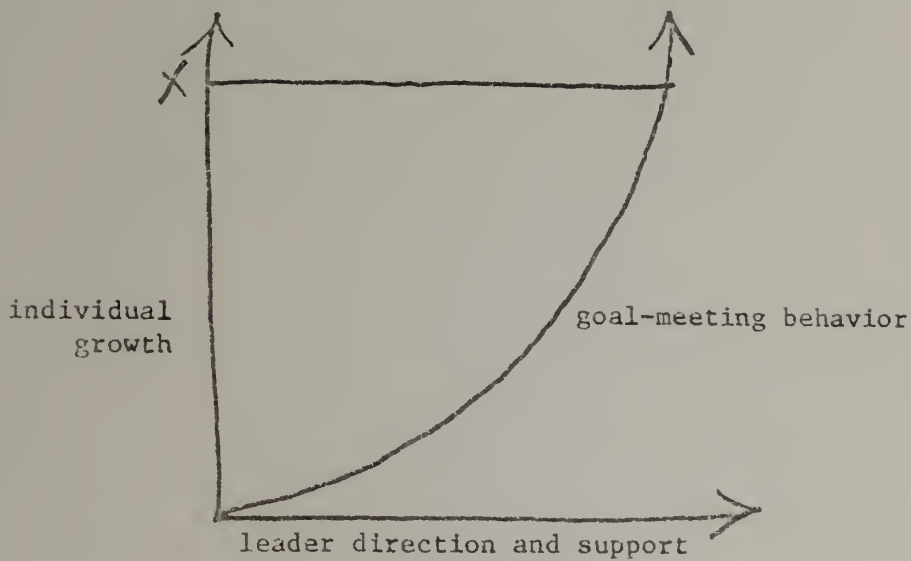


Figure 29.

To conceptualize the degree of support and direction that an administrator should provide to enhance and facilitate an individual's growth toward point X a model can be constructed from examining the relationship between the amount and rate of increase of administrator direction and support and the individual's success and progress in meeting goals. In the early parts of the curve representing initial and early stages of goal-(need)meeting, leader direction and support increases rapidly as the individual's growth takes place. The amount

of leader direction and support continues to increase as the curve progresses, but less rapidly, until, approaching point X, the amounts of leader direction, though greater than at first, increase very minimally. This can be represented as follows:

MODEL V-C

LEADER DIRECTION AND SUPPORT AS INDIVIDUAL NEEDS ARE MET

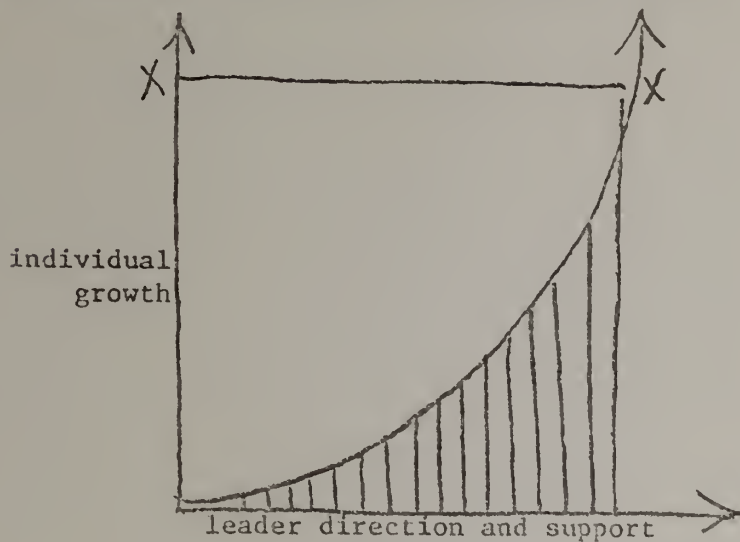


Figure 30.

As the individual approaches point X, an excessive increase in leader direction would constitute a threat to the individual and would block further growth (e.g.: authoritarian leader behavior would force the individual to become more dependent, and could cause him to need to add even a greater amount of positive experiences to his store before he could reach point X). Similarly, a substantial drop in leader support before point X would be threatening, would leave the individual floundering, and would also block movement toward X.

The writer has discussed in this chapter the administrator's affecting growth in terms of leadership and management behavior, which

has been directed immediately at the individual in the organization or at his associates and relationships in that organization. Another channel for administrator influence in assisting teachers in growth and development of more positive self-perceptions is that of providing teachers with information which they themselves can use in charting their own courses and in increasing and stabilizing their own positive self-perceptions -- that is, providing feedback to teachers about their teaching. Whether feedback (in strict terms, objective, non-evaluative, unanalysed information) about their teaching behavior will be used by teachers effectively to the end of increasing their self-awareness and positive self-perceptions will depend largely on the state (nature) of their self-perceptions at the point where the feedback is offered. Teachers who hold essentially positive self-perceptions will accept, interpret and make use of feedback to increase their success as teachers and concomitantly to increase their positive self-perceptions and self-awareness.<sup>13</sup> Individuals (teachers) with ambivalent views of self, or with not very well-defined or stable positive self-perceptions will need guidance in interpreting and in utilizing feedback. Teachers with largely negative self-perceptions are likely to reject the feedback and any discussion or analysis of it.<sup>14</sup> This would suggest strongly that the administrator who would use the strategy of providing

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<sup>13</sup>Canon (1964), Brown, et al. (March 1972), Soares and Soares (1973).

<sup>14</sup>Sarason, et al. (1960), Schmuck (1971).

feedback as one to enhance the development of teachers' self-perceptions, or even simply as one to improve teaching, should use methods of presenting and dealing with feedback appropriate to the self-perceptual organizations of those teachers with whom he working. The following schematization relates administrative actions in providing feedback to teachers self-perceptions at the time that feedback is offered.

MODEL VI  
PROVIDING FEEDBACK TO TEACHERS

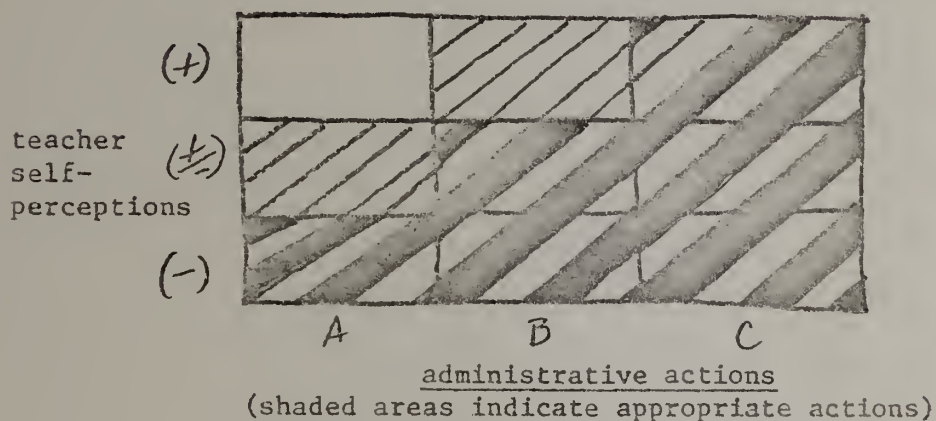


Figure 31.

The following administrator actions are depicted:

- A - provision of positive administrator sanctions for trying out behaviors and for accomplishing specific objectives.
- B - provision of socio-emotional support (relationships behavior) and direction and guidance in setting reasonably attainable subgoals and objectives leading to the accomplishment of a teacher's primary goals.



C - provision of further information -- more feedback, new ideas, suggestions for action, etc.

One possible way of diagnosing the state of teacher self-perceptions with respect to himself as a teacher might be the following strategy for a group of teachers:

1. Ask the teachers to state, as specifically as possible, their teaching goals.
2. Videotape the teachers teaching their classes.
3. Show each teacher his tape.
4. Ask the teachers to analyze whether in terms of what they saw themselves doing in the tapes, they met their teaching goal, and to suggest ways which they might try in the future to come closer to accomplishing the goals.
5. In conference with each teacher offer suggestions as to possible discrepancies existing between their goals and behavior and suggestions for possible changes in order to minimize the discrepancies.

Teachers can be grouped according to their responses to the above activity and the teacher groups can be characterized in terms of the probably nature of the self-perceptions of the teachers in each. In the following figure, teachers are grouped according to three variables:

1. Teachers see or do not see discrepancies between their goals and their teaching behavior.
2. Teachers take or do not take action to resolve discrepancies.
3. Teachers accept or do not accept other ideas and information with respect to analysis of feedback and suggestions for possible changes.

The eight groups resulting from combinations of the three variables are represented in the following diagram.

MODEL VII-A  
TEACHER GROUPINGS BY RESPONSE TO FEEDBACK

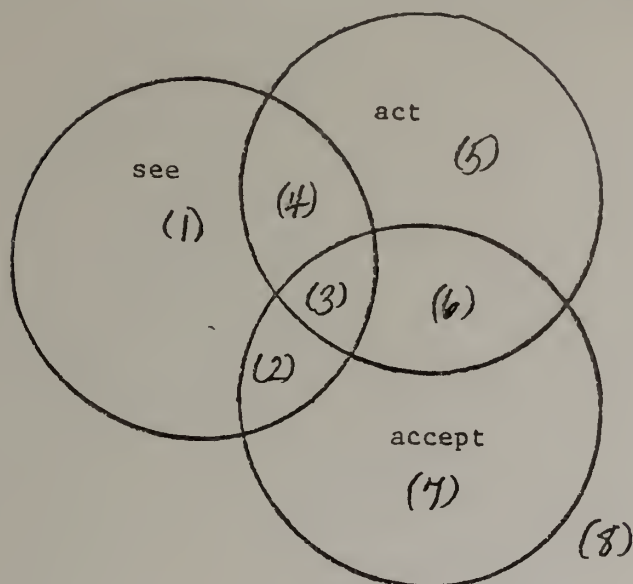


Figure 32.

For example, group 1 teachers see discrepancies, but don't take actions and are not receptive to additional information. Group 5 teachers see discrepancies and take action but do not accept additional information, and so on. Accordingly, judgments can be made about the probably nature of the self-perceptions of teachers in each group as follows:

MODEL VII-B  
TEACHER GROUPINGS AND SELF-PERCEPTIONS

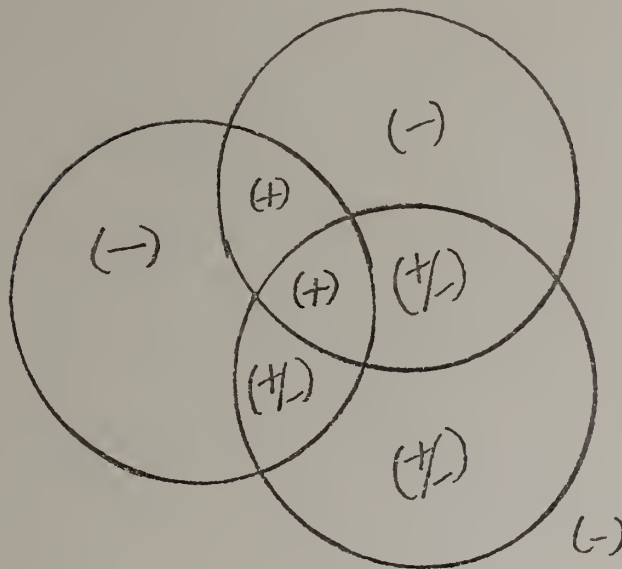


Figure 33.

To illustrate how these judgments are made, group one can be analyzed as follows:

The teachers in this group see and point out discrepancies between their stated objectives and their teaching behavior, but do not take action or recommend taking action to resolve or minimize these discrepancies, and they are not receptive to guidance in interpreting or analyzing the discrepancies or in considering possible actions to take or changes to make. Some of these teachers may rationalize the discrepancies they notice; some may say that the feedback data is invalid and not an accurate representation of what goes on in their classrooms, some might present new goals to argue for the worth of the things they do in class, etc. Most probably, these teachers' self-perceptions are negative to the extent that they do not want to be realistic and face up to what they do, but would prefer to continue thinking unrealistic

though positive things about themselves. And, certainly, they would not want to admit anything negative about themselves to someone else, especially an administrator. They act to maintain themselves against any new information or insight because they consider such information a potential threat.

Further discussion of the ways in which teachers respond to feedback and strategies for providing feedback and guidance, where necessary, to teachers will be discussed in the following chapter.

Other ways of diagnosing the probable nature of teachers' self-perceptions include administrator's observation of teachers using an operational definition of teachers' positive self-perception as well as administration of an instrument which is designed to measure self-perceptions.<sup>15</sup>

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<sup>15</sup> Some examples of such instruments may be found in:

Coughlin, Robert J. and Froemel, Ernest, A Comparison Between Two Standardized Measures of Teacher Morale (February 1971) ED 050 170.

Tori Inventory by Jack Gibb in Gibb, J. R., "Tori Theory and Practice," in Pfeiffer and Jones (eds.) The 1972 Annual Handbook for Group Facilities (Iowa City: University Associates, 1972).

Fuller and Parsons (1972).

N. Cecil Clark (1972).

## CHAPTER VI

## IMPLICATIONS

In earlier chapters this writer has argued that it is important that teachers have positive perceptions of the youngsters they teach, and further, that prerequisite to these positive perceptions of students are teachers' positive perceptions of themselves. It would seem consistent with this argument and with the premises of perceptual psychology to argue further that if an administrator is to work effectively to enable teachers to grow and to develop increasingly more positive self-perceptions in school, then that administrator must have essentially positive perceptions of teachers. Prerequisite, then, to the administrator's positive perceptions of teachers is also a set of positive self-perceptions on the part of the administrator. In other words, one variable which influences the effectiveness with which an administrator might use strategies based on the ideas represented in the Models for enhancing teachers' positive self-perceptions is the administrator's own self-perceptions.

Other variables which might influence the actions of an administrator related to enhancing teachers' self perceptions include:

the administrator's assumptions about what people are like;

the administrator's goals for education, and goals for education as expressed by the school community, Board of Education, students, teachers, etc.;

the acceptance of self-actualization as a valuable end for education;

the level of maturity of teachers in the school; those teachers' self-perceptions;



the organization of the school -- administrative hierarchy, staffing, etc.;

the administrator's preferred "style" -- way of interacting with others;

the administrator's point of view about whether individuals can ever be responsible for what they do or whether it is the environment that is always "responsible" for what people do;

the degree of independence accorded to the administrator by the school system;

the size of the school administrative staff and faculty.

For this writer, the importance of clarifying administrator points of view regarding growth, goals, free will, etc., lies in the necessity for examining and selecting strategies and courses of action which are compatible with particular points of view. What an administrator believes about people and about the world will affect his interactions with them. It is important also to examine strategies to see what adoption of one or another means in terms of the assumptions which underly it. For example, if employees are lazy, irresponsible, indifferent, unwilling to work, uncreative, uncooperative, the acceptance of Theory Y implies that some of the responsibility for this ineffective performance lies with the administrator -- in his methods of organization. Theory X on the other hand offers an easy way out. Blame the teachers; they are by nature this way; "you know we don't get the brightest and ablest people to enter this profession; so, we're not responsible; there's nothing we can do; that's just the way teachers are. Theory X is static and leaves no room for change and growth." It implies that there is something wrong with people and leaves no room for constructive action.

Similarly, the administrator who believes that individuals can be responsible for what they do will hold individuals responsible for their own behavior and will attempt to change something about those individuals in order to change behavior. The administrator who believes that individuals act only in response to influences in their environments will concentrate solely on manipulating environmental variables in order to change behavior.

With these and other variables in mind the administrator who would act so as to enhance teachers' self-perceptions, can use the models presented in Chapter V as theoretical bases for developing and implementing strategies that are likely to result in experiences and situations for teachers which would lead them ultimately to the development of increasingly positive self-perceptions in schools. In this chapter concrete situations, practices and strategies in school settings are discussed from the point of view of the models in order to illustrate some ways of applying the ideas represented in the models to administrative practice. Two specific staff development programs are discussed in depth. These two programs incorporate many of the strategies discussed in this chapter and illustrate many of the ideas described by the models in Chapter V. The organization and implementation of these programs are given particular attention. Emphasis is placed on the school building principal as a focal point for relating implications of the models to school administration; the ideas could, however, also apply to school supervisors, curriculum specialists, resource persons, directors or instruction, assistant superintendents, superintendents, etc. Specific implications for the

tasks of the school building principal in the following areas are pointed out: supervision, staff development, management, relations with the community and curriculum. In general, throughout the discussion in this chapter, particular administrative actions or strategies are related to the models in the contexts of: a) whether the resulting experiences are likely to enable teachers to meet their individual needs, and b) which strategies are likely or not to result in the development of increasingly positive self-perceptions in teachers with whom the administrator works.

### Supervision

For purposes of discussion in this chapter, this writer makes the following distinction between supervision and staff development. Supervision primarily refers to interactions directly between teachers and administrators related to increasing teacher effectiveness and leading toward teacher growth. Staff development refers to interactions among teachers and between teachers and resource persons or other persons not directly a part of the school administrative hierarchy which foster and enable teacher growth. In the realm of supervision, one of the tasks of the school building principal is to evaluate the performance of teachers and make recommendations regarding their tenure. Further, the principal is responsible for providing assistance, guidance and resources for teachers, to the end of increasing the effectiveness of the teaching and learning that takes place in the school. The role of the school building principal will be examined in this section in relationship to: a) providing

information to teachers about their own teaching, b) the concept of the helping relationship or dimensions of that relationship in interactions between teachers and administrators, and c) evaluation of teaching performance.

Providing information to teachers about their own teaching.

Feedback has been discussed in previous chapters as the provision of information to teachers about their own teaching behavior in order to make information available to teachers which they can use to manage their own behavior change. Providing this information takes on particular and additional characteristics in the context of the supervisory relationship. Within the parameters of this relationship, teachers tend to attach positive or negative values to information given them by administrators regardless of how objectively the information is offered or presented, simply because the administrator is the one who rates teachers -- who eventually does make judgments about their teaching. This tendency can be related in theory to that large group of teachers for whom, according to the literature and ideas discussed previously, esteem needs, in their teaching situations, are prepotent.<sup>1</sup> That is, esteem needs are the needs toward which the greater part of the behavior of these teachers is directed toward fulfilling. Additionally, the development of positive self-perceptions in these teachers depends, in large measure, on the teachers' ability to meet esteem needs in school (Model II). Administrator feedback which these teachers can construe as representing negative administrator

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<sup>1</sup>Sergiovanni and Trusty (1966).



judgments about their teaching, or possibly even all those things which the teachers cannot possibly interpret as being positive commentaries, may be seen by these teachers as representing a threat to their esteem. Their feelings of esteem, which are predominantly products or praise and approval from others are put in jeopardy. These teachers will then, in response to being given feedback by an administrator, direct their energies toward defending themselves (rationalizing, refusing to accept the validity of the administrator's observations, etc.) rather than toward considering the information and taking action directed toward their own growth.<sup>2</sup> The tendency is for a large part of the teacher population not to admit feedback from administrators as information which can use to examine and change their own behavior. Consequently, an administrator action which could potentially be one which enhances teacher growth toward more positive self-perceptions, may in fact, frequently turn out to be one which can block this teacher growth, as represented in Model IV.

An administrator who would use the strategy of providing information to teachers about their teaching as part of the supervisory process and as a means of increasing teachers' positive self-perceptions must act in awareness of these tendencies. For a small group of teachers who are mature to the extent that they are primarily self-actualizing or who depend more on themselves than on others for the fulfillment of esteem needs (are directed toward achieving self-esteem) the administrator can be a source of non-evaluative feedback. The

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<sup>2</sup>Schmuck (1971).



administrator can provide data to these teachers after observing their teaching, which the teachers will probably use as a tool for their own growth. A relatively strict clinical supervision mode (as per Goldhammer)<sup>3</sup> would probably be effective with these teachers. This, however, is not so for the majority of teachers who do not belong to this small "mature" group. With regard to providing information to this larger group of teachers (speaking in terms of probabilities) the administrator must recognize that beyond the observational data, when this data is presented to teachers, positive and negative sanctions are involved. For clarity, the categorization of teachers in Model VII can be examined. There are those teachers represented in the categorization for whom administrator sanctions might be effective in guiding teachers to the point where they can use information about their teaching in order to change their own behavior. These teachers are probably in the majority -- they are largely ambivalent with respect to self-perceptions, and do not have predominately positive and stable views of themselves as teachers:

1. Teachers who don't see a discrepancy between their goals and their teaching behavior; who don't, therefore take action to change their behavior, and who do not, at the same time, accept guidance from the administrator either in pointing out discrepancies or in suggesting possible changes.
2. Teachers who will act to try out new ways of behaving, but who do not perceive discrepancies and who are resistant to administrator guidance or input.
3. Teachers who see a discrepancy, resist acting to change, but are open to administrator influence.

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<sup>3</sup>Goldhammer (1969).

4. Teachers who don't see discrepancies, don't act to change but accept administrator guidance.
5. Teachers who see discrepancies, but who don't act to change their behavior and who are resistant to administrator guidance.

The teachers represented in the above groups are teachers, who in general, tend to perceive observations by administrators as potentially threatening and who react defensively to feedback from administrators. These are also teachers for whom positive administrator sanctions (praise, etc.) make a significant difference in their own growth -- in building their own esteem, their repertoires of positive self-perceptions and enabling movement in the direction of self-actualization.

This point should be emphasized: it is the teacher who has a backlog of success and of praise and who has been treated as a valued person by others who is able to consider new ideas and free to try new things, and who can see the possibility of growth, change and improvement. For those (many) teachers who are not yet at this point, the administrator can contribute to building that backlog by providing positive input and by providing opportunities for these teachers to view themselves behaving in ways that a) the administrator values as good and worthwhile and that b) will enable teachers to positively evaluate their own performance. Positive administrator sanctions can be viewed as a dimension of socio-emotional support which the administrator can provide for the teacher. As in Model V-C, up to point X, where teachers begin to depend on themselves for their own need satisfaction and growth, teachers depend on administrators, among other people, for this support.

This writer would not propose continual administrator praise of teaching performance as an end in itself, but rather as a necessary ingredient for the growth and change of very many teachers. In summary, the distinctions among the following statements which could be made by administrators to teachers after observations, can be considered:

1. Good work! That was great!
2. I thought that lesson went really well!
3. The students seemed to be really involved in the discussion. That was good!
4. Eighty per cent of the students in your class participated at least twice in the discussion.

Statement one conveys strictly praise. Statements two and three convey praise as well as increasing degrees of information about what the administrator observed. The praise assists teachers in building feelings of worth and competency; the information enables the teacher, when he is ready, to assess his competency for himself and to plan concrete changes. Statement four conveys strictly information. A mature teacher would probably respond to such a statement by accepting, considering and using the information. Whereas, for a teacher who, above all else wants to know that the administrator thinks well of him, statement four would most likely be meaningless and not at all helpful in facilitating the teachers' growth. In this writer's own experience, the use of a strict clinical supervision mode for providing strictly objective data was effective with some teachers in leading to behavior change, but many more teachers, when presented with clinical data reacted with a "so what" attitude, and

no observable changes in teaching followed. As a general guideline, an administrator, in providing information to teachers about their teaching as a result of observations would most probably do well to provide positive sanctions as well as information. Teachers (the majority) who depend to some degree on the administrator support need the positive sanctions as an ingredient for growth and, the information is also available for them to make use of on their own or with administrator guidance. Very mature teachers may disregard the sanctions as irrelevant but will still have data which is useful to them.

Where administrators can group teachers into the following 3 groups:

1. Teachers with essentially (+) self-perceptions
2. Teachers who are ambivalent (+/-) self-perceptions
3. Teachers with largely (-) self-perceptions

the administrators can plan strategies for providing information to each of the three groups using Model VI as a guide.

The helping relationship. In the most basic sense, the helping relationship, especially as used in counseling and therapy, and the supervisory relationship are incompatible concepts. How can such a helping relationship possibly exist between two people when one of those persons, by virtue of his role in the organization to which the two belong, sits in judgment of the other person.<sup>4</sup> This is, by necessity, the way things usually are between teachers and

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<sup>4</sup>Whitehorn (1954), Seeman (1954).



principals. Administrators cannot be oblivious to this situation in striving blindly and probably largely unsuccessfully to establish a strictly defined helping relationship with teachers. Rather, the administrator can look at the supervisory relationship to find and capitalize on strategies and modes which will be most likely to make helping, mutual growth and mutual problem-solving occur in the context of the supervisory relationship.

Firstly, this writer contends that teachers have a right to expect information, expertise, assistance, etc., from an administrator. They have a right to expect, in supervisory conferences, some concrete and constructive input from the administrator. They have a right to more than total non-directiveness -- more than a continual repetition of "well, what do you think," "what ideas do you have," "where do you think you can find that information," etc.. Teachers do, of course, have valuable ideas and experiences and information of their own which should be elicited and considered in supervisory conferences, but the whole content of the supervisory conference considered, the supervisor should also be significant contributor. Again, on the other hand, there is a tendency for the administrators' words to be endowed with unrealistic value by the teacher simply because of the position of the administrator. This writer proposes the following as some possible ways of achieving a balance -- a real constructive exchange of ideas -- in a supervisory conference. It is the administrator, not the teacher, who bears the primary responsibility for seeing that constructive exchange does take place.



Supervisor gives the teacher repeated opportunities and encouragement to share ideas and information.

Supervisor considers, examines and discusses, with the teacher, the things that the teacher contributed. (According to information described in Chapter II, teachers do contribute ideas to conferences, but that for the most part these ideas are not discussed further during the conferences).<sup>5</sup>

Supervisor offers ideas and information and suggestions (must have some to offer).

Supervisor and teacher consider supervisor input (it is true, as above, that for the most part, supervisor input is in the form of pronouncements, and is not usually discussed further).<sup>6</sup>

A posture of complete supervisor non-directiveness may be effective with very mature teachers (Models V-A, B and C). For teachers who have not yet reached that point (and speaking in terms of probabilities, this will most likely be the case) more supervisor direction is needed. Where non-directive supervision might be the end in mind as the best way of working with self-actualizing people, it is not likely to be the most effective strategy for dealing with most teachers at the point where they are at present. Some direction and guidance, along with opportunities to assume responsibility in some degree for their own growth, leads to and enhances teacher growth.<sup>7</sup> In terms of Model IV, direction which enables teachers to act successfully and which enables teachers to see themselves acting successfully may contribute to the development of these teachers'

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<sup>5</sup>Blumberg, Some Initial Findings . . . (1969).

<sup>6</sup>Ibid.

<sup>7</sup>Seeman (1950).

positive self-perceptions.<sup>8</sup> Lack of direction from an administrator may cause many teachers to flounder and to continue to act without any way of assessing the effectiveness of their behavior. A non-directive administrative posture may, in fact, block the growth of these teachers and will most likely not serve to accomplish the administrator's goals.

Evaluation and teacher ratings. This is a task of the administrator. And again, evaluation of a person by someone else seems contrary to the notion of growth and self-actualization.<sup>9</sup> But this is not necessarily so. This writer proposes to discuss just a few points to illustrate ways in which the evaluation process in schools can, in fact, be used by school administrators as part of a strategy for fostering teacher growth and enhancing the development of increased positive teacher self-perceptions. A significant point is that, according to the representation in Model II, one of the primary things that an administrator can do toward this end is to provide experiences and situations for teachers wherein teachers can see themselves acting successfully and effectively. This can be accomplished in terms of a rating system through using a strategy of setting sub-goals or objectives representing successive approximations of the ultimately desired behavior. Consider, for example, a rating scale on which one of the items is "has a good rapport with students" on which a teacher may be rated (1) good, (2) needs

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<sup>8</sup>Combs, Avila and Purkey (1972) 117-126.

<sup>9</sup>Ibid. 115-117.

improvement, or (3) unsatisfactory. A teacher who receives a (2) or a (3) rating on this item can do little more than a) ask the supervisor what things can be done for improvement (a totally dependent posture) or b) guess what things the administrator has in mind, and then at the next observation, guess again whether he has accomplished these things to the administrator's satisfaction.

It is also possible that the end of "good rapport with students" may seem so remote, nebulous and unattainable that some teachers may simply decide not to try; or that the administrators ratings may seem so whimsical that the same conclusion is reached. Subgoals or objectives would be more concrete, and would probably seem more realistic, and further, accomplishing these steps might provide a backlog of positive experiences and perceptions needed for the teacher to attempt to meet the ultimate and even more challenging goals. In the above example, the administrator may confer with the teacher to clarify, in operational terms, what the administrator means by "good rapport" and also to clarify what this means to the teacher. The following are some examples of objectives which the two might set for reaching the goal of "good rapport:"

1. Teacher holds individual conferences with students.
2. Teacher talks with students about teacher's and students' feelings.
3. Teacher emphasizes students' successes and strengths.

There may be a rather clear relationship as sub-goals are stated and met between organizational and personal goals as represented in Model IV -- e.g., personal goals of increased competence and

feelings of worth as a teacher, or of increased esteem in the eyes of the administrator may, as accomplished, lead to the attainment of an organizational goal which may be something like "creating a humane environment" and "a good rapport" would be a sub-goal directed toward that end. Once specific objectives are set, the teacher and the supervisor both have a fairly good idea of what things must happen in the classroom in order for these goals to be met. The teacher knows when he is succeeding, and knows what success means. Teacher self-evaluation is facilitated; the teacher does not have to wait for the administrator to tell him whether he (the teacher) is conferring regularly with students and so on. On the contrary, the teacher who continually receives (2) and (3) ratings, who tries to make changes, but who still does not seem to satisfy the administrator is blocked in achieving success.

It is clear at this point that arbitrary administrator actions with respect to ratings, etc., can have strongly negative effects on the development of teachers' positive self-perceptions. Thoughtless and inconsistent rating, infrequent observations, inconsistent and undefined expectations make improvement either impossible or at best serendipitous and may actually contribute to and reinforce teachers' negative self-perceptions. The same is true of administrative "secrecy" that is, appearing in a teacher's class unannounced for an observation, leaving without saying a word, and not seeing the teacher again on this basis until time for the teacher to sign the administrator's evaluation of him at the end of the semester.



In these situations, threat, fear and uncertainty characterize the supervisor-teacher relationship.

In summary, the writer proposes the following guidelines for administrator supervision of teachers in schools -- not as the one way of doing things, but as a mode which seems consistent with the points of view and models discussed previously. These guidelines take into account where, in all probability, most teachers are, and allows for working with teachers who are either more or less mature than the majority.

1. Set an observation schedule wherein teachers have some idea of when they will be observed; (not that drop-in observations are strictly out, but that they should be supplementary to scheduled observations and not the sole way the administration sees the teacher teach); the teacher is observed more than once each semester; during the year, at least, teachers have the benefit of observations by and contact with more than one administrator.

2. Hold a pre-observation conference with the teacher -- at most a few days before the scheduled observation -- to clarify the mode and purpose of observation. With regard to administrator plans and purposes: will the administrator use video or audio tape, or a particular rating instrument; is the administrator looking for something in particular; are there particular concerns or emphases, etc.. With regard to teacher purposes: would the teacher like to be given some particular information or data; would the teacher like the administrator's judgment about something, etc.. The extent to which either the teacher or the administrator takes the initiative in setting purposes during this conference may depend upon the maturity and/or experience of the teacher as well as on the administrator's perceptions and any overriding administrative tasks or concerns. The extent of the involvement of each may range from a very mature teacher who is able to say: "This (X) is something I have been trying to accomplish with my students; can you observe to let me know whether . . ." to a more immature teacher who must receive almost total direction from the administrator. Probably the best place to start, if the administrator has not yet assessed where the teacher stands, would be to set forth administrator purposes and plans and priorities, and then to make provision for teacher input.



3. The observation. The administrator, during the period in the teacher's class, collects clinical data as well as forms more subjective judgments. Tools are available for facilitating information-gathering: audio and video tape recorders, interaction analysis instruments, an additional observer, etc..

4. Post-observation conference. The most effective administrator approach would probably combine positive administrator sanctions and presentation of clinical data. It would also be helpful for the administrator to distinguish clearly for the teacher which statements he means as judgment and which statements he means as reporting of facts. Plans are made for future conferences and observations; sub-goals, objectives and priorities may be set at this point.

Special attention has been paid in this section to supervision, as the area of supervision is perceived by this writer as one in which administrators can significantly effect (Model IV) -- block or enhance -- the development of teachers' positive self-perceptions. By no means is supervision the only realm of administrator-teacher interaction, though probably, it is the area of most frequent interaction between administrator and teacher on a one-to-one basis.

#### Staff Development

Again, when speaking of staff development in this section, this writer is referring to activities and interactions among teachers and between teachers and resource or other persons not administrators. An administrator relationship to teachers in the realm of staff development definitely does exist, but it is of an indirect nature. The administrator bears the responsibility for seeing that staff-development activities do take place and that these activities actually are opportunities for and experiences which enhance teacher growth leading toward more effective teaching and learning in the school.

The administrator's role is one of planning, facilitating, providing resources and materials, etc.. This writer views the principal's primary responsibilities for staff development as: 1) providing for and guiding the identification of needs and the setting of goals for staff development programs, 2) involving teachers in planning and carrying out activities -- especially activities where teachers are consultants or helpers for other teachers, or where sharing among teachers takes place, 3) providing access to resources and 4) providing administrative/managerial supports (this latter point will be discussed in the next section).

Identifying needs and setting goals. This is a necessary first step in designing and implementing a staff development program which is relevant to meeting needs and accomplishing organizational aims. Both administrators and teachers have a contribution to make in identifying needs in each area -- individual teachers' needs as well as school/organizational needs. Both have perceptions of what these needs are. While this responsibility lies with both teachers and administrators, it is ultimately the responsibility of the administrator to see that needs are identified as accurately as possible, and that activities are designed to meet those needs. Where administrators act to insure that teachers' needs are met in school, they are at the same time acting to make possible the development of teachers' positive self-perceptions in schools (Models II and III). The following are some approaches that this writer has had experience using; each is discussed in terms of the models:

One possible approach to identifying needs, and one which is frequently employed, is simply to ask teachers directly: what do you need? What things would help you to be more effective in your classroom? Clearly, it is important to find out what teachers think their needs are, that is, teachers are the ones who ultimately will take the responsibility of acting or not acting to satisfy needs. Teachers will act to meet what they perceive as their needs (Figure 19). Where teachers have ideas of what they consider to be very important needs, resources offered by an administrator to satisfy a different need will most likely be perceived by the teachers as frivolous and irrelevant. For example, for teachers who want guidance in ways to be more effective in teaching reading or in raising reading achievement test scores, a science methods workshop is likely to be considered a "waste of time."

Some teachers are likely to be good at pinpointing and articulating needs which can be met through staff development efforts. However, in this writer's experience, many teachers do not, when questioned directly, respond in this productive way. This observation can be theoretically related to esteem needs. For teachers for whom esteem needs are prepotent, being asked to identify a need - an area where help is needed, improvement is possible, etc. -- is the same as being asked to admit publicly and even privately an area of deficiency or weakness. Teachers without a substantial base of positive self-perceptions cannot afford to admit weaknesses -- to others and maybe even to themselves. Their responses to the question "what are your needs?" tend to be evasive and/or defensive; these teachers tend to

name first, as their needs, things which have nothing to do with themselves and their teaching and for which they themselves have little or no responsibility -- like more supplies/materials, a different student enrollment, scheduling problems, etc..

Nevertheless, it is important that teachers be able to express these perceived needs. One way of getting further may be to ask the question: "what things do you think are keeping you from being as effective as you would like to be?" and to brainstorm freely for all possible responses. The resulting lists should include a variety of needs ranging from strictly material needs to needs which are more closely related to the teachers' self. The administrator can then ask: "what are things that the administration can do something about?" These things will probably for the most part be the materials needs. Any efforts that the administrator can possibly make to satisfy these needs can be viewed as steps in the process of arriving at the point of dealing with those needs more directly related to teaching and learning. For example, if teachers say they need more materials, the administrator can attempt to get at least some additional things. If teachers want repairs, etc. the administrator can make arrangements to get these done. This puts the administrator in a position of being able to say these needs are being dealt with to the greatest extent possible at this point. These needs, as well as other needs which clearly nothing can be done about -- like "the students are getting more unruly every year," can be eliminated from the listing and from consideration at this point. The administrator and teachers can then consider the remaining listed



needs to determine which of these could possibly be dealt with as part of a staff development program. Most likely there will be some discrepancy even at this point between teachers' and the administrator's priorities. Nevertheless, the administrator cannot afford to ignore or to disregard things that teachers see as important. While the administrator must provide direction and guidance he will not be able to bridge the disparity between perceptions by unilaterally declaring needs and goals himself. The administrator may, however devise activities and situations where teachers may come to see the things the administrator perceives as needs more clearly. For example, the administrator can sometimes act to "create" a need -- like making new materials available for mathematics instruction, but making prerequisite for use of this material attendance at workshop sessions. Or, the administrator may suggest or offer options which would meet both sets of needs. The jointly determined needs then lead to setting of goals for staff development. These goals arrived at through a process where both teachers and administrators have input are most likely to be goals which are consistent with both individual and organizational needs (Model IV).

Involvement. To this writer, an essential premise of the notion of staff development is that every teacher, as an adult, individual, educated and professional person has ideas, information and experiences which are of value and which would probably be valuable to other teachers when shared with them -- in short, that teachers can learn from each other. Where sharing and mutual learning among teachers



does take place, increasingly positive teacher self-perceptions of competence, responsibility, professional worth, etc. are likely to follow. This writer has, however, encountered substantial resistance among teachers to this idea: a) many teachers express a strong preference for workshops, meetings, seminars, etc. conducted by administrators or other "outside" resource persons to workshops led by teachers; b) in many teachers' own words: I don't believe that another teacher has much to offer that I don't already know, or c) I don't have anything that I wish to share with other teachers. To this writer this speaks directly to the notion of teachers' need for esteem. Many teachers themselves seem to place little value on the expertise of teachers, and consequently show little esteem for themselves as teaching professionals. But, this writer has further observed that when teachers are involved in situations where sharing among teachers does take place, teachers value these activities and communications highly.

Conducting workshops, meetings, etc., in the context of educational organizations seems very often to be solely in the province of educational administrators or supervisors. When, however, teachers see that they can learn some things from and teach some things to other teachers, esteem for self as a professional is likely to increase. The following are among some possible strategies for facilitating teacher involvement in staff development activities:

1. The administrator can provide for and encourage teachers to observe other teachers within the school teaching classes. The

administrator may, for example, request that teachers observe other classes at least X times during a semester, to be coordinated by team leaders or department chairmen. Observations may serve as a prelude to discussions and exchanges among teachers about teaching, or may simply "open classroom doors." As teachers become more open, they may be able to observe and to provide feedback to each other. Clinical observation strategies can be effective when used by teachers with teachers. Training can be made available to teachers for practice and experience in using such techniques as videotaping, using interaction analysis instruments, providing feedback, etc.. In this way, the administrator acts to influence the relationships among teachers. The administrator may do this by altering the positions of the teachers (Figure 26); teachers become visible to each other rather than always teaching "behind closed doors." Differing perceptions of each other by teachers are likely to follow, and, consequently, different perceptions of self as a teaching professional are likely to result. This application Model IV is further illustrated in the following example.

2. The administrator may, as a strategy for disseminating information about curriculum, materials, techniques, etc. use teachers as resource persons. For example, the usual way of providing training for teachers in a school system in new curriculum materials and approaches is to have huge groups of teachers attend workshops led by a supervisor. Teachers participate in a few training sessions which supervisors repeat over and over again in order to accommodate all the teachers in the school system. An alternative would be to send

small groups of teachers from one school or cluster of schools to more thorough and intensive training. They in turn can not only conduct workshop sessions for teachers in their own schools but are also readily accessible to these teachers for on-the-spot guidance and assistance. It has been this writer's experience, in using this strategy that the more training and experience (maybe even trial teaching experience) using the particular materials that the "resource" teacher has before attempting to teach and assist other teachers, the more likely is the resource teacher's "help" to be accepted and valued by other teachers -- the more credibility the resource teacher has among his peers. Also, the more frequently this strategy of "resource" teachers is employed, the more effective it becomes in terms of teachers actually learning from other teachers.

3. Teachers need to be involved in planning staff development if commitment to participation in and success of these activities is to be secured.<sup>10</sup> Clearly, the amount and extent of teacher input in planning is contingent on many factors, particularly upon teacher experience and interest in planning and administrator effort to involve teachers. With increased teacher experience and expertise, increased involvement is possible. The idea of success is important here -- where teachers experience increasing success in planning and carrying out activities, teacher assumption of increasing responsibility for the staff development program is possible. Where teachers work in groups, the concept represented in Figure 27-A may operate. Where

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<sup>10</sup>Bush (1972), Lippett (1972).

positive feelings exist between two teachers ( $T_1$  and  $T_2$ ), for example, and one feels that teachers can be constructively involved in planning (perhaps  $T_1$  has had successful experiences in planning groups) then ( $T_2$ ) is more likely to come to feel the same way as a product of ( $T_1$ )'s influence.

4. The administrator may plan and organize for team teaching and/or team planning within the school, again, altering the relationships among teachers. He may group teachers and students so that groups of teachers are responsible for large groups of students at some time instead of always one teacher alone in a room with thirty students. School organizations tend to, in management practices, foster teacher isolation; teacher cooperation and sharing is usually not the norm.<sup>11</sup> Teachers have repeated experiences of learning only when in dependency postures (like teachers from an administrator, or students from teachers) and have few experiences learning from peers on an equal basis. Management practices will be discussed in greater detail in the next section.

5. The administrator can provide opportunities for teachers to participate in programs outside of the school -- courses, workshops, seminars, conferences, etc. -- in groups rather than always individually.

Providing resources. Briefly, the administrator's responsibility for providing resources for teachers for staff development activities includes a responsibility for providing a variety of resources. The administrator cannot realistically provide one option and expect to

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<sup>11</sup>Tyler (1972).



secure total teacher involvement and commitment. A variety of options would meet a variety of needs and preferences and would insure a higher degree of teacher involvement and interest. Some of the very many resources which administrators may be able to provide include: school system sponsored staff development programs, a professional library and publications, college or university programs, community-sponsored workshops and conferences, national professional organization conferences and workshops, contacts with resource persons from inside and outside the school system, sharing of the administrator's own area of particular expertise, substitutes for released time, and money for tuition and fees.

Two staff development programs. These are discussed here in order to point out specific applications of the strategies discussed in this section to programs which have been planned and implemented in schools. The two programs to be considered in this section included both summer workshops and school year components. One was based in a public school system, the other was university based.

Among the stated goals for teachers of the Staff Development Program, Administrative Area III, Fairfax County (Virginia) Public Schools,<sup>12</sup> were the following:

1. Teachers utilize team teaching and team planning.
2. Teachers evaluate with fellow teachers, their own planning and teaching.

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<sup>12</sup>Described for the period summer 1971, school year 1971-72, summer 1972.



3. Teachers capitalize on their own strengths and talents.
4. Teachers view and practice a variety of teaching styles.
5. Teachers use new techniques and materials.

The summer programs included teams of teachers and students. Teachers represented each elementary and intermediate school in Area III. Each team included a team leader (a teacher with prior training and experience in group leadership), an "observation team leader" (trained in clinical observation skills) and fifteen teachers. (Most were classroom teachers though administrators who participated in the program functioned in the teaching role.) Teams were divided into subteams and rotated the responsibility for 1) planning and preparing for teaching 2) teaching the pupils on the team and 3) observing colleagues teaching and providing feedback to them. The students were present during the morning; teachers spent the afternoons in team meetings, feedback sessions, planning sessions and workshops presented by teachers, administrators and consultants. Sixty-three per cent of the teachers in the 1971 program reported that they enrolled on their own volition; the remainder enrolled at someone else's request or because of a combination of factors.<sup>13</sup> Thirty per cent of the teachers indicated that one of their primary purposes in enrolling in the program was to learn about team teaching. About half of the teachers had from one to six years' experience in a team-teaching situation before their participation in the summer workshop. Thirty per cent of the teachers indicated that among their purposes for

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<sup>13</sup>This and the following data provided in Summer Staff Development Program Evaluation (Fairfax County, Virginia, Public Schools, Administrative Area III, 1971).

participating in the workshop was to obtain additional skills in the teaching-learning process. These were the two most frequently stated purposes for participation.

With respect to the goals of the program, ninety per cent of the teachers expressed a "good understanding" of all the program goals. Teachers were also asked whether they felt they had the opportunity to act in keeping with each goal. The discrepancies between understanding the goals and acting on them declined for most of the goals (for all those goals cited on the preceding pages). The greatest strength of the summer program (as perceived by the greatest percentage of teachers) was "the opportunity to work with other teachers of varying backgrounds, experience and teaching styles; to work with superior teachers; to pool ideas". Other strengths mentioned by many teachers were: "increased self-awareness and improved interpersonal relationships" and "improved observation skills". One specific need was pointed out by more than ten per cent of the teachers: the need for more extensive inservice regarding observation skills. Seventy-five per cent of the teachers felt that they had almost totally achieved their own personal goals (not stated on the questionnaire) for the summer. Only one percent felt that their personal goals had not been met. Ninety percent of the teachers said that they saw implications of the summer workshop for the regular school year; ten per cent said that they saw little or no relationship between the summer program and regular school. These teachers (the ten per cent) felt that there would be little or no

carryover because the summer situation was "unrealistic" -- they stressed limitations of time, materials and staff imposed by their regular schools.

The school year program was aimed primarily at supplementing and reinforcing the summer workshop efforts. Teachers who participated in the school year program were for the most part teachers who had attended the summer workshop. A staff development team, based at the Area III administrative office, was composed of:

- 1) three "master teachers" (two elementary and one secondary school teacher) assigned to this team for the year;
- 2) four subject area supervisors (language arts, mathematics, social studies, science);
- 3) one elementary supervisor (the team leader).

When requested by a school (by teacher teams or by school administrators from that school) this team spent from one to four weeks in that school working with a designated group of teachers (grade level or subject area team). The staff development team was able to provide, using a "bank account" for substitute teachers available for that purpose, some "released time" for the teachers during this period. Staff development activities at the schools included: diagnosis, by school team members with staff development team members, of the school team's needs; sharing these with the administration, planning to meet some of these needs during the period the staff development team was in the school; planning for needs to be met after that period. Specifically, the staff development team worked with the teacher team in activities such as: scheduling for team teaching and team planning; training and practice in clinical observation and providing feedback; workshop sessions in

group dynamics; individual assistance to individual teachers on request; work on specific curriculum projects (resource centers); grading and evaluation strategies; learning centers; "flexible and modular scheduling." During the 1971-1972 school year the Area III senior high schools participated (with the elementary and intermediate schools) in the program described above. Secondary school teachers participated in the Summer 1972 workshop. The Staff Development Team met at the end of the school year to assess the year's program and to plan for the next year. The following generalizations were made during those sessions:

1. The most successful times spent working in schools were in those schools where a teacher team, and not an administrator, initiated the program. (Teachers were significantly more open and cooperative and less defensive in these cases.)
2. Though some activities were carried on with entire school faculties, the most successful activities (as viewed by teachers and the staff development team in terms of accomplishing objectives) were those involving teacher teams which worked together throughout the year.
3. School administrator involvement as participants in activities seemed to correlate positively with teacher involvement and commitment during and after the staff development period.
4. Both teachers and administrators were interested in learning about, practicing, and using clinical observation and feedback strategies (video-taping, interaction analysis, narrative recording, etc.). Teacher teams who had experience with the strategies during the staff development period continued observing and providing feedback to each other during the remainder of the year. Administrators who participated in these experiences provided guidance and assistance to teachers using these techniques and were also more likely to provide a schedule which allowed teachers to observe each other's classes and to share feedback.



5. More pre-planning with school teachers before the programs in the schools as well as before the summer workshop was strongly recommended.

The Interstate Staff Development Cooperative, based at the University of Massachusetts (Amherst) School of Education was developed to plan and implement an Integrated Day approach in selected New England school districts.<sup>14</sup> Four school districts, each of which indicated varying degrees of administrative and community support, were represented in the project. All elementary levels were represented, though not every elementary school in each of the districts was a project school and a relatively small number (approximately forty) of classrooms were involved. One of the conditions for involvement in the Staff Development Cooperative was that at least two teachers from a school participate. The components of the project included:

1. An intensive three week introductory summer workshop to prepare the teachers for the following year, and another workshop the next summer.
2. Follow-up throughout the year by means of visits and support in the classroom by resource personnel and field directors.
3. Released time for teachers for planning and visiting other classrooms, and to attend workshops.
4. Material and supply funds for standard classroom materials.
5. An undergraduate teacher preparation program whose participants would be prepared through the same procedures, and toward the same goals as the classroom teachers, to intern in project classrooms. Interns in this program spend all day, every day, for 16 weeks in the classroom working alongside the teacher.

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<sup>14</sup>This description of the ISDC is for the period 1972-1972.



The goals of the project, as outlined in the proposal included:

1. To prepare for, plan, and implement a responsive educational approach in selected New England school districts.
2. To establish communication and cooperation among selected school districts in Northern New England, the State Departments of Education of each of the participating states, and the University of Massachusetts and New Hampshire local advisory groups.
3. To bridge the usual disparity between pre-service and in-service teacher education by designing a program that ties the two together in a meaningful and operative manner.
4. To produce teachers (pre-service and in-service) who can address themselves to the needs of the learner by constructing a warm and responsive educational environment that encourages self-initiated learning, concern for affective as well as cognitive outcomes, and an emphasis on concrete experiences for the learner.

The Summer 1972 Workshop (the second Project summer workshop) enabled Project teachers and administrators to have three weeks of intensive contact with the University Integrated Day Program staff. Emphasis was placed on active, participatory learning in a modeled Integrated Day classroom situation. Among the specific goals for the summer workshop were:

- 1) providing opportunities for participants to pace and direct their own learning -- to select and schedule their own activities;
- 2) encouraging peer instruction and sharing;
- 3) identifying individual teachers' strengths and building upon these;
- 4) providing the opportunity for each participant to state and to plan a program to meet his own individual goals for the workshop.

Learning and activity centers were set up in classrooms of the University School of Education laboratory school -- in reading, language arts, math, science, crafts, etc.. The three week program included a variety of whole group, small group and independent activities. The whole group experiences were scheduled at times when all participants and staff could be present and were designed especially for modeling teacher-student interactions in an open classroom. Certain small group sessions were also pre-scheduled -- especially offerings in specific curriculum areas and such topics as record-keeping, reporting to parents and room arrangement. As the workshop progressed participants became involved in scheduling additional small group activities -- requesting that offerings be extended or repeated, and offering additional sessions themselves. Some time was allotted each day for independent activities. Support groups, composed of eight or nine teachers and one staff member (the support group leader), met daily. These groups provided a "home base" where group members could be sure of finding each other. The support group leader functioned to aid each participant in sharing strengths and hopes, fears and anxieties, in clarifying and communicating attitudes toward learning and in decision making (choice of activities and scheduling) and self-evaluation.

At the conclusion of the workshop, eighty-eight percent of the teachers rated the workshop "excellent" in terms of their satisfaction in general with the experience. Ninety-seven percent

of the individual goals set by the participants, according to their own evaluations, were met.<sup>15</sup>

The following features are characteristic of both the staff development programs discussed in this section and consistent with ideas discussed in preceding chapters:

1. Teachers exercised initiative in electing to participate in the programs.<sup>16</sup> Teachers were not extensively involved (though "representative" involvement was solicited) in planning the nature and format of programs;<sup>17</sup> increased teacher involvement was recognized as a need in both programs. Teachers in each case were involved and received guidance in identifying and articulating their own needs.<sup>18</sup>
2. Teachers worked in groups or teams in planning, participating in, assessing and following through workshop experiences.<sup>19</sup>
3. Teachers received the support of resource personnel throughout the year, on the job, and not only in summer workshops. Continued direction and support was available to teachers.<sup>20</sup>
4. Teacher observation of other teachers was a central component of both programs.
5. Both programs included support in the form of provision of some "released time" for teachers for observations, individual and group projects and workshops.

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<sup>15</sup>Further descriptive and evaluative information about the summer workshop is included in: M. Rudman, A. Schumer and L. Pierce, Integrated Day 1972 Summer Workshop Report (University of Mass., School of Education). An evaluation report of the academic year component of the Project is under preparation under the direction of Ann Schumer, School of Education.

<sup>16</sup>Combs, Avila and Purkey (1972) Ch. 6.

<sup>17</sup>Bash (1972) 37-68.

<sup>18</sup>Lippitt and Fox (1972).

<sup>19</sup>Arikado and Musella (1973), Cartwright and Lippitt (1957).

<sup>20</sup>Hersey and Blanchard (1972).

## Management

Within the realm of management the school building principal's responsibilities include the following: formulation, communication and implementation of school policies, regulations, expectations, etc.; school organization -- groups, departments, sub-schools, teams, etc.; scheduling; and providing for acquisition of necessary materials, supplies and equipment. And, more generally, in the area of management, the principal bears the responsibility for building and maintaining a "school environment." In the context of this dissertation, the school environment which would enable and foster both teacher and student growth would be one in which individual students and teachers are respected, valued and trusted, where teacher and student ideas are heard and valued, where initiative and innovation are allowed and encouraged. The consequences of such an environment would include the development of increasingly positive self-perceptions among teachers and students. In more specific terms, there are actions which administrators can take in order to build and maintain this environment.

In this writer's view a crucial first step can be made if the administrator's direct interactions (Model IV) with teachers and students are characterized by administrator respect and trust and if the administrator encourages the expressions of individuals' feelings, views and suggestions. This relationship can be illustrated in terms of Model IV, Figure 27-B. Where some positive feeling exists between the administrator and the teacher by virtue of the administrator's

personal or position power, and the administrator conveys positive perceptions of the teacher (represented in the Figure by X) the teachers self-perceptions (feeling about X) are likely to come into consonance with the administrators.<sup>21</sup> Further the administrator "tells" teachers positive things about themselves. Increased positive teacher self-perceptions are likely to result as a consequence.<sup>22</sup> Without this initial expression of the administrator's positive perceptions of students and teachers, more indirect administrator actions designed to convey positive perceptions are likely to be perceived by teachers and students as insincere and therefore meaningless.

Further actions which administrators can take to create situations in which teachers' positive self-perceptions are likely to be developed include:

1. Organizing for group interactions.
2. Scheduling to allow for planning time for groups of teachers.
3. Providing material resources in response to needs expressed by teachers.
4. Formulating and implementing policies which make teacher success both possible and likely.
5. Recognizing success.

This writer has found that many teachers who are given the opportunity to plan for and to assess the effectiveness of instruction

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<sup>21</sup>Rhea (1968) 13-15.

<sup>22</sup>Likert (1961).



in groups, during staff development or inservice workshops come to value opportunities for working with other teachers. Many of these teachers, however, express the feeling that "we can never work together with teachers in our own schools, because there is never a time when we are free at the same time." In many cases, when this desire to meet with other subject area or grade level teachers in the school is expressed by the teachers to the school administrator, that administrator is able to do some relatively simple rearranging of the school schedule in order to allow for those meetings. Administrators who organize for grouping of teachers into subject area or grade level teams (or others) and who allow time for these groups to meet are indirectly enabling teachers to meet some needs which can be fulfilled in group interaction -- affiliation needs, needs to participate in school decision-making -- and are at the same time creating a situation in which teachers work to accomplish school goals -- in this case, more effective classroom instruction.<sup>23</sup> They are influencing the interrelationships among teachers to the end that increased positive self-perceptions are likely to result (Figure 26).

The administrator who is responsive to teachers' expressed needs for supplies, materials, etc. is doing two things. First, the administrator is acting to remove a block to the identification and consideration of other "needs" for which teachers can assume some more responsibility for meeting themselves. Secondly, the

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<sup>23</sup> Cartwright and Lippitt (1957).

administrator is saying to teachers: "I respect you as a capable professional inasmuch as I believe that you are capable of identifying resources which will enhance teaching and learning in your classroom." Clearly, an administrator cannot or should not be expected to supply everything that teachers request. Just as clearly, however, administrator neglect of teachers' expressed needs or bureaucratic confusion and delays in requisition and supply procedures can be blocks to the development of some teacher positive self-perceptions. The administrator who aims to increase teachers' positive self-perceptions could, at least, eliminate some of these blocks where they are simply results of carelessness or mismanagement (Model IV).

Administrative policies and expectations are further areas in which administrator thoughtlessness and disorganization could, though inadvertantly, be the cause of some teachers' negative self-perceptions. Regulations and policies are essential to the operation of a school organization. These policies can, however, convey either respect or disrespect, trust or distrust and so on. Today, in most school systems contracts negotiated between school boards and bargaining agents for teachers dictate many school policies with regard to teachers and are designed to accord teachers rights and respect as professional people. There are, however, areas in which each school principal bears some responsibility for devising and implementing policies. Where policies are not outlined by a contract or by a board of education the administrator who would enhance the development of positive self-perceptions in teachers could eliminate those regulations which are not central to the operation of the school

or to the effectiveness of teaching, and which seem to convey negative feelings of teachers (i.e., requiring teachers to submit written lesson plans every week to an administrator or clerk who does little more than check to make sure that they have been turned in; requiring teachers to "sign-out" as well as "sign-in;" etc.).

Additionally, administrators have a responsibility for communicating to teachers administrative expectations for their performance in schools. Where the administrator's expectations are, or seem, unreasonably low to teachers, teachers are likely to infer that the administrator perceives them in negative ways (as incompetent, unable, ineffective, etc.). At the other extreme, administrator expectations which are so high as to seem unrealistic and hopelessly unattainable make teacher success in terms of those expectations nearly impossible and may even discourage teachers from trying to succeed. Uncommunicated expectations also make teacher success unlikely, or at best, the product of a successful guessing game. The administrator who would act so as to enhance the development of teachers positive self-perceptions would communicate expectations which would indicate to teachers that they were viewed as competent, capable of effective performance, achievement and success (Model IV, Figure 27-B). Where teachers participate with the administrator in organizing, planning, establishing regulations and setting expectations, teachers are able to perceive themselves as professionals who are involved and therefore have increasing responsibility for the school

operation.<sup>24</sup> They also, then assume some responsibility for creating situations in which they themselves can grow as individuals as well as professionals.

### Community-School Relations

A study conducted by Gallup International indicates administrators', teachers', and parents' reactions to educational innovations. Each group is found to value innovations; each group when questioned, however said that resistance to innovation was higher in the other two groups.<sup>25</sup> This information speaks directly to what this writer views as a dimension of community-school interaction in which a problem exists which is largely responsible for the incidence of criticism of teachers described in Chapter I - difference between parents' and teachers' expectations and perceptions.

The school building principal is the central liaison between faculty and community, and is faced with the task of bridging the gap between teachers' and parents' perceptions and expectations. To this end, the administrator can:

1. clarify school goals, policies, and procedures for each group;
2. provide information to each group about the school, students, community, parents and teachers;
3. provide opportunities for increased interaction between teachers and parents.

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<sup>24</sup>Molnar (1971), Arikado and Musella (1973).

<sup>25</sup>Administrators' and Teachers' Reactions to Educational Innovations, An I/D/E/A Report (Gallup International, Princeton, New Jersey, 1967).



In the area of community relationship the administrator can act indirectly to influence the development of teachers (+) self-perceptions by acting "through" community members. That is the administrator can influence the community in ways that affect the teachers (as represented graphically in Figure 25).

Knowledge and understanding of the school's goals provides parents and other community persons a basis for evaluating teaching in that school. They can see that their children are accomplishing a goal or that they are not, and can discuss their children's achievement with teachers on that basis. Where there is criticism of teaching and teachers, it is more likely, then, to be concrete and specific, and something which administrators, teachers and parents can deal constructively with. Further, when school goals are stated, parents have the opportunity to accept, reject or ask for modification of the goals themselves in keeping with their own aspirations for their children rather than continually direct criticism at teachers who are performing in accordance with school expectations but who are not doing what parents think should be done.

Where parents do feel that the school's goals are in accordance with what they perceive as their children's needs, parents have a basic sense of well-being about the school, and are thus likely to approach teachers in positive ways. This sense of well-being is most likely to occur when parents and community representatives are involved in the setting and implementation of school goals and policies. One model for this parent and community involvement is the PACTS



plan.<sup>26</sup> PACTS is a process for involving parents, administrators, community, teachers and students in the educational process. Representatives for each of these groups share in the formulation of such things as: school goals, rules governing student behavior, curriculum development, in-service training, the resolution of problems related to the school operation, etc.. Decisions are made on the basis of a consensus of committee members.

Beyond the establishment of goals, policies, etc., the administrator is responsible for seeing that these are communicated to parents and the community at large. The administrator may use the following vehicles to accomplish this: written memoranda, formal meetings, informal occasions, radio, television and newspapers. The more information the administrator can provide to the community about the school, the more likely will be that community to deal with teachers in ways which enable teachers to maintain positive perceptions of themselves, their competence and their value and esteem as members of the school community.

Additionally, increased opportunities for interaction between parents and teachers contributes to more realistic mutual perceptions, and gives parents increased opportunities to see that teachers are concerned and competent, where, in fact, they are. Administrators can provide for this interaction by encouraging and/or requiring teachers to hold private conferences with parents about their students and to attend and participate in school-wide meetings with the community,

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<sup>26</sup>As described by Barbara Sizemore, Superintendent, Washington, D. C. Public Schools.

by securing teacher involvement on committees such as those described as part of the PACTS process, and also by devising with teachers and parents a system of reporting on students' progress which satisfies the teachers' needs to communicate certain information to the parents as well as the parents' needs to know certain things about their children in school.

### Curriculum

Curriculum is an area in which teachers should be experts, and in which they can be accorded a substantial amount of responsibility for decision-making. The administrator can contribute to this by providing experience for new learnings. Within the confines of his own classroom, the teacher has a great degree of freedom in planning and implementing curriculum. In which case, administrators have little to lose and potentially much to gain by formally providing teachers with independence and responsibility in this area. Fundamentally, teachers can feel, when accorded this responsibility, that they are trusted and viewed as capable by the administrator (Model IV, Figure 27-B). Further, they are able to perceive themselves and other teachers acting responsibly and competently and are likely to form increasingly positive perceptions of teachers as professionals (Model IV, Figure 26). Where teachers work in groups to plan and assess curriculum efforts teachers are able to share ideas, information and resources and the resulting curriculum efforts are likely to be more effective as a consequence of this group work, than are a teachers own efforts in total

isolation (Figure 27-A). Administrator support for experimentation and innovation, along with administrator acceptance of occasional mistakes is likely to contribute to the development and maintenance of an environment where growth can and does take place -- for teachers as well as for students.

CHAPTER VII  
SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This writer's experiences in schools as a student, teacher, supervisor and resource person, her views about the world at present and her beliefs about the world in the future, and her understanding of current and historical ideas about education have all led her to the assumption that the best education for students today is one which teaches them how to learn and which aids them in acquiring the skills, attitudes and knowledge which they can use in directing their own learning and growth. This education would enable students to continually learn and grow and to take responsibility for the direction of their own lives. This writer has further concluded, and this conclusion has been substantiated in the literature reviewed in this dissertation, that teachers who are most effective in providing this education for students are teachers who themselves are in the process of directing their own continual education and growth. These teachers view themselves and their students as individuals of value and worth who possess undefined capabilities and capacities for growth toward independence, responsibility and creativity. Most teachers, however, find themselves subject to a wide variety of experiences which lead them to feel insecure, incapable and not valued as professionals, and unable to grow personally or professionally in their teaching roles. Parents criticize their work; the general public and the media portray them as incompetent and ineffective; their successes are rarely recognized; school organizations allow them

little independence and characteristically provide little support for their efforts to innovate; etc..

In conceiving of and in writing this dissertation this writer assumed the view that school administrators can do something about the ways teachers see themselves and can consequently do things to make possible teacher growth in schools. That is, that administrators can provide experiences which convey messages opposite to those described in the previous paragraph, and which enable teachers to feel successful, valuable, responsible and competent. Examination of literature from three different areas -- staff development and supervision, psychology and organizational behavior -- provides evidence that there are in fact experiences which can result in enhanced teacher positive self-perceptions, and provides further evidence that these are experiences over which the school administrator can exercise some degree of control.

From the staff development and supervision literature comes the suggestion that administrators can provide experiences for teachers in self-confrontation and self-evaluation which are likely to lead to the development of more positive self-perceptions in those teachers.

From perceptual psychology and transactional analysis comes the view that self-perceptions as well as perceptions of others are formed on the basis of experiences with other people, and that it is the quality of those experiences which leads to either positive or negative perceptions. And further, when an individual is exposed to experiences which are different from his previous experiences, his



perceptions may change to fit these new situations. From Maslow comes the conceptualization of the individual's growth as a movement toward self-actualization and as a product of fulfillment of needs such as affiliation, safety, esteem competence and achievement during the process of growth. Accordingly experiences which administrators can provide which portray teachers in positive ways and which enable teachers to meet their individual needs are likely to result in increasingly positive teacher self-perceptions.

Organizational behavior theory provides the administrator with a rationale for assessing the level of maturity of individual and groups of teachers in terms of what their needs and self-perceptions presently are and with guidelines for formulating leadership behavior which is appropriate to those teachers. In this context, appropriate leadership behavior is directed toward providing experiences in which teachers can be successful in meeting their own needs as well as in accomplishing organizational goals.

The literature reviewed in the dissertation, the models presented and the implications discussed all point to the conclusion that the experiences which administrators provide for teachers in schools can be very significant determinants of teachers' positive self-perceptions and consequently of those behaviors which operationally define positive self-perceptions. It is the nature of these experiences which influences whether or not teachers come to view themselves, as teachers in schools, in positive ways. Experiences which allow teachers to meet their personal needs and which enable teachers to perceive themselves as acting successfully, independently, competently,

etc. and as being respected and valued by others are experiences which are most likely to result in teachers' increased positive perceptions.

Those self-perceptions of teachers which are most likely to be affected by experiences in schools and by administrators' influences are self-perceptions of competence, achievement, professional independence, responsibility and influence, and worth, value and esteem. In general, those experiences which are likely to result in increased positive self-perceptions for teachers in these areas, and over which school administrators can exercise some control are those in which:

1. Teachers are given direction by administrators appropriate to their needs;
2. Teachers are provided socio-emotional (positive relationships) support by administrators;
3. Teachers participate with other teachers in planning, evaluating and decision-making in schools;
4. Teachers are given opportunities to view their own teaching behavior and to assess their effectiveness;
5. Teachers succeed in meeting goals which they participate in setting.

In planning for and implementing those experiences, school administrators who aim to enhance teachers' positive self-perceptions must consider variables such as their own ways of working and points of view, and must also assess and consider teachers' self-perceptions and needs (things which are important to teachers). Administrators must also be able to continually assess teachers' self-perceptions as they participate in planned experiences, in order to evaluate the

effectiveness of these experiences in leading to teachers' increased positive self-perceptions. Administrator estimations of teachers' self-perceptions are inferences, whether they are formed on the basis of observations or through the use of a written measurement device, and as such, must be continually tested and reassessed in practice.

Further experimental and theoretical studies in this area may facilitate these administrator efforts as well as provide substantiation for the ideas presented in this dissertation. For example, one assumption on which this dissertation is based is that self-actualizing teachers will be effective teachers. That is, for persons who teach, self-actualization in their teaching roles depends on their being effective teachers. This assumption could be tested by deriving operational definitions for self-actualization and for effective teaching and establishing statistical correlations between the two. A further proposition for testing is that: as a teacher's self-actualization needs are being met in a school, that school's goals are also likely to be met. The rationale for this proposition is that meeting self-actualization goals as a teacher will be consistent with meeting the needs of the school organization of which that teacher is a member. This writer has discussed in earlier chapters congruence between individual and organizational goals in proposing that when teachers are able to meet their personal needs and at the same time satisfy organizational goals, teachers' growth and development of positive self-perceptions is likely to occur. Ways of effecting this congruence have also been discussed: linking positive administrator sanctions (which satisfy teachers' needs for esteem,

approval, etc.) to teachers' accomplishment of organizational goals; linking opportunities for teachers to satisfy lower level needs (with benefits, security, etc.) to teachers' accomplishment of organizational goals; teachers setting with administrators interim, step by step, specific objectives which allow for meeting individual needs and at the same time are designed to lead to the accomplishment of organizational goals. What is missing, however, is a theoretical model for making individual goals and organizational goals congruent. That is, it has been established in the dissertation that this should be done, and some possible ways of doing so have been suggested, but a way of linking the two conceptually is needed.

A theoretical tie has been made in this dissertation between fulfilled needs and positive self-perceptions. That is, as teachers are successful in meeting their needs in schools, more positive self-perceptions are likely to result for these teachers. The experimental relationship between the two could be investigated. A simple model for doing so, and one which administrators could use in practice, would be to ask teachers at the outset of an inservice program or workshop to identify their own individual needs (by stating, for themselves only, personal goals which they would like to meet during the workshop). At the end of the workshop the degree to which teachers feel that they have been successful in meeting their personal needs could be determined and related to the difference for each teacher between pre-and post-workshop scores on a self-concept inventory (a measurement of self-perceptions of competence would probably be the most appropriate).



An additional association was made in this paper between positive self-perceptions and dependence: teachers with positive self-perceptions in the areas of esteem and competence are less likely to be dependent on administrator direction and support than teachers with negative self-perceptions in these areas. This relationship could be investigated experimentally.

The ultimate task related to the subject of this dissertation would be to examine experimentally the relationships between things that an administrator does directed toward increasing teachers' positive self-perceptions and actual changes in positive self-perceptions. This could be done in practice by applying some measure of teachers' self perceptions before and after teachers participate in experiences supplied by the administrator such as: involvement for a semester or a year with other teachers in planning for and recommending the implementation of a new curriculum program; involvement in a program of mutual observation and providing feedback with other teachers. Where more detailed and controlled studies could be conducted by researchers, an attempt could be made to measure the experimental relationships among:

1. experiences which administrators provide for teachers designed to increase teachers' positive self-perceptions;
2. variables such as administrators' self-perceptions, administrators' leadership styles, school size, teachers' previous teaching experience and education, etc.;
3. and teachers' self-perceptions.

It might also be helpful to find out more about changes in teachers' self-perceptions in response to different educational environments -- for example, to investigate the relationship between the development



of teachers' positive self-perceptions in an "open" school environment as contrasted to a traditional educational environment, and to point out variables which differ between the two environments.

Finally, since it has been stated that students' positive self-perceptions are associated with their increased learning and achievement in schools, it would be beneficial to gather evidence regarding the correlation between teachers' positive self-perceptions and students' positive self-perceptions, between administrators' positive self-perceptions and students' positive self-perceptions and among administrators', teachers' and students' positive self-perceptions. The theoretical relationship between administrators' positive self-perceptions and teachers' positive self-perceptions has been mentioned earlier. On the basis of this theoretical foundation an additional area for theoretical and experimental research can be suggested to answer questions such as what experiences are likely to lead to administrator growth and development of more positive self-perceptions, and how can these experiences be provided for administrators?

The ultimate value of this whole set of propositions relating student learning, student self-perceptions, teacher self-perceptions and administrator self-perceptions lies in identifying those factors which will make student learning most likely to occur. To be effective the administrator must be apprised of these variables and must understand how they operate in contributing to the learning process.

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