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The relationship of student-teacher compatibility to perceived student discipline

Terrence J. O'Toole -1946
College of William & Mary - School of Education

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THE RELATIONSHIP OF STUDENT-TEACHER

COMPATIBILITY TO PERCEIVED

STUDENT DISCIPLINE

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Presented to

The Faculty of the School of Education

The College of William and Mary in Virginia

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In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

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by
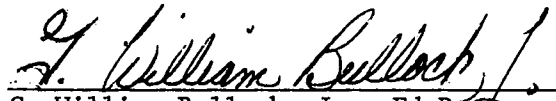
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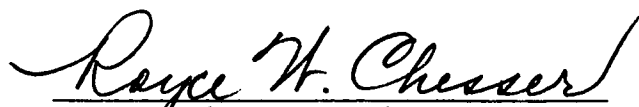
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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

The systematic study of the interpersonal behaviors
between students and teachers developed among social psycholo-
gists as early as 1939 (Lewin, Lippitt, and White, 1939).
This problem area has recently attracted the attention of
educational researchers. Much of the current research docu-
ments a strong relationship between student-teacher inter-
personal behavior and a number of student-centered factors:
student self-concept (Jones, 1973; Kameen and Brown, 1975);
student attendance (Aspy, 1975); student achievement in the
course (Nelson and Reyes, 1976); student discipline behavior
(Galloway, 1976); and student performance on standardized
tests (Peck, 1975).

The term "interpersonal" refers to relations that
occur between people. Behavior of people in which partici-
pants take account of one another is called interpersonal
behavior. Interaction patterns may be either compatible or
incompatible when two or more persons interact. Compatibility
refers to the relationship between two or more persons which
leads to "mutual satisfaction of interpersonal needs and har-
monious coexistence" (Schutz, 1966). When two or more
persons are compatible, their interaction is likely to be
easy and productive (Schutz, 1966).

Measuring the level of compatibility between the

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teacher and student is one method of determining the degree
to which they meet one another's needs. One important aspect
of this relationship is student discipline. The current public
demand for effective student discipline supports a need to
study student-teacher compatibility and its effect on classroom
behavior. There have been few research studies, however,
which compare student-teacher compatibility and student
behavior.

Each class, as much as each school, has its own
organizational and behavioral climate. In an "ideal" setting
one can expect a high level of interaction between the teacher
and each student often leading to increased enthusiasm and
student confidence. When this type of supportive environment
prevails, a highly positive level of student involvement
might result; when absent, however, a highly negative level
of student involvement might be experienced (Flanders, 1970;
Haase and Nisenhalz, 1976). As an interpersonal environment,
the group consisting of students and a teacher is predicated
on interaction between individuals. To understand the behavior
within the classroom and to create a positive environment, the
teacher must take into account the interpersonal needs of
each student, as well as his own (Lipham, 1964).

Statement of the Problem

Maintaining student behavior is a basic part of
teaching. From the beginning of their careers, teachers
commonly express concern over how to achieve appropriate

discipline in their rooms. Students, as well as the general public, expect teachers to be able to keep an orderly classroom. In recent opinion polls, the public has repeatedly cited lack of discipline as the schools' most serious problem. Often, the public equates an orderly school with a "good" school. What then accounts for effective discipline? Even though there are a number of variables involved, one major factor appears to be that of student-teacher compatibility. It was, therefore, the purpose of this research to examine the relationship between student and teacher compatibility and teacher-perceived student discipline.

The framework for this study was from Schutz's FIRO-B. In 1958, Schutz developed a theory called the "Fundamental Interpersonal Reliations Orientations' (FIRO) to explain interpersonal behavior as it relates to orientations with other people. Schutz theorized that a person orients himself toward others in certain characteristic patterns. These manners or patterns are centered around each individual's interpersonal needs. By interpersonal needs, Schutz meant a requirement for a person to establish satisfactory relations between himself and other people. There are three areas of interpersonal need: inclusion, control, and affection. In addition there are two aspects of behavior for each need area: the behavior which an individual likes to _express_ to others (e) and the behavior which the individual _wants_ others to display toward him (w).

Throughout childhood these interpersonal needs are continuously being developed. Schutz contends that a person's orientation toward others is a direct result of individual childhood interaction patterns. As the child grows up, he or she acquires and develops certain coping skills. This conditioning eventually becomes a natural behavior pattern (Schutz, 1966). Schutz concluded a person will continuously attempt to satisfy his interpersonal needs in a predictable manner. If his needs are not satisfied, the individual will attempt to change the behavior or attitude of the other participant, or, if unsuccessful, leave the relationship (Schutz, 1966). When two or more people interact, they do so in behavior patterns rooted in their respective childhoods. The resulting interaction may be either compatible or incompatible. Compatibility of two or more persons depends on: (1) their ability to satisfy reciprocally each other's interpersonal needs; (2) their ability to complement each other in originating and receiving behavior in each need area; and (3) their similarity with respect to the amount of interchange they desire with other people in each need area (Schutz, 1966).

To measure interpersonal behavior, and ultimately, compatibility, Schutz developed the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientations Behavior Scale (FIRO-B). It has been proven useful in clinical and research studies concerned with the effect of dyadic stability upon human performance. Later,

Schutz developed mathematical formulas to compare the FIRO-B scores of two individuals and assess their interpersonal compatibility. These scores are direct measures of the compatibility which exists between two people. By using these scores, an attempt was made to measure the compatibility between a teacher and an individual student.

In the classroom setting, Schutz's theory serves as a partial explanation for student discipline problems. A particular teacher, for example, can have a strong need to control. Likewise, certain students in the classroom might exhibit an equally strong need to control. The resulting interaction may cause the teacher and students to become competitive, and thus, incompatible. This interaction might consequently result in misbehavior on the part of the affected students. On the other hand, if these same students have a need to be controlled, then the interaction would be noncompetitive, productive, and compatible.

It was the contention of this research that when the interpersonal needs of the student were successfully met by the teacher, then the relationship between the affected student and the teacher would be compatible. In the case that interpersonal needs of students were not met by the classroom teacher, it was to be expected that interaction between the affected student and the teacher would not be compatible. The above assumptions led to the following six hypotheses:

Hypotheses

1. There is a correlation between perceived student discipline scores and the composite measure of compatibility in the inclusion area.

2. There is a correlation between perceived student discipline scores and the composite measure of compatibility in the control area.

3. There is a correlation between perceived student discipline scores and the composite measure of compatibility in the affection area.

4. There is a correlation between perceived student discipline scores and the students' and teachers' reciprocal compatibility scores.

5. There is a correlation between perceived student discipline scores and the students' and teachers' originator compatibility scores.

6. There is a correlation between perceived student discipline scores and the students' and teachers' interchange compatibility scores.

Methods for Conducting Study

In the present study, the hypotheses stated above were submitted to analysis based on data collected from a questionnaire administered to students and teachers, designed to measure student-teacher compatibility; and a behavior problem checklist on each student completed by his teacher. Compatibility scores of student-teacher interpersonal needs were correlated with perceived student behavior scores.

Importance of the Study

Concern over student behavior problems in the schools has been the topic of public opinion polls as well as professional literature (Gallup, 1980). This is a reality confronting educators on a day-to-day basis. As a result, school

personnel are held accountable for these problem situations experienced in the schools. In addition, teachers who face student behavior problems are searching for an understanding which will enable them to facilitate the learning process (Reilly, 1976). Regardless of the presence of discipline problems, research indicates that excellent teacher-student relationships do exist in many classrooms. These relationships usually involve a pattern of interaction characterized by mutual respect. Such interaction is conducive to both cognitive and affective learning (Haase and Nisenholz, 1976). It appears, then, that when a student knows he is accepted, respected, and that his presence has impact, his probability of success in learning is enhanced (Haase and Nisenholz, 1976).

The present study was designed to determine whether the compatibility of the teacher and the student is related to student behavior. Results of research in this area could well contribute to understanding the nature of the relationships under investigation.

Definition of Terms

The most frequently used terms in this study relate to interaction between the student and the teacher and to student behavior. These terms are defined in this section.

1. _Interpersonal need_ is one that may be satisfied only through the attainment of a satisfactory relation with one or more persons. One can identify three forms of interpersonal needs: inclusion, control, and affection. These

concepts are further defined under the definition of Funda-

mental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behavior.

2. <u>Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-</u>

<u>Behavior</u> (FIRO-B) refers to the instrument developed by

William C. Schutz for the purposes of (1) measuring how an

individual acts in interpersonal situations and (2) pre-

dicting the degree and quality of interaction between

people (Schutz, 1966). Since the prediction of inter-

action is a proposed aim for FIRO-B, it is reasonable to

assess what behavior the individual expresses toward others

($\underline{e}$), and how he wants other to behave toward him ($\underline{w}$)

(Schutz, 1966, p. 58). The three FIRO-B dimensions in which

these two aspects ($\underline{w}$ and $\underline{e}$) of behavior can be found are:

(a) <u>Inclusion</u> (<u>I</u>) refers to the need for together-
ness, the need to interact with others. Further-
more, this association or interaction must be
satisfactory if it is to be maintained (Schutz,
1966, p. 21).

(b) <u>Control</u> (<u>C</u>) refers to the decision-making process
between two or more people. The need for control
varies from having complete power over others to
the need to be controlled (Schutz, 1966, p. 22).

(c) <u>Affection</u> (<u>A</u>) refers to the emotional relation-
ship between people. This relationship ranges on
a continuum from love to hate (Schutz, 1966,
p. 23).

Thus FIRO-B generates six scores for each respondent:

expressed inclusion behavior (e^I), wanted inclusion behavior

(w^I), expressed control behavior (e^C), wanted control behavior

(w^C), expressed affection behavior (e^A), and wanted affection

behavior (w^A) (Schutz, 1966, p. 58).

3. The term <u>interpersonal compatibility</u> refers to the interaction between two or more people which leads to mutual satisfaction of interpersonal needs. The FIRO-B instrument yields a score which measures this degree of congruency of interpersonal needs between people. Schutz identifies six types of compatibility obtained that are relevant to this study:

(a) <u>Reciprocal Compatibility</u> (<u>rK</u>) refers to the degree to which two persons reciprocally satisfy each other's behavior preferences; this is, the degree to which person X's expressed behavior matches person Y's wanted behavior and vice versa in the areas of inclusion, control, and affection $rK_{AB} = |e_A - w_B| + |e_B - w_A|$ (Schutz, 1966, p. 108).

(b) <u>Originator Compatibility</u> (<u>oK</u>) is based on the originator-received dimension of interaction. In general, two persons are compatible to the degree that the expression of inclusion, control, or affection corresponds to that which the other person wishes to receive in each area $oK_{AB} = (e_A - w_A) + (e_B - w_B)$ (Schutz, 1966, p. 109).

(c) <u>Interchange Compatibility</u> (<u>xK</u>) based upon the mutual expression of inclusion, control and/or affection by the participants. This exists when persons interacting desire a similar amount of exchange $xK_{AB} = [(e_A + w_A) - (e_B + w_B)]$ (Schutz, p. 110).

(d) <u>Compatibility in the inclusion area</u> (K^I) refers to the combination of all measure of compatibility in the inclusion area $K^I = rK^I + oK^I + xK^I$ (Schutz, 1966, p. 115).

(e) <u>Compatibility in the control area</u> (K^C) refers to the combination of all measures of compatibility in the control area $K^C = rK^C + oK^C + xK^C$

(Schutz, 1966, p. 115)

(f) <u>Compatibility in the affection area</u> (K^A) refers to the combination of all measures of compatibility in the affection area $K^A = rK^A + oK^A + xK^A$ (Schutz, 1966, p. 115).

4. <u>Student Behavior</u> refers to the student's conduct within the classroom setting. The standards against which this conduct is measured are (1) expectations of the school administration and (2) accepted patterns of the individual classroom teacher.

5. <u>Student Discipline Problems</u> refer to students' behavior as rated by their teachers on the Behavior Rating Profile (Brown and Hammill, 1978). The Behavior Rating Profile contains six independent components. In measuring student behavior, the Teacher Rating Scale will be used. This scale consists of thirty descriptive items such as Item 30: "Doesn't follow class rules." The teacher will be asked to classify each item into one of the following four categories: Very Much Like the Student; Like the Student; Not Much Like the Student; and Not at All Like the Student. Each response will be converted to a numerical raw score. The scores will range from a high discipline problem of 0 to a low discipline problem of 90. The summary raw score will serve as the unit of analysis for this study.

6. <u>Perceived Student Discipline</u> refers to how a student's behavior is seen by his or her teacher in the classroom.

7. <u>Perceived Student Discipline Scores</u> refer to a

student's classroom behavior as measured by means of Brown
and Hammill's Behavior Rating Profile.

Limitations of the Study

Any study has certain limitations that must be identified and stated in order that the conclusions of the study be regarded in the proper perspective. The following limitations were identified for this study:

A. One school was used in this study; therefore the findings of this study will only be applicable to this school and the situation under which empirical data were collected.

B. This study was based on the assumption that FIRO-B validly and reliably measures compatibility of interpersonal needs.

C. This study was based on the assumption that the Behavior Rating Profile validly and reliably measures perceived student discipline.

D. No special education students were included in this study.

E. No non-white teachers were included in this study.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Chapter one presented the statement of the problem,
the hypotheses, the importance of the study, the definition
of terms, and the limitations of the study. Chapter two
reviews theories and studies relating to: (1) interpersonal
behavior, (2) student-teacher relationships, (3) fundamental
interpersonal relations orientation theory (FIRO), (4) FIRO-B,
(5) interpersonal compatibility and (6) discipline.

Interpersonal Behavior

The importance of interpersonal behavior cannot be
over-emphasized. Man is a social animal; he interacts with
others to pursue his goals and to satisfy his needs. The
source of man's deepest satisfaction is usually found in his
relations with others. Early thinkers believed that humans,
like animals, had a "herd instinct" which brought them together.
It is now realized that people seek a number of goals in social
situations, such as power, helping with work, and guidance
(Argyle, 1967).

According to Gilmer, interpersonal relationships in-
volve direct interactions between people, friends, members
of a family, a club, a fraternity, a small work group or a
classroom. Furthermore, these groupings involve relationships
among individuals who have a relatively fixed role and status.
Identifications are usually clear, as are expectations and

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loyalties. For instance, it was found that a person's position in a social hierarchy is primarily a function of how useful to group members he has been in the past. The individual is then perceived as fulfilling a certain role (Gilmer, 1973). At this point the hierarchy is maintaining a state of equilibrium. Other previous research has shown that when a person deviates from his role or expectations, other members of the organization might encourage him to conform to their established goals or force him out of the organization (Argyle, 1967).

In recent years, Bales (1970) designed a theory for measuring interpersonal behavior within groups. In addition to measuring each individual member's role in the group, his method also aids in self-analysis. Specific directions are given for various exercises used in analyzing interpersonal behavior. For instance, a person answers twenty-six questions with a simple yes-no response. Instructions are then given for evaluating these responses. After the answers are scored, the person observed will be classified into one of the twenty-six personality and group types designed by a directional name, such as UN, that is, toward tough-minded assertiveness. It must be emphasized that the obtained score measures only that person's role in that specific group. He or she might and probably will have different roles in other groups. One of the strong points of Bales' theory is that it is a field approach to the understanding of personalities and groups in everyday situations. Bales believes that his theory is predictive

and can be used to predict a person's role and behavior in future group membership.

Instead of defining interpersonal behavior, many authorities approach the concept by attempting to explain basic human "drives" or "needs." Swenson (1973) defined a "need" as a lack of satisfaction which impels a person to act. Argyle believes there are seven motivational sources of interpersonal behavior: (1) Non-social drives affecting social behavior; (2) Need of dependency; (3) Affiliation; (4) Dominance or power; (5) Sex; (6) Aggression; (7) Self-esteem and self-consistancy (Argyle, 1967, p. 26-34).

Schutz (1966) theorizes that each person has three basic interpersonal needs that are manifested in behavior and feelings toward others. Each individual's self-concept determines the intensities of these needs and the different mechanisms for handling them. The three interpersonal needs are:

1. The need for inclusion - This need deals with both being included as well as being the one to include others in social situations. A healthy self-concept contributes to a balance in this area in that a person who feels he is a worthwhile individual does not require excessive inclusion or non-inclusion (Schutz, 1966, p. 18).

2. The need for control - This need refers to the decision-making process between people and the areas of power, influence and authority. The need for control varies along a continuum from the desire for authority over others to the need to be controlled and have responsibility lifted from oneself. (Schutz, 1966, p. 19).

3. <u>The need for affection</u> - This need refers to close personal emotional feelings between two people, especially love and hate. Affection has to do with the degree of closeness and intimacy which an individual desires. Inclusion differs from affection mainly in that it does not involve strong emotional attachments to individual persons (Schutz, 1966, p. 20).

Usually inclusion is the first phase and affection is the last phase to emerge in the development of human relationships. In the inclusion phase, people must encounter each other and decide to continue their relationship. Control requires people to confront one another and resolve how they will relate to each other. To continue the relationship over any length of time and especially outside the role situation, ties of affection must be formed (Schutz, 1971). Ultimately the degree to which a relationship develops is decided by the compatibility level which exists between and among the individuals.

Maslow (1970) studied interpersonal relationships and concluded that the way two people relate to each other is a function of their level of self-actualization or self-development, which develops from the kinds of needs which motivate them. Maslow arranged a hierarchy of needs. The needs that are lower in the hierarchy are generally satisfied before the individual can attempt to satisfy higher needs. At the bottom are the <u>physiological</u> needs for food, water, and air. Next are the <u>safety</u> needs, which include the need for safety from physical harm and the need for security. When these needs have been satisfied, the person seeks <u>affection</u>

and love. Once these needs have been met the need for
self-esteem emerges. Higher on the list is the need for
self-actualization which was mentioned previously. Next
is the desire to know and to understand, and last are the
aesthetic needs. According to Maslow interpersonal relation-
ships cannot be established until the first two needs are
met, but the next three needs (affection, esteem and self-
actualization) are imperative in establishing interpersonal
relationships (Maslow,1970).

Winch (1958) advanced an interesting theory concern-
ing needs in his study of married couples. He indicated that
people are attracted to others who will meet their needs,
thus, people who choose to pair with each other are com-
plementary in their needs. The current high divorce rate
might occur because people's needs change over time.

Implicit in the concept of a needs hierarchy is
the idea that the way one person relates to another will
be a function of the needs of the people who are interacting.
The researchers suggest that in dealing with students, for
example, the teacher must realize that each individual pupil
may be at a different needs level. Furthermore, for the
classroom to operate effectively, the teacher must create
situations whereby the student can satisfy his individual
needs.

To this point, the focus of discussion has centered
on general concepts of interpersonal relationships and the

perception of an individual's needs. It is now time to re-
view these ideas in the more specific context of educational
experiences and the activity of teaching in particular.
Within this framework special emphasis will be given to the
classroom interaction between students and teachers.

Student-Teacher Relationship

One of the most prevelant interpersonal relation-
ships in the American society is the student-teacher rela-
tionship. As early as 1939, when Lewin, Lippitt, and White
conducted their classic study in leadership styles in the
classroom, it became obvious to professional educators that
there was a need to study the relationship between teachers
and students. As early as 1944, it was found that introverted
students performed better when praised by their teachers,
whereas extroverted students performed better when criticized
by teachers for their mistakes (Peck, 1975). Washburn and
Heil reported in 1960, that the teacher's personality inter-
acted with the child's personality to create differential
learning in different elementary school subjects.

Many studies have been conducted on the quality of
interpersonal relationships between teacher and students
and its effect on student achievement. In his dissertation,
Ryan (1972) attempted to show the extent to which the inter-
personal relationship between teacher and student is asso-
ciated with a pattern of classroom verbal interaction. He
found that high school teachers who were perceived by their

students as exhibiting strong teacher/student interpersonal
relationships used students' ideas in their classroom
verbal interaction. In cases where student ideas were not
incorporated in the dialogue, a weak interpersonal relationship
was detected.

Jones (1973) found that lack of achievement of
school dropouts was due not to lack of ability but rather
to interpersonal factors in the pupil's life. She found
also that high achievers have a more positive self-concept than
lower achievers. Furthermore, students with positive self-
concepts perceived their relationships with their teachers
to be more facilitating than students with more negative
self-concepts. Finally, Jones found that teachers were
inaccurate in approximating the student perception of the
teacher-student interpersonal relationships. In another
study on dropouts, Reilly (1976) found that within patterns
of student-teacher interaction two factors caused students
not to finish school. One factor was the lack of interest
in students on the part of the teacher; a second factor was
the students' inability to discuss their problems with
teachers.

In their study on dogmatic personality styles,
Nelson and Reyes (1976) analyzed the congruence of dogmatic
personality styles between student and teacher. The personality
of the instructor, it was found, did have an appreciable and
positive effect upon the student's level of achievement in

a specific teacher's course.

In her study on value congruency, Cook (1973) found that the congruence of value beliefs between student and teacher related positively with high grades. However, the students' intelligence may have accounted more for the higher grades than did the similarity of pupil-teacher values.

Flanders (1970) suggested that the best approach to the study of teaching is to analyze the interaction between teacher and students. He found that when the interaction pattern was harmonious, the level of student achievement, attendance and self-esteem was also high.

McDermott (1977) believes that the relationship between students and teachers underlines the entire learning process. This relationship must be based on trust. Trust is achieved and managed through interaction. According to Mc Dermott it takes a continuing effort for two or more people to achieve a trusting relationship, and the more trusting the relationship, the more students learn.

Haase and Nisenhalz (1976) concur with McDermott. It is their belief that an effective student-teacher relationship involves a working together and a sharing of mutual respect. Such interaction facilitates both cognitive and affective learning. When a student knows he is accepted and respected and that his presence is felt, he goes about the business of learning.

Overview of the FIRO Theory

Schutz in designing his FIRO theory found that in every interpersonal situation there were three elements. They are: (1) inclusion or the getting involved with the group; (2) control or setting your "niche" in the group; and (3) affection or feelings for one another in the group. The basic elements of FIRO theory can be described by Postulate 1: The Postulate of Interpersonal Needs which states that every individual has three interpersonal needs: inclusion, control, and affection (Schutz, 1966, p. 13). In addition, these needs constitute a sufficient set of areas of interpersonal behavior for the prediction and explanation of interpersonal phenomena.

The term "interpersonal" refers to relations which occur between people as opposed to those relations which occur as experiences of self-to-self or self-to-object. Furthermore, the behavior of one individual differs when in the presence of another individual. If one of the individuals is not able to satisfy his personal "needs," then his self-concept is impaired, and he may react differently from his normal self or he may even leave the interpersonal situation entirely. The same holds true in the classroom environment. It is not impossible that a teacher fails to meet a student's needs, and if this is actually the case, the student will resort to rebellion, withdrawal or revert to some other form of adverse behavior. In the reverse case, the same phenomenon

might occur with similar outcome: If the teacher's needs
fail to be met, his or her behavior will reflect the frustra-
tion resulting from the gap between need expectancy and in-
compatibility of individuals.

FIRO-B

FIRO-B is the measuring instrument designed to
measure an individual's orientation to the three "needs"
areas of inclusion, control and affection. The letters FIRO-B
stand for Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientations-
Behavior. Schutz's primary purposes for developing FIRO-B
are: "(1) to construct a measure of how an individual acts
in interpersonal situations, and (2) to construct a measure
that will lead to the prediction of interaction between people
based on data from the measuring instrument alone" (Schutz,
1966, p. 158). Thus, it not only attempts to measure a per-
son's basic pattern of behavior, but it attempts to predict
the relationship which may develop between persons in a group.
In predicting this interaction, it takes into account the
behavior an individual expresses toward others (e), and also
how the individual wants others to behave toward him (w)
(Schutz, 1966, p. 59). Schutz designed his instrument so
that expressed and wanted behavior could be measured in all
three areas of interpersonal interaction: inclusion, control,
and affection. Using the Guttman technique for cumulative
scale analysis, Schutz designed six scales to measure Inclusion
expressed (I^e), Inclusion wanted (I^w), Control expressed (C^e),

Control wanted (C^w), Affection expressed (A^e), and Affection wanted (A^w). Each scale consists of nine items (Schutz, 1966, p. 59).

Compatibility

According to Schutz, "Compatibility is a property of a relationship between two or more persons, between an individual and role, or between an individual and a task situation, that leads to mutual satisfaction of interpersonal needs and harmonious coexistence" (Schutz, 1966, p. 105). It is the ability for people to work together in harmony, it does not imply a "liking" of one another. In Postulate 3: The Postulate of Compatibility, Schutz states that if the compatibility of one group is greater than that of another group then the goal achievement of the higher compatible group will exceed that of the lower compatible group (Schutz, 1966, p. 105). Using FIRO-B, Schutz attempted to measure compatibility mathematically. He hypothesized three main types of compatibility.

1. Reciprocal Compatibility (rK) refers to the degree to which persons in the interpersonal situation complement one another concerning expressed and wanted behavior in all three interpersonal needs areas (Schutz, 1966, p. 107).

2. Originator Compatibility (oK) refers to who will originate and who will follow. In the ideal situation, people will complement one another in who will originate and who will follow in all three interpersonal needs areas (Schutz, 1966, p. 107).

3. Interchange Compatibility (xK) refers to a mutual expression of inclusion, control, and/or affection by the participants. Ideally all

those interacting will desire a similar amount
of exchange (Schutz, 1966, p. 107).

Beatty (1974) attempted to investigate the rela-
tionship of teacher-student need compatibility, derived
from Schutz's theory, to the obtained grades and expressed
course satisfaction of male and female students. The assump-
tion was that high grades and course satisfaction had a posi-
tive impact on the interaction between students and teachers;
that is, the objective of the research was to identify a
direct linear relationship between student-teacher compati-
bility and obtained course grade and expressed course satis-
faction. Beatty's study did not document such a positive
correlation. Consequently, his work has no impact on the
research project at hand, i. e., student-teacher compatibility
and perceived student discipline.

Bloom (1976) investigated the relationship between
the incongruency of interpersonal needs of students and
their teachers and the teachers' rating of children's be-
havior. He found that children with high autocratic and
rebellious control needs, with strong needs to give and
receive love, and with very low inclusion needs all rejected
teachers who expressed inclusions toward them.

Some researchers attempted to determine whether
the FIRO-BC (children) scales of Inclusion, Control, and
Affection distinguished between students identified as
"stars" and "isolates" through a sociometric instrument com-
pleted by their peers. The results showed that "stars" and

"isolates" were significantly different in their responses on the expressed and wanted inclusion scale of the FIRO-BC. The results also indicated that the expressed and wanted control and affection scales were not significantly different for the "stars" and "isolates" themselves (Dodson, Gray, and Morrison, 1976).

Recently, Brown and Brown (1976) have found that high inclusion interchange and high originator only may produce greater social acceptance than low inclusion interchange and low receive inclusion only. This may be interpreted to suggest inclusion of others invites reciprocity and greater peer acceptance, but liking for others appears to be unrelated to social acceptance. In summarizing their research, it was found that subjects who participate socially tend to be more accepted than subjects who do not participate socially; thus, including others seems to be an important factor in satisfying interpersonal relationships.

In an unpublished dissertation, Paul (1973) attempted to measure the relationship of student-teacher compatibility to achievement that existed in algebra classes. In his analysis of student achievement and compatibility with the teacher, he found a positive, significant relationship between total compatibility, compatibility in the personal need area of control, and compatibility in the personal need area of inclusion with student achievement. When the

achievement of students with negative measures in origina-
tor compatibility was compared with achievement of students
with positive measures, the achievement of the students with
negative measures was significantly greater than the achieve-
ment of students with positive measures. This indicates that
achievement was enhanced when the teachers and students did
not express as much behavior in the personal need area of
control as they wanted expressed toward themselves.

In another dissertation, Brown (1976) found that
the strong degree of incompatibility between the teacher's
low need to express affection and the student's high need
to receive affection would seem to promise lower achievement
in the classrooms. But this situation can be remedied if there
is a sincere effort to reduce this dissatisfaction.

In their study of students science attitudes and self-
concepts, Schafer and Vargo (1976) found that two compatibility
variables, student perceived originator control compatibility
and reciprocal control compatibility yielded a significant
positive correlation with self-concept in science. Those
students who perceive a disagreement as to who shall express
and receive control behavior tend to have lower self-concepts
in science. Low originator compatibility can occur where both
teacher and student compete to express but neither want to
receive, or when both would prefer to receive rather than
express. In their conclusion, Vargo and Schafer found that
originator control compatibility is significantly and

positively correlated with student achievement as well as
student attitude.

Hawley and Heiner (1979) attempted to determine if
Schutz's aggregate index for measuring compatibility (K)
is useful to the formation of work teams, and whether com-
patibility is more relevant to socioemotional aspects of a
group rather than task achievement aspects. They found
that inclusion and affection subcompatibilities correlated
positively with social and emotional dependent measures of
perceived friendliness, competence and team effectiveness
in the majority of the cases analyzed. However, these corre-
lations were significant in only 25 of the 47 cases. On the
other hand, control subcompatibilities correlated negatively
with the dependent variable in 21 of 27 cases (only six were
significant). The implication of these relationships is that
the method for measuring the composite compatibility (K) con-
ceals the fact that control subcompatibilities do not relate
to the dependent measures in the same way as inclusion and
affection compatibilities.

Another problem Hawley and Heiner uncovered with
Schutz's compatibility theory was that they felt it was too
static. Schutz (1966) advocated that interpersonal needs
develop early in childhood and are brought to each encounter
by the individual. Hawley and Heiner (1976) suggested that
people can learn to be compatible with others and that through
interaction they become more or less compatible with each other.

Furthermore, compatibility between individuals may change over time. Also, group compatibility scores depend on whether the group is in its initial or later stages of development. Schutz suggested that these scores would remain constant over time. Argyris (1965) disagrees with Schutz and supports Hawley and Heiner's view by suggesting that people learn to be compatible with others and that through further interaction they become more or less compatible with each other.

Hawley and Heiner (1976) also suggested that the relationship between the "subcompatibility" scores and the social and emotional dependent measures were more often significant than relationships with task achievement measures, but the effect was not profound. Finally, Hawley and Heiner concluded their findings by indicating that there might be other variables in addition to compatibility which must be considered in forming groups.

Malloy joined together with Copeland (1980) to suggest a modification to Schutz's compatibility formula supporting Hawley and Heiner. They found inconsistency in the math schema for measuring total compatibility (K). The problem lies in the originator compatibility formula which does not use absolute values. In a situation where a wanted score is greater than expressed score, the originator compatibility measure will be negative and will mask compatibility from other areas which are always positive. To correct this discrepency, they recommend that the originator

compatibility formula should remain a real number equation
when used clinically to reflect the originate-receive di-
mension that it measures. However, when computing the com-
posite compatibility (K) of a dyad, for either clinical or
research purposes, originator compatibility should always be
computed using absolute values.

In research done alone, Malloy (1980) found fault
with the FIRO-B. Though the FIRO-B methodology has been
used to measure dyadic compatibility, relatively little
is known about the distribution of compatibility scores.
Malloy felt that this lack of information makes the pre-
cise interpretation of certain statistical analysis diffi-
cult. This lack makes cross-study comparison difficult
also and inhibits the emergence of a standardized method
for defining research groups on the basis of compatibility
scores.

Discipline

Maintaining order in a classroom is generally con-
sidered to be a basic task for instructional personnel. The
public considers lack of discipline as the most serious
problem facing schools and often perceives an orderly school
as a "good" school (Gallup, 1980). Various techniques,
practices, and philosophies have been attempted and found
to be successful for handling classroom discipline. How-
ever, no one panacea has proven to be successful in all
situations. Why students misbehave depends upon the people

involved and the environmental situation in which the inter-
action occurs. Dinkmeyer and Dinkmeyer (1976) found numer-
ous examples of teachers who knew content but were weak on
discipline. Many were either impelled to resign or become
authoritarian and tyrannical in an attempt to survive. In
the latter group, the teacher became preoccupied with power
and not with the process of learning. Further research
showed evidence that authoritarian approaches to human re-
lationships were usually ineffective. Furthermore, punish-
ment, which is the imposition of authority, should be used
sparingly because it is not an "educational procedure".
Instead, the Dinkmeyers advocated a participative approach
to discipline where the student learns to decide for him-
self and accept the consequences of his actions.

In studying why children misbehave, Redl (1957)
emphasized the importance of the ego and the control system
in the human personality. He felt that it was the ego's
role to keep the student in touch with reality and to help
him to regulate his impulsive expressions within reasonable
limits. Many times during the course of a school day, a
student's ego is confronted with the task of behavior con-
trol. There is nothing unusual about having desires for
things that are not permissible, and this could contribute
to such behavior as daydreaming in the classroom, walking
out or any other type of negative reaction. This behavior
is considered normal as long as the child is able to block

his desires from developing into open behavior, and as long
as the daydreams are not pathological. The fact that a
student's ego is basically normal and he behaves well in the
classroom does not mean that his ego is expected to succeed
in its task of behavioral control under all circumstances.
The key to behavioral control through interpersonal relation-
ship is to develop a need response that will encourage the
student to accept classroom norms of discipline. The normal
child can handle the task of behavior control even under ad-
verse circumstances if given adequate ego support (Redl and
Wineman, 1957).

Many studies have been attempted and completed to
explain classroom misbehavior. Knight (1978) tried to find
an existing relationship among nine selected teacher attri-
butes and the frequency of student discipline referrals.
Some of the significant findings of Knight's study were:

1. The number following attributes were more
   likely to make a large number of referrals--
   female, white, thirty years of age or younger,
   five or less years of teaching experience,
   non-educational degree, and teacher of major
   academic subject (English, Mathematics or
   Science).

2. The mean number of referrals for classes in-
   creased as the academic ability level of
   classes decreased, as did the number of in-
   dividual students who were referred.

3. Teachers with children of their own made
   fewer discipline referrals than teachers
   with no children.

Stauber (1977) felt that the major cause of class-
room misbehavior resulted from the failure of school

personnel to recognize the differential growth patterns
of young adolescents and the continued attempt to maintain
age separation and grade structure based solely on chrono-
logical age rather than the developmental needs of the
students.

Some researchers have attempted to change the
school environment with the intent of eliminating or de-
creasing discipline problems. Listed are a few of the more
frequent attempts: unusual shapes of classrooms and
buildings, modular classrooms, brightly-colored carpets
and walls, and the frequent rearrangement of classroom furni-
ture. Some attempts succeeded while others failed. However,
though the environment may be relevant, it appears that
human interaction is the key to curbing classroom discipline
problems (Timmreck, 1978).

One factor commonly associated with classroom mis-
behavior is a student's poor self-concept. Davidson and
Lang (1960) found that children who were rated as being
disorderly, defiant, unfriendly, or troublesome perceived
their teachers' feelings toward them as being less favorable
than the children who were rated as being eager, cooperative
or assertive. The teachers' feelings of acceptance and
approval are communicated to the child and perceived by him
as positive appraisals. The students' self-concept rises and
matures in this favorable interpersonal setting. Furthermore,
these appraisals will likely encourage the child to seek

further approval by achieving and behaving in a manner
acceptable to his teacher. The process aids in molding the
child's self-concept.

Galloway (1976) suggested that discipline problems
resulted because students and people in general have an
innate need to be recognized by the leader. He indicated
that it was vital that the teacher acknowledge a student's
presence and create feelings of acceptance and worthiness.
Otherwise, discipline problems may surface because the
student will seek attention. If this tactic becomes
successful and the student is recognized for misbehaving,
then the student might become conditioned for this type
of behavior. Galloway suggested one way to combat this
cycle is for the teacher to recognize the individual's
needs for acceptance and presence.

McDermott (1977) agreed with Galloway's premise
but added a dimension. She felt that trust must be achieved
between teacher and student for an orderly classroom to
exist. Furthermore, the more trusting the relationship,
the more students behave and learn. However, it takes
continuous effort for two or more people to achieve this
trusting relationship. The slightest lag or snag can de-
mand extensive remedial efforts.

Interaction between the teacher and students can
be mutually stimulating and satisfying or it can be filled
with tension. Students' misbehavior causes classroom
disruptions for both teacher and students. Undoubtedly,

a number of factors can contribute to a pupil's misbehavior. However, the teacher must conclude whether he himself is part of the problem. This can be accomplished by making an inter- action assessment. Once this assessment is accomplished, the teacher should seek proven remedies to change behavior. This should result in fewer discipline problems in the classroom (McLemore, 1978).

Dinkmeyer and Dinkmeyer (1976) suggest that a stu- dent misbehaves for one of four reasons: (1) attention, (2) power, (3) revenge, and (4) inadequacy. The authors' recommendation was to allow students the freedom to deter- mine their own behavior and have them accept the conse- quences of this behavior. Verbal abuse to a teacher, for example, is not permitted in the social environment. The students are aware of the rule as well as of the penalty that results from violating the rule. It follows that the level of expectancy, as related to misbehavior, leads to acceptance of responsibility for their own action.

Bosher (1980) believed that the best method to im- prove discipline is to improve the human interactions within the classroom. He suggested that teacher prepara- tory programs should instruct teachers to counsel, com- municate, care and resolve conflicts through human rela- tions. This can be done by the university personnel em- phasizing training in interpersonal relations to support classes in specific academic skills. Similar research by

Elrod (1976) indicated that more teachers fail because of inability to cope with poor interpersonal relations than because of a lack of subject matter knowledge.

Summary

This chapter reviewed the literature on the theories and studies dealing with interpersonal behavior, student-teacher relationship, fundamental interpersonal relations orientations theory (FIRO), FIRO-B scale and compatibility.

All of this research seemed to underscore the absence of definitive answers for what causes disruptive behavior in the classroom. It is evident from the literature, however, that one key to improving discipline problems in the classroom is enhancing the quality of the interpersonal relations between teachers and their students.

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

This study explored the relationship between
student-teacher compatibility and perceived student be-
havior. In the first chapter the rationale for this study
was presented. Chapter two reviewed the literature rele-
vant for this study. Chapter three is divided into (1) the
selection of the sample, (2) procedures for determining
compatibility, (3) procedures for determining behavior
problems, (4) procedures for collection of the data, (5)
data analysis, and (6) method of analysis.

Selection of the Sample

The population for this study was drawn from a
middle school in the Richmond, Virginia, metropolitan area.
This middle school was located in a suburban county and
has a combined population of approximately 1,500 sixth,
seventh, and eighth-grade students who are enrolled in
regular classes. The selection was stratified by grade,
and from each grade level four teachers were randomly
selected. These teachers were then asked if they wanted
to participate. The one teacher who declined to participate
was replaced by another random selection. To minimize
error which might be caused by afternoon fatigue, only
the first two morning sessions from each of the selected
teachers participated in this study. Students were also

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given the option of participating. No students declined.

Next, a form letter was distributed informing the parents that their child was selected to participate in this study. No parents contacted the school for further information or declined permission. Students in the sample completed the survey instrument for this study within one week.

Procedures for Determining Compatibility

To avoid inconsistencies in data collection, the FIRO-B questionnaire was administered to teachers and to students at the same time. All those participating in the study were assured of the anonymity and confidentiality of the information collected. In the process of data analysis, however, scores were coded and identified by respondent.

To derive the compatibility score between student and teacher, the following procedures were followed:

1. Interpersonal needs of students and teachers were determined from the FIRO-B questionnaire. Based on a Guttman-Analysis, six scores were obtained for each re-spondent. These six scores were expressed inclusion (e^I), wanted inclusion (w^I), expressed control (e^C), wanted control (w^C), expressed affection (e^A), and wanted af-fection (w^A). Results on any one scale ranged from a low of 0 to a high of 9. Low scores suggested an absence of a particular interpersonal trait while high scores suggested

a prominence of this trait.

    2. Compatibility scores were then computed.
All scores were to be based on the student as compared to
his/her teacher at that one particular class period.
To extract a total compatibility score, nine subscores
were derived. For each of the three interpersonal need
areas (inclusion, control, and affection) there are three
types of compatibility measures: reciprocal compatibility
(rK), originator compatibility (oK), and interchange com-
patibility (xK). From these nine scores, the six com-
patibility indices used in this study were derived. These
six variables are rK, oK, xK, K^I, K^C, and K^A. The formula
for the three types of compatibility are:

    (1) <u>Reciprocal Compatibility</u> (<u>rK</u>)

$$rk_{AB} = \left[e_A - w_B\right] + \left[e_B - w_A\right]$$

    (2) <u>Originator Compatibility</u> (<u>oK</u>)

$$oK_{AB} = (e_A - w_A + e_B - w_B)$$

    (3) <u>Interchange Compatibility</u> (<u>xK</u>)

$$xK_{AB} = \left[(e_A + w_A) - (e_B + w_B)\right]$$

In the above formulae, the subscripts (A,B) refer to the
first and second persons in the dyad interaction and the
letters <u>e</u> and <u>w</u> to the expressed and wanted scores for a
given interpersonal need area. It should be noted that the
greater the compatibility of a dyad, the lower the score
will be. Thus, the "ideal" score for compatibility is
zero. At this level, these people are perfectly compatible.
As the score goes higher, the participants become increasingly

more incompatible.

Combining compatibility scores in each of the three interpersonal need areas was done in the following manner:

To compute <u>Inclusion Compatibility</u>, the following formula was used:

$$K^I = rK^I + oK^I + xK^I$$

To compute <u>Control Compatibility</u>, the following formula was used:

$$K^C = rK^C + oK^C + xK^C$$

To compute <u>Affection Compatibility</u>, the following formula was used:

$$K^A = rK^A + oK^A + xK^A$$

The final step in determining the compatibility of interpersonal needs was the computation of discrepancy scores for each of the six compatibility measures. The absolute value of the discrepancy between the student's score and the teacher's score represented the strength of the relationship. The lower the discrepancy, the higher the student-teacher compatibility. Six variables of compatibility were then defined on an interval scale, each variable with a zero starting point which represented a perfect fit between student and teacher interpersonal needs.

FIRO-B was the instrument selected to measure teacher-student compatibility, because in past research and doctoral dissertations, it has proven reliable and

valid. (Buros, 1970). Schutz, (1966) reported data sup-
porting the reliability of FIRO-B. These data are sum-
marized in Tables 1 and 2.

Schutz was able to demonstrate the concurrent valid-
ity of the FIRO-B scales by comparing the test scores with
job performance or status. He found the scales valid when
measured against political attitudes, occupational choice,
and conformity behavior (Schutz, 1966). However, Franks
(1963) discovered no significant relationship between
scores obtained on the FIRO-B and teacher morale. Smith
(1963) found that there was a relationship between FIRO-B
scores and perceived behavior. Schafer and Vargo (1976)
found in using the FIRO-B that student-teacher compatibility
was significantly and positively correlated to students'
Science related attitudes. Likewise, Hutcherson observed
Social Studies achievement to be positively correlated
with compatibility in the control area but negatively
correlated in the inclusion and affection domains (Schafer
and Vargo, 1976). Campbell (1976) found a positive re-
lationship between student-teacher compatibility and stu-
dent achievement.

Procedure for Determining Behavior Problems

Behavior in the classroom was defined from the
teacher's perspective. During the second semester, the
twelve randomly selected teachers were requested to prepare
a discipline rating scale on each student enrolled in their

Table 1

Reproducibility of FIRO-B Scales

Scale	Reproducibility	Number of Subjects
e^I	.94	1615
w^I	.94	1582
e^C	.93	1554
w^C	.94	1574
e^A	.94	1467
w^A	.94	1467
Means	.94	1543

Thus, as seen in Table 1, the reproducibility coefficient for the FIRO-B, determined from an average sample of 1543 subjects, is .94.

Table 2

Stability (Test-Retest) of FIRO-B Scales

Scale	Stability	Number of Subjects
e^I	.82	126
w^I	.75	126
e^C	.74	183
w^C	.71	125
e^A	.73	57
w^A	.80	57
Means	.76	674

first two periods. To measure student behavior, the
Teacher Rating Scale from the Behavior Rating Profile
was utilized. The checklist consists of thirty items
such as the following:

The student--

		Very Much Like the Student	Like the Student	Not Much Like the Student	Not at All Like the Student
1.	Is sent to the principal for discipline	▱	▱	▱	▱
2.	Disrupts the classroom	▱	▱	▱	▱

Teachers' responses were summed to obtain a raw score.
This summed score was the unit of analysis for this study.
Scores ranged from a high discipline problem of 0 to a
low discipline problem of 90.

The Teacher Rating Scale from the Behavior Rating
Profile (BRP) was selected for this study for various
reasons. First, school psychologists from the selected
county were experimenting with this instrument with the
intent of adopting it as a permanent tool. Second, in
reviewing various instruments, such as Peterson and
Quay's Behavior Problem Checklist, the BRP appeared to be
written more precisely and met the needs of this study.
The Behavior Problem Checklist was used as a model in setting
up the BRP. Finally, the designers of the BRP found the
Teachers' Rating Scale from the BRP to be significantly
valid and reliable. The internal consistency reliability

coefficient for sixth and seventh-grade teachers was a significant .98. The item validity for the same instrument was .83. To determine the concurrent validity, the Teachers' Rating Scale was correlated with the Quay-Peterson Checklist at .84 and also the Vine-Social Maturity Scale at .84.

Coefficients of the test-retest reliability range from a low of .71 to a high of .82 with an average coefficient of .76. All of these coefficients are considered statistically significant.

Procedures on Collection of Data

It was important that this study take place as late in the school year as possible so that teachers would know the typical behavior pattern of each student. In April of the school year, the researcher met individually with each participating teacher during his or her planning period. The intent was to review standard procedures for administering the FIRO-B and completing the Behavior Rating Profiles. In May, three weeks prior to final examinations, the teachers administered the FIRO-B's. To assure uniformity, the researcher personally observed each teacher administering the FIRO-B. The teachers were given one week to complete the Behavior Rating Profile on each student participating in the study. Once the data were collected, the teachers were coded alphabetically while the students were coded both alphabetically and numerically.

Data Analysis

In this section the independent and dependent variables and the proposed method of analysis are presented. The six independent variables in the proposed study were derived from Schutz's FIRO-B scale. These variables are the student-teacher discrepancy scores which were computed for inclusion compatibility (K^I), control compatibility (K^C), affection compatibility (K^A), reciprocal compatibility (rK), originator compatibility (oK), and interchange compatibility (xk). Because of recent criticism about the authenticity of the composite compatibility score (K), it was not used as a variable in this study (Malloy and Copeland, 1980). The dependent variable was the total score on the Behavior Rating Profile.

Method of Analysis

The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient (r) was used to analyze the relationship between compatibility and student behavior. Each of the six measures of compatibility served as an independent variable. The students' score on the Behavior Rating Profile made by the teachers served as the dependent variable for each of the six compatibility scores.

Chapter 4

FINDINGS

The three previous chapters have (1) defined the problem, (2) developed the hypotheses, (3) reviewed the literature, and (4) outlined the methodology for the study. Chapter four presents the findings, organized into the following three areas: (1) description of the sample, (2) a description of the statistical analysis used, and (3) the results of each of the six hypotheses.

Description of the Sample

A total of 12 teachers and 556 students participated in this study. Data from thirteen students were discarded for incomplete FIRO-B questionnaires or incomplete Behavior Rating Profiles, and these students were not included in the analysis. The student sample came from the first two morning classes from each of twelve teachers. The teachers were selected randomly from 100 sixth, seventh, and eighth-grade teachers. The background characteristics and the number of teachers having these traits are shown in Table 3.

All students selected for this study were enrolled in classes considered to be normal in achievement. Students in gifted, honors, remedial, or special education classes were excluded from the study. Of the total 556 students who participated, 224 were sixth-grade students, 159 were seventh-grade students and 173 were eighth-grade

Table 3

Background Information of Teacher Data

Background Information	Number of Teachers	
Sex	6 males	6 females
Race	12 white	0 non-whites
Teaching Experience	7 had five or more years	5 had less than five years
Highest Degree Attained	6 Bachelor's	6 Master's
Marital Status	7 single	5 married
Subject Taught[a]	7 major	5 minor

[a]Major subjects, which were required, were: English, Reading, Mathematics, Social Studies or Science. Minor subjects, which were elective, were: Music, Physical Education, Industrial Arts, Health or Home Economics.

students. A total of 284 were males and 272 were females. This roughly represented the same 50-50 sex ratio of the entire school population. The number of whites that participated was 505 and the number of non-whites was 51. These numbers also approximated the overall proportion of whites and non-whites in the school. A total of 24 classes participated in this study, eight from each of the three grade levels. Table 4 exhibits the grade levels the 24 classes included in sample, the period of the day the questionnaire was administered, the number of students in each class, as well as the percentage of males and non-whites in these classes.

Description of Statistical Analysis

Six hypotheses served as a frame of reference for the analysis and presentation of data. The hypotheses were tested as follows: To describe the validity of all six hypotheses, the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to determine the strength and direction of the correlation between the variables. A two-tailed test was used to identify any positive and negative associations although the research reviewed would predict a negative relationship between perceived student discipline scores and student-teacher compatibility scores. A five percent level of significance was selected.

After the Pearson correlation coefficients for FIRO-B compatibility scores and the Behavior Rating Profile scores were found, the researcher used analysis of variance (ANOVA) to look for demographic factors that might be related to the

Table 4

Information About the Classes Sampled

Teacher	Grade	Period of Day	Number of Students	% of Males	% of Non-Whites
1	8	1	24	54	8
1	8	3	23	61	9
2	6	2	26	38	12
2	6	3	27	41	7
3	6	1	36	56	6
3	6	2	37	46	11
4	8	1	15	40	15
4	8	2	14	93	0
5	7	1	22	55	0
5	7	2	13	38	15
6	7	1	20	35	15
6	7	2	18	50	17
7	8	1	14	36	7
7	8	2	28	61	4
8	7	1	23	65	9
8	7	2	29	41	0
9	6	1	27	48	15
9	6	2	29	47	15
10	7	1	14	71	21
10	7	2	20	60	5
11	6	1	28	43	4
11	6	2	24	58	17
12	8	2	25	44	8
12	8	3	30	56	10

dependent variable (perceived student discipline scores).
After reviewing the literature, six teacher variables
were included (see Table 3). The following three vari-
ables were found to be significantly related to disci-
pline: (1) grade level taught, (2) subject taught, and
(3) highest degree attained. The data tested through
ANOVA indicated that sixth-grade students differed signifi-
cantly from seventh and eighth-grade students, while the
seventh and eighth-grade students were very similar in
perceived student discipline scores. As a result, the
seventh and eighth-grade students were combined into one
group.

The next step was to find all the possible com-
binations of the three significant variables (grade level
taught, subject taught, and highest attained degree).
There were five groups in the sample. Table 5 lists the
five groups, the number of students, the average compat-
bility scores, and the average perceived student discipline
scores.

To summarize the complete statistical analysis,
two major steps were performed:

1. Using Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation, a
correlation score was derived between the dependent variable
of perceived student discipline scores and the six independent
compatibility variables.

2. Later, analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was

Table 5

Number of Students, Average Compatibility and

Perceived Student Discipline Scores of the Five Significant Groups

| Groups | | | | | | Mean Scores | | | |
Grade/Subject/Degree	N	Discipline	RK	OK	XK	K^I	K^C	K^A
6th/major/Bachelor's	105	79.0	14.9	5.2	12.3	7.2	4.8	10.6
6th/minor/Master's	73	68.9	19.7	3.2	19.4	19.4	9.3	11.3
6th/minor/Bachelor's	46	69.5	16.0	4.0	12.4	7.5	9.6	13.6
7th-8th/major/Master's	233	81.5	18.1	7.1	13.4	10.0	7.7	9.5
7th-8th/minor/Bachelor's	101	84.0	17.9	4.6	15.7	14.3	6.9	11.2

used to take out the mean effect for each of the five groups
and allowed for a different correlation between perceived
student discipline scores and the six compatibility scores
within each group. The ANCOVA was used to answer the
question whether all five correlations within each of the
five groups were equal to zero. If not, in which of the
groups was there a significant correlation? Each of the
six hypotheses stated in chapter one was statistically
analyzed individually.

Results of Each of the Six Hypotheses

The first hypothesis was stated as: There is a
correlation between perceived student discipline scores
and the composite measure of compatibility in the in-
clusion area.

The results indicated a correlation coefficient of
- .10 (p$<$.023). The hypothesis was accepted that there is
a significant correlation between perceived student disci-
pline scores and the composite measure of compatibility in
the inclusion area.

Analysis of covariance was used to test whether the
correlation between perceived student discipline scores
and the composite measure of compatibility in the in-
clusion area within each of the five groups is equal to
zero. This hypothesis was rejected (F $(5,546)$ = 4.78,
p$<$.0003). This meant that there was a significant re-
lationship between perceived student discipline scores

and compatibility in the inclusion area within at least
one group. In this case, there was a significant rela-
tionship between perceived student discipline scores and
compatibility in the inclusion area within three of the
groups. Table 6 shows these to be: 6th/major/bachelor's,
6th/minor/master's, and 7th-8th/major/master's. The largest
correlation, within the 6th/minor/master's group, was positive,
whereas, the other two correlations were negative.

The second hypothesis was stated as: There is a
correlation between perceived student discipline scores and
the composite measure of compatibility in the control area.
The results indicate a correlation coefficient of - .12
($p < .0035$). The hypothesis was accepted. There is a signifi-
cant correlation between perceived student discipline scores
and the composite measure of compatibility in the control
area.

An analysis of covariance was used to test whether the
correlation between perceived student discipline scores and
the composite measure of compatibility in the control area
within each of the five groups is equal to zero. This hypothe-
sis was rejected ($F (5,546) - 7.18$, $p < .0001$). This meant
that there was a significant relationship between perceived
student discipline scores and compatibility in the control
area within at least one of the groups. In this case there
was a significant relationship between perceived student
discipline scores and compatibility in the control area

Table 6

Correlation Coefficients (and P Values) Between Perceived Student

Discipline Scores and Compatibilities Within Each of the Five Groups

Compatibility Index	Grade: Subject: Degree:	Group				
		6th Major Bachelor's	6th Minor Master's	6th Minor Bachelor's	7th-8th Major Master's	7th-8th Minor Bachelor's
K^I		-.19* (.028)	.35* (.0002)	-.06 (.567)	-.16* (.042)	-.07 (.569)
K^C		-.18* (.045)	-.41* (.0001)	.34* (.0009)	-.059 (.445)	-.04 (.767)
K^A		-.06 (.508)	.32* (.0007)	-.22* (.031)	-.13 (.093)	-.004 (.970)
RK		-.21* (.021)	.28* (.003)	.098 (.344)	-.12 (.109)	.06 (.633)
OK		.03 (.756)	-.18 (.053)	-.17 (.110)	-.06 (.421)	-.04 (.735)
XK		-.24* (.007)	.29* (.002)	.17 (.094)	-.13 (.097)	-.01 (.958)

*p<.05

within three of the groups. A reading of Table 6 shows these
to be 6th/major/bachelor's, 6th/minor/master's, and 6th/
minor/bachelor's. Again, the correlation within the 6th/
minor/bachelor's was positive, whereas, the other two
correlations were negative.

The third hypothesis was stated as: There is a
correlation between perceived student discipline scores
and the composite measure of compatibility in the affection
area. The results indicated a correlation coefficient of
- .06 (p$<$.14). The hypothesis was rejected.

An analysis of covariance was used to test whether
the correlation between perceived student discipline scores
and the composite measure of compatibility in the affection
area within each of the five groups is equal to zero. This
hypothesis was rejected (F (5,546) = 3.93, p$<$.002). Within
two of the groups there was a significant relationship be-
tween perceived student discipline scores and compatibility
in the affection area. An analysis of Table 6 shows these
to be: 6th/minor/master's and 6th/minor/bachelor's. The
correlation within the 6th/minor/bachelor's group was
positive, whereas, the correlation in the 6th/minor/master's
group was negative.

The fourth hypothesis was stated: There is a
correlation between perceived student discipline scores
and the students' and teachers' reciprocal compatibility scores.
The results indicated a correlation coefficient of - .02 (p$<$.64).

The hypothesis was rejected.

An analysis of covariance was used to test whether the correlation between perceived student discipline scores and reciprocal compatibility scores within each of the five groups is equal to zero. This hypothesis was rejected (F (5.546) = 3.63, p$<$.003). This meant that there was a significant relationship between perceived student discipline scores and reciprocal compatibility within at least one of the groups. In this case, there were two groups. An analysis of Table 6 shows these to be: 6th/major/bachelor's and 6th/minor/master's. Once again, the correlation within the 6th/minor/master's group was positive. The correlation within the 6th/major/bachelor's group was negative.

The fifth hypothesis was stated: There is a correlation between perceived student discipline scores and the students' and teachers' originator compatibility scores. The results indicated a correlation coefficient of - .08 (p$<$.076). The hypothesis was rejected.

Again, analysis of covariance was used to test whether the correlation between perceived student discipline scores and originator compatibility scores within each of the five groups is equal to zero. This hypothesis was accepted (F (5,546) = 1.43, p$<$.2). This meant that there is no significant relationship between perceived student discipline scores and originator compatibility scores within any

of the five groups.

The sixth hypothesis was stated: There is a cor-
relation between perceived student discipline scores and
the students' and teachers' interchange compatibility scores.
The results indicated a correlation coefficient of - .073
(p<.09). The hypothesis was rejected.

An analysis of covariance was used to test whether
the correlation between perceived student discipline scores
and interchange compatibility scores within each of the five
groups is equal to zero. This hypothesis was accepted
(F (5,546) = 4.51, p<.0006). This meant that there was a
significant relationship between perceived student discipline
scores and interchange compatibility within at least one of
the groups. In this case, there were two groups. The data
on Table 6 indicates these to be: 6th/major/bachelor's and
6th/minor/master's. Once more, the correlation within the
6th/minor/master's group was positive. The correlation with-
in the 6th/major/bachelor's group was negative.

In this chapter, the sample was described, the analysis
was explained, and the results were given. Chapter five will
give a summary of the findings of the study and possible
future implications. The purpose of Chapter five is to summarize
the findings and to suggest possible future research impli-
cations.

Chapter 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between student-teacher compatibility scores and perceived student discipline scores. Few previous research efforts have investigated this relationship.

The six major hypotheses advanced were: There is a correlation between perceived student discipline scores and (1) the composite measure of compatibility in the inclusion area; (2) the composite measure of compatibility in the control area; (3) the composite measure of compatibility in the affection area; (4) the students' and teachers' reciprocal compatibility scores; (5) the students' and teachers' originator compatibility scores; and, (6) the students' and teachers' interchange compatibility scores. Other questions explored which might be considered sub-hypotheses were: What teacher demographic variables might have had an effect upon perceived student discipline scores? In addition, after combining the significant demographic variable into five groups, what effect did any of these groups have in the relationship between perceived student discipline scores and FIRO-B compatibility measures?

Research Methodology

A total of 12 randomly selected teachers and 556 students from the classes of these 12 teachers participated in this study. Using the Perason's Product-Moment

Correlation, a correlation coefficient was derived between
the dependent variable, defined as perceived student di-
cipline scores, and the six independent variables established
as compatibility scores. In the subsequent statistical
evaluation, analysis of variance was applied to determine
the relationship between perceived student discipline
scores and six teacher variables. Three of the six teacher
variables were found to be significantly related to per-
ceived student discipline scores. As an additional step
in the investigation, analysis of covariance was conducted
to determine the effects that the three teacher variables
had on the relationship between perceived student discipline
scores in each of the six compatibility scores. In this
process, five percent level of significance was assigned
for all six hypotheses. Instruments used were: (1) the
Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behavior
questionnaire (FIRO-B) to measure compatibility between
students and teachers and the Behavior Rating Profiles to
measure perceived student discipline.

Summary of Findings

As a result of statistical analysis for all the
groups of students combined, these two hypotheses were
accepted as significantly related:

1. There was a correlation between perceived
student discipline scores and the composite measure of
compatibility in the inclusion area.

2. There was a correlation between

perceived student discipline scores and the composite
measure of compatibility in the control area.
Beyond these, no significant relationships were found
to confirm the other four hypotheses.

A further exploration of the data revealed three
teacher demographic variables as being significantly re-
lated to perceived student discipline scores: (1) grade
taught, (2) subject taught, and (3) highest degree at-
tained. The data also indicated that the perceived disci-
pline scores of students in the sixth grade were much
lower than students in the seventh and eighth grade. The
scores of students in the seventh and eighth grades were
so similar that the two grades were combined for this
study.

In further analysis, the three teacher variables
were combined into five groups. Then an analysis of
covariance was used to find the effects of the five groups
on the relationship between perceived student discipline
scores and the six compatibility measures. The findings
show that:

1. Sixth-grade teachers with bachelors' degrees who
taught major subjects perceived those students with whom
they were compatible in the areas of inclusions as being
well behaved. This was also true for seventh and eighth-
grade teachers with masters' degrees who taught major sub-
jects. Conversely, sixth-grade teachers with masters'

degrees who taught minor subjects reported those students
with whom they were compatible in the area of inclusion
as demonstrating less acceptable behavior. This was an
unexpected result.

2. With the exception of one group sixth-grade
teachers perceived those students with whom they were
compatible in the control area as being well behaved.
Unexpectedly, sixth-grade teachers with masters' degrees
who taught minor subjects reported those students with whom
they were compatible in the control area as demonstrating
less acceptable behavior.

3. Sixth-grade teachers with bachelors' degrees
who taught minor subjects perceived those students with
whom they were compatible in the affection area as being
well behaved. This was also true for seventh and eighth-
grade teachers with masters' degrees who taught minor sub-
jects. However, seventh and eighth-grade teachers with
masters' degrees who taught major subjects perceived those
students with whom they were compatible in the area of
affection as demonstrating less acceptable behavior.
Once again, this result was unexpected.

4. Sixth-grade teachers with bachelors' degrees
who taught major subjects perceived those students with
whom they were reciprocably compatible as being well be-
haved. Sixth-grade teachers with masters' degrees who
taught minor subjects, however, reported those students
with whom they were reciprocably compatible, as

demonstrating less acceptable behavior. This result was completely unexpected.

5. 5. Sixth-grade teachers with bachelors' degrees who taught major subjects perceived those students with whom they were interchangeable compatible as being well behaved. However, sixth-grade teachers with masters' degrees who taught minor subjects perceived those students with whom they were interchangeable compatible as demonstrating less acceptable behavior. This last result was unexpected.

Conclusions

As a result of the findings, it can be stated that students are perceived as being better behaved in classrooms where teachers with a high need to control were matched with students who display a high need to be controlled. The data collected for this study showed that teachers had a high mean score for expressing a desire to control, whereas, students had a high mean score for wanting to be controlled. This result confirms previous studies (Schafer and Vargo, 1976, and Schutz, 1966) in that compatibility in the control area is significantly related to many student outcome variables such as achievement, attitude and, now, discipline. Furthermore, (Schutz, 1966) stated in his developmental theory that in strictly limited relationships control compatibility is expected to be predominant. The degree of compatibility between students and teachers is subject to

limitations because daily contact period is only 50 minutes. In addition, given the fact that the study was conducted towards the end of the school year, relevancy of the findings is constrained to a short time span. Students and teachers may not assume the same roles and expectations in the next school year.

Another finding showed that students were perceived as being better behaved in the classroom where teachers with a higher need for inclusion were matched with students who desired the same need for inclusion. The data gathered for this study showed that teachers had a high mean score for expressing inclusion, whereas, students had a high mean score for wanting inclusion.

Successful interactions can be expected when the student and teacher are meeting their respective interpersonal needs--the teacher attempts to provide the amount and type of interaction the student desires, and the student works toward providing the amount and type of interactions the teacher expects. This type of interaction is considered behavior in the inclusion area. When behavior in the inclusion area is occurring, compatibility in the inclusion area becomes important. This study confirmed the belief that when the interactions between the teachers and students are successful (inclusion behavior), the students will be perceived as being better behaved.

Frequently, external or environmental factors such as size of group, leadership style of administration,

or time pressure have an effect on interpersonal behavior.
In this study three teacher variables increased the pre-
dictability between perceived student discipline scores
and the six compatibility scores. These variables were
grade taught, subject taught, and the highest degree at-
tained. In a further analysis, the study identified a
number of variables that had a significant impact on the
behavior of sixth-grade students. For instance, there was
a negative relationship between perceived student disci-
pline scores and four of the six compatibility scores for
teachers who taught sixth grade, taught a major subject,
and had a bachelor's degree only. This type of relation-
ship was expected from the literature reviewed earlier in
this study. However, unexpectedly, there was a signifi-
cant positive relationship between perceived student disci-
pline scores and four of the six compatibility scores for
teachers who taught sixth grade, minor subject and had a
master's degree.

One explanation might be the growth and developmental
level of the sixth-grade students. At this age, it is normal
to be more active and less mature than one or two years later.
The low perceived student discipline scores appear to support
this argument.

Another explanation for this positive relationship,
is that this was the first year for sixth-grade students to
attend a middle school. This was the first year that any

of the sixth-grade teachers in this sample taught in a middle
school. Previously all the sixth-grade teachers were part of
elementary-school staffs. Prior to this year, these sixth-
grade students and teachers had been accustomed to the highly
structured, self-contained classroom environment of small
elementary schools. The middle-school sixth-grade students
changed classes seven times a day, had a higher degree of
social and academic learning experience, and were also exposed
to the environmental factors of a larger physical plant.
Sixth-grade teachers were not used to their students leaving
at the sound of the bell. Furthermore, noise level in the
hallways and the cafeteria, as well as other "static" factors
in the secondary-school environment were experienced as an
unaccustomed novelty. The resulting frustration and change
provide a partial explanation why sixth-grade teachers viewed
their students as having a somewhat less disciplined level of
behavior compared to that reported by teachers of the seventh
and eighth grade.

Implications

Because only two of the six major hypotheses were
found to be statistically significant, it would be misleading
to assume that all student-teacher compatibility scores can
be used to predict perceived student discipline scores.
The major findings of this study, however, corroborate that
compatibility in the inclusion and control areas, as
measured by the FIRO-B questionnaire, can be used to predict

perceived student discipline scores in the middle schools.
Furthermore, with sixth-grade students and teachers, almost
all compatibility scores are predictors of perceived student
discipline scores. These findings provide some enthusiasm
for using the FIRO-B questionnaire to obtain maximum behavior
patterns between students and teachers, especially with stu-
dents and teachers in the sixth grade.

The implications of these findings on administrative
efforts in the middle school are evident. To increase the
compatibility of students and teachers, administrators can
apply the FIRO-B as a selective tool to achieve a better
student-teacher match and attain improved interpersonal re-
lations in the classroom. This applies to current teaching
personnel as well as future staffing considerations. Aside
from the problem of using any kind of test during the selection
process, it must be assumed that FIRO-B is a valid predictor
of harmonious interaction between students and teachers.

Recommendations for Further Research

Several areas might be suggested for further in-
vestigation based upon the findings of this study. One
area of investigation will be to determine the degree of
difference in compatibility scores if FIRO-BC is used in-
stead of FIRO-B. Scope and limitations of the current
study did not allow the application of both instruments,
and a comparison is therefore not possible.

The data for this analysis were gathered from a

population of middle-school students from a suburban, upper-middle class environment. Students other than Caucasians and those receiving federal assistance were represented in only marginal numbers. It remains undetermined whether the same study conducted in an inner city or a private school would produce the same results.

The most significant findings were identified at the sixth grade, the lowest grade level in the middle-school system. One is tempted to divert the attention of analysis back to the self-contained environment of the elementary school. Will relationships between perceived student discipline scores and compatibility scores be even stronger in an elementary-school environment? Furthermore, the implications of a racially mixed environment also need to be investigated.

This study establishes three demographic variables of teachers as being significantly related to perceived student discipline scores. It remains unanswered to what extent the size of class or the arrangement of the classroom influence the degree of compatibility. Yet there are other demographic variables that require consideration in a further in-depth analysis. It appears possible that teacher's race, family status (children vs. no children) could affect perceived student discipline scores. At this point stipulations for further research in this area are appropriate.

With regard to the significant difference of perceived
difference of perceived student discipline in the sixth grade
as opposed to the seventh and eighth grades the research re-
mains incomplete. Additional study with combinations of:

6th/major/master's,

7th-8th/minor/master's, and

7th-8th/major/bachelor's

would have to be conducted to actually confirm that the educa-
tional background of the teacher and the subject area taught .
impact the respective grade level.

Additional studies could then expand this entire area
of research to other factors that possibly influence per-
ceived student discipline. Some of these factors are location
of school, denomination of teacher, teacher's family status
(children/no children), racially mixed schools, and private
or publically funded schools. To this day, the level of per-
ceived discipline as affected by any of these variables re-
mains undetermined.

Of further interest to researchers would be the at-
tempt to answer the question of compatibility related to disci-
pline as it fluctuates during the vertical progression of
pupils through the school grade system. This aspect would
require periodic measurements of perceived student discipline
scores over a number of years, ideally from the first to the
last grade. Ultimately this type of analysis would result in
a longitudinal study that goes beyond the scope of the present
analysis.

Previous research has produced general acceptance that different interpersonal needs dominate at various stages in the life cycle of a relationship (Schutz, 1966). In this context one is also tempted to ask questions regarding the short term: What would be the effect on compatibility scores if they were measured at the beginning and/or in the middle of the school term instead of at the end? Also, do FIRO-B scores change over the course of a school year? If so, what effect does this change have on perceived student discipline scores?

The present findings revealed some correlations between perceived student discipline scores and certain compatibility components. This last section of the study has outlined several courses of action for future researchers.

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APPENDIXES

Fundamental Interpersonal Relations
Orientation-Behavior

For each statement below, decide which of the following answers best applies to you. Place the number of the answer in the box at the left of the statement. Please be as honest as you can.

1. never   2. rarely   3. occasionally   4. sometimes   5. often   6. usually

☐ 1. I try to be with people.

☐ 2. I let other people decide what to do.

☐ 3. I join social groups.

☐ 4. I try to have close relationships with people.

☐ 5. I tend to join social organizations when I have an opportunity.

☐ 6. I let other people strongly influence my actions.

☐ 7. I try to be included in informal social activities.

☐ 8. I try to have close, personal relationships with people.

☐ 9. I try to include other people in my plans.

☐ 10. I let other people control my actions.

☐ 11. I try to have people around me.

☐ 12. I try to get close and personal with people.

☐ 13. When people are doing things together I tend to join them.

☐ 14. I am easily led by people.

☐ 15. I try to avoid being alone.

☐ 16. I try to participate in group activities.

For each of the next group of statements, choose one of the following answers:

1. nobody   2. one or two people   3. a few people   4. some people   5. many people   6. most people

☐ 17. I try to be friendly to people.

☐ 18. I let other people decide what to do.

☐ 19. My personal relations with people are cool and distant.

☐ 20. I let other people take charge of things.

☐ 21. I try to have close relationships with people.

☐ 22. I let other people strongly influence my actions.

☐ 23. I try to get close and personal with people.

☐ 24. I let other people control my actions.

☐ 25. I act cool and distant with people.

☐ 26. I am easily led by people.

☐ 27. I try to have close, personal relationships with people.

For each of the next group of statements, choose one of the following answers:

1. nobody   2. one or two   3. a few   4. some   5. many   6. most
             people   people   people   people   people

28. I like people to invite me to things.

29. I like people to act close and personal with me.

30. I try to influence strongly other people's actions.

31. I like people to invite me to join in their activities.

32. I like people to act close toward me.

33. I try to take charge of things when I am with people.

34. I like people to include me in their activities.

35. I like people to act cool and distant toward me.

36. I try to have other people do things the way I want them done.

37. I like people to ask me to participate in their discussions.

38. I like people to act friendly toward me.

39. I like people to invite me to participate in their activities.

40. I like people to act distant toward me.

For each of the next group of statements, choose one of the following answers:

1. never   2. rarely   3. occasionally   4. sometimes   5. often   6. usually

41. I try to be the dominant person when I am with people.

42. I like people to invite me to things.

43. I like people to act close toward me.

44. I try to have other people do things I want done.

45. I like people to invite me to join their activities.

46. I like people to act cool and distant toward me.

47. I try to influence strongly other people's actions.

48. I like people to include me in their activities.

49. I like people to act close and personal with me.

50. I try to take charge of things when I'm with people.

51. I like people to invite me to participate in their activities.

52. I like people to act distant toward me.

53. I try to have other people do things the way I want them done.

54. I take charge of things when I'm with people.

Behavior Rating Profile

The student	Very Much Like the Student	Like the Student	Not Much Like the Student	Not At All Like the Student
1. Is sent to the principal for discipline	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Is verbally aggressive to teachers or peers .	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Is disrespectful of others' property rights . .	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Tattles on classmates	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Is lazy	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Lacks motivation and interest	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Disrupts the classroom	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Argues with teachers and classmates	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Doesn't follow directions	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. Steals	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. Has poor personal hygiene habits	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. Is kept in from recess	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. Says that other children don't like him/her .	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. Can't seem to concentrate in class	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. Pouts, whines, snivels	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. Is overactive and restless	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. Is an academic underachiever	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. Bullies other children	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. Is self-centered	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. Does not do homework assignments	☐	☐	☐	☐
21. Is kept after school	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. Is avoided by other students in the class . . .	☐	☐	☐	☐
23. Daydreams	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. Has unacceptable personal habits	☐	☐	☐	☐
25. Swears in class	☐	☐	☐	☐
26. Has nervous habits	☐	☐	☐	☐
27. Has no friends among classmates	☐	☐	☐	☐
28. Cheats	☐	☐	☐	☐
29. Lies to avoid punishment or responsibility . .	☐	☐	☐	☐
30. Doesn't follow class rules	☐	☐	☐	☐

Sum of Marks in Each Column = _____ _____ _____ _____

Multiply Sum by   X 0   X 1   X 2   X 3

Add Products   0 + _____ + _____ + _____ = _____

Total Points Scored

VITA

Terrence J. O'Toole

Born in Butler, Pennsylvania, July 30, 1946.
Attended the College of William and Mary, 1964-1968.
Awarded Bachelor of Arts Degree, 1968. Attended Virginia
Commonwealth University, 1968-1972. Awarded Master of
Education Degree, 1972; College of William and Mary,
Certificate of Advanced Study, 1979. Attained status
of Candidate for Doctor of Education Degree, 1981.

Teacher and coach, New Kent High School, New
Kent, Virginia, 1968-1969. Teacher and coach, Pembroke
High School, Hampton, Virginia 1969-1970. Teacher and
coach, Maggie Walker High School, Richmond, Virginia,
1970-1971. Teacher and coach, Thomas Jefferson High
School, Richmond, Virginia, 1971-1972. Teacher and coach,
Hermitage High School, Henrico County, Virginia, 1972-
1973. Guidance counselor, Thomas Henderson Middle School,
Richmond, Virginia, 1973-1978. Assistant Principal, Dozier
Intermediate School, Newport News, Virginia, 1978-1979.
Assistant Principal, Swift Creek Middle School, Chesterfield
County, Virginia, 1979-1981. Testing Specialist, Virginia
Electric and Power Company (VEPCO), 1981-present.

ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP OF STUDENT-TEACHER
COMPATIBILITY TO PERCEIVED STUDENT DISCIPLINE

O'TOOLE, TERRENCE J., ED.D.
THE COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY IN VIRGINIA, 1982
CHAIRMAN: ROBERT MAIDMENT, ED.D.

This study explored the relationship between student-teacher compatibility and perceived student discipline scores. The six measures of compatibility included in FIRO-B were tested to determine their relationship to perceived student discipline.

The study was conducted with a total sample of 12 sixth, seventh, and eighth-grade teachers and 550 students. Both groups completed Schutz's Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behavior (FIRO-B), questionnaire. The six composite measures of compatibility were determined from the FIRO-B.

In addition the 12 teachers completed Brown and Hammill's Behavior Rating Profile. This instrument measured perceived student discipline. The relationship between compatibility scores and perceived student discipline scores was determined by using the statistical technique of Pearson Product-Moment Correlation and analysis of co-variance.

As a result, it was determined that teachers with a high need to control and students with a high need to be controlled worked well together and the students exhibited good behavior. The analysis also demonstrated that good behavior resulted where teachers with a higher need for inclusion are matched with students who desired the same need.
The study also revealed that there was a significant correlation between the perceived student discipline scores and compatibility in the inclusion area and between the perceived student discipline scores and compatibility in the control area. Three teacher variables were significantly related to perceived student discipline scores--grade taught, subject taught, and highest degree attained. The results of covariance indicated that five compatibility indexes were significantly related--positively or negatively-- to perceived student discipline scores with sixth-grade students.