In this study, assessment of the formal organizational structure was limited to a determination of authority and responsibility in personnel, supervision, curriculum, policymaking, and community relations. The study data were gathered from the results of the (1) Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire, (2) Professional Self-Enhancement Scale, (3) Assessment of Organizational Structure Grid, and (4) Principal's Perception of the Organizational Structure. The document first outlines the problem and the information-gathering procedures used, then analyzes and interprets the study findings. The appendixes reproduce some of the statistical data generated by the study, the questionnaires used in the study, and present a theoretical statement on self-enhancement as a human psychosocial drive central to the attainment of organizational goals. Also included are select bibliographies citing publications on the theory of self-enhancement, the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire, and organizational structure and theory. (Author/DM)
A STUDY OF RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN FORMAL ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE IN SELECTED URBAN AND SUBURBAN SCHOOLS

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INTRODUCTION

Observations of urban and suburban public schools during the past ten years by the investigators indicate four conditions or trends in most school systems. First, in all school systems there was evidence of tremendous growth in enrollment, budget, services, and complexity of organization. Second, as school systems grew larger, they tended to become more bureaucratic in their formal organizational structure. Third, as the school systems became more bureaucratic in structure, cooperative relationships between and among members of the organization diminished. Fourth, as school systems increased in size, and became more structured along bureaucratic lines, their ability to react effectively to current problems was reduced.

From close observation of many problem situations in schools, it appeared in most cases that the large school system reacted to educational needs and problems only under stress or when a crisis situation developed. It also seemed evident that in the complex school system many students, teachers, and parents were so placed in the organizational plan that they became increasingly impersonal in their interaction and non-participative in the problem-solving enterprises.

Urban schools for many years have operated under a continually developing bureaucracy. With the consolidation of suburban school districts, they, too, have developed models similar to the large city school bureaucracy. Large bureaucratic organizations develop and maintain themselves for many assumed reasons: a few of these reasons are:

1) efficiency in the use of resources, i.e., personnel, materials, and facility;
2) lower costs through advantages in buying and utilization;
3) standardization of educational goals to meet the problems presented by high pupil and teacher mobility;
4) efficient use of specialized personnel;
5) depersonalizing contacts with persons and groups outside of the organization in an attempt to prevent political influence;
6) ability to establish programs to meet the needs of children with special problems.

Wherever the investigators had opportunity for close empirical observation, it appeared that each of the school systems subscribed closely to descriptive criteria of a public bureaucracy. The investigators' contacts with local schools within large school systems, however, indicated that some of the local schools were much more responsive to educational needs and problems than other schools in the same school system. For example: local School “A” seemed to permit more participation of its students, teachers, and community in certain areas of decision-making than School “B.” There seemed to be differences in both organizational structure and organizational climate as one compared School “A” with School “B,” even though both schools were subordinate to the same bureaucratic organizational structure at the school system level.
The curiosity of the investigators was thus aroused and we determined to learn more about the formal organizational structure of urban and suburban school systems and their sub-systems, the local schools. We were particularly interested in determining formal organizational structure and organizational climate and in assessing the relationship between organizational structure and climate.
Section I
Problem and Information
Gathering Procedures

PROBLEM STATEMENT

As early as 1938, Chester Barnard provided an entirely new theoretical base for the understanding of effective and efficient administration. His contribution to the understanding of the existence and importance of informal organizations, of the need for a cooperative relationship among all members of the organization, and of the significant role of active participation in securing this relationship have been studied extensively over the past three decades in many settings and in many organizations. Effective operation refers to an organization's ability to direct all resources at its command toward the accomplishment of organizational goals. Effectiveness is accomplished when all segments of the organization are in cooperative relationships that are goal-directed. Effectiveness implies that cooperative relationships must include all members of the organization, i.e., administrators, supervisors, teachers, students, auxiliary personnel, and community members. Efficiency, on the other hand, is an organization's ability to bring about conditions in which the energy of cooperating individuals can be utilized, by securing material resources, dividing work, scheduling the utilization of resources, etc. From observation of the 40 schools in the study, it seemed reasonable to assume that the formal organizational structure of the school system and local schools within the system would provide information that would show the intentions of the organization in both efficiency and effectiveness. We began from the premise that if the formal organizational structure of the school was open, so that various members of the organization could participate in some phase of decision-making, greater involvement and cooperation would be present. And following this theoretical construct, the
participation of many members of the organization would result in greater commitment of time and energy toward reaching organizational goals.

Problem As the investigators formulated the problem, it became many-faceted; however, the primary interest of the study was to identify, describe, and compare the formal organizational structures of the 17 school systems and the 40 local schools in the study. At the local school level the purpose was to assess and describe organizational climate as well as structure and to determine whether or not significant relationships between climate and structure were present.

Limitations of the Study In this study, assessment of the formal organizational structure was limited to a determination of authority and responsibility in only five administrative areas: (1) personnel; (2) supervision; (3) curriculum; (4) policy making; and (5) community relations.

The study was further limited in that only codified (written or printed) materials setting policy and procedure relating to authority-responsibility were used in determining formal organizational structure. In this study, verbal pronouncements, verbal directives, and physical behavior were not included in the assessment of formal organizational structure.

In regard to organizational climate, only the perceptions of teachers were utilized in the study. Because of limitations of time and proper instrumentation, the perceptions of administrators, students, and community members or parents regarding climate were not included.

Questions The following questions served as focal points for consideration in the analysis and interpretation of data:

1) Can the urban and suburban school districts in the study be classified as public bureaucracies?

2) If the formal organizational structure at the school-district level is closed, will the local school within that district also be closed in structure?

3) Does the principal's perception of organizational structure conform with structure as assessed on the Formal Organizational Grid?

4) Will OCDQ (Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire) data gathered from elementary, junior high, and high schools in the urban-suburban areas, when submitted to factor analysis, produce the same factors as those obtained in the original Halpin and Croft study?

5) Is there a significant relationship between the positive factors of the OCDQ and the PSES (Professional Self-Enhancement Scale)?

6) Will there be significant differences from one level of the school (elementary, junior high school or high school) to another in either organizational structure or organizational climate?

7) Is there a significant relationship between formal organizational structure and organizational climate at the local school level?
INFORMATION-GATHERING PROCEDURE

Sample: The data upon which this study is based was collected in 40 public schools located in the metropolitan area in New York City during the spring of 1968. The sample consisted of nine high schools, 14 junior high schools, and 17 elementary schools.

Sixteen of the schools studied were in New York City, and 24 were in the adjacent area of Long Island. The difference in numbers of students in each of the schools studied reflects a considerable variance in size.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of School</th>
<th>Number of Schools</th>
<th>Student Population in the Study</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>301 - 1100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior High School</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>769 - 1886</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>844 - 4505</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All schools in the study were public schools. The larger schools, in general, were in the New York City school system.

Instruments: The data used in this study were secured through administering in the 40 schools:

1) the “Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire” (OCDQ)
2) the “Professional Self-Enhancement Scale” (PSES)
3) the Assessment of “Organizational Structure Grid” (OSG) at the local and District School level
4) the “Principal’s Perception of the Organizational Structure” (PPOS)

The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ)\(^1\) was designed to elicit from teachers their perception of the social/working atmosphere of the school. Through the processes of factor analysis, each school was described in terms of organizational climate as ranging from open to closed in human interaction and cooperation. Open schools tend to have confident, self-assured, cheerful, sociable, and resourceful teachers and principals, while closed schools are characterized by discontent, frustration, fear, and uncooperative relationships.

The Professional Self-Enhancement Scale (PSES)\(^2\) was developed for use in this study to determine how the teacher perceived his professional knowledge as being recognized and used in administrative and supervisory decision-making. This scale attempts to focus directly on working climate.

\(^1\) Halpin, Andrew W., and Don B. Croft. The Organizational Climate of Schools. Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago Press, 1963. pp. 130.

\(^2\) The Theoretical Rationale for the Scale and the Statistical Procedures used in the development of the scale are available upon request. John L. Ames or Judith Brook, Queens College, City University of New York, Flushing, N.Y. 11367.
The Assessment of Organizational Structure Grid (OSG) is an instrument developed for use in recording designations of authority/responsibility as prescribed in the formal organizational structure of the central administration (1) at the district level and (2) at the local school level, and in recording the perceptions of principals as they interpreted the formal organizational structure operating in their schools (PPOS).

The grid includes 19 focal points that the investigators used in previous research and thought to be critical in the processes of organizing the educational enterprise. These categories were used in designating, on the Organizational Structure Grid, authority and responsibility which ranged from dominance at the central administrative level to wider participation on the part of other members of the organizations, i.e., local school administrators, teachers, students, parents, and community leaders.

Data Collecting Procedures Each of 40 graduate students in the Queens College Program for the Preparation of School Administrators was asked to write to his principal and his fellow teachers asking them to participate in the study. Of the 42 principals originally contacted, 40 consented to participate. After a training period, these graduate students served as research assistants in the data-gathering process. A total of 1,136 teachers from the 40 schools responded to the OCDQ and the PSES.

The Halpin Organizational Climate questionnaire was utilized with teachers in order to determine the organizational climate of local schools in each district in the study. The Professional Self-Enhancement Scale was completed by teachers in each of the local schools to secure an appraisal of the teacher's perception of his professional worth and use. The PSES was used in conjunction with the OCDQ to describe organizational climate. The teachers were instructed not to put their names on the OCDQ and PSES booklets. The administration of both questionnaires was standardized as fully as possible with printed directions to the teachers. Teachers were assured that their anonymity would be preserved.

The Organizational Structure Grid (OSG) was used to provide three sets of data regarding the formal organizational structure in selected areas of authority and responsibility. The assessment of items locating authority/responsibility, on the OSG, was made exclusively from examination of all written policy- and procedure-setting documents. These included organizational charts, bylaws, handbooks, written directives and job descriptions, etc. From this assessment the OSG was completed (1) at the school system level and (2) at the local school level. The third set of data was obtained through completing the OSG after an interview with the principal which covered all items contained in the OSG. The purpose of the interview was to ascertain the principal's perception of how the organization really was operating in terms of authority/responsibility in the areas indicated on the grid. The interview was taped; then the OSG was completed upon replay of the tape.

The data used in the study of 1,136 teacher-responses to the OCDQ and
PSES plus a completed OSG for each of the 17 school districts, for each of the 40 local schools, and for each of the 40 principals of the local schools.

**REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH**

Organizations have been studied extensively and intensively over the past four decades. The focus of the studies has changed from a simple overview of organizational structure to an attempt to probe the character of the complex phenomena inherent within the structure itself. Many of the studies have endeavored to bring about understanding of organizational behavior and the forces that serve as predictors of this behavior. The studies have fallen roughly into one of the following areas: (1) character traits of leaders; (2) group factors; (3) role expectation; and (4) organizational models.

Barnard’s theoretical contributions to the understanding of the existence and importance of informal organizations, of the need for a cooperative relationship among all members of the organization, and of the significant role of active participation in securing this relationship have been studied extensively over the past three decades in many settings and in many organizations. Efficiency as defined by Barnard and subsequent investigators is reflected in the organization’s structure. This structure designates responsibility, authority, role assignment, a hierarchical arrangement of positions, and the use of resources. It also takes into account specialization in various areas which are reflected in sub-systems within the organization. Effectiveness, on the other hand, according to Barnard’s theory, seems to be the ability of the organization to obtain maximum energy from all its members toward the achievement of its goals. For this to take place there must exist a cooperative relationship between and among all members of the organization, with acceptance of objectives, procedures, and behavioral outcomes, in order that the energy of all members will be directed toward organizational goal achievement. Indication of this relationship is mirrored in the climate of the organization.

Cuba and Getzels further refined these concepts in a social systems model which allows an organization to be examined in two classes of phenomena which are simultaneously independent conceptually, as well as phenomenally interactive. Thus Barnard’s effectiveness concept is a statement of phenomena more fully described by the Getzels-Guba nomothetic dimension with focus on the elements of “institutional,” “role,” and “expectations”—while Barnard’s concept of efficiency appears to relate to the Getzels-Guba idiographic dimension which brings the elements of the “individual,” “personality,” and “needs-dispositions” into focus as both of these classes of phenomena relate to goal-behavior pursuit.

From a brief review of theories and research of organizations and leadership in organizations, convergence of viewpoint is not too pronounced. However, Barnard’s original distinction of task-oriented and interpersonal-oriented (efficiency-effectiveness) criteria for administrative success has
withstood rather well the test of many investigators. The interactional approach to the study of organizational behavior, involving not only the leader but his followers, seems to be most fruitful as supported by Argyris (1964), Blau (1966), Linker (1961), Guest (1962), Gouldner (1954), Simon (1960), Etzioni (1961), and others. The weight of opinions and findings from research supports openness in organizational structure and climate if the organization is to perform both efficiently and effectively.

In the present investigation, data that indicated openness in structure and climate was interpreted as positive while data indicating closedness was considered as negative.

Formal Organization as a Bureaucracy The investigators were especially interested in finding analytical studies of urban and suburban public schools as bureaucracies and the relationship of this organizational structure to organizational climate. The material in this area was very meager. MacKay (1964) and Punch (1967) have made dimensional studies in bureaucracy. These studies used the six operational dimensions of bureaucracy described by Hall (1961). These dimensions were (1) hierarchy of authority, (2) division of labor, (3) behavioral rules, (4) procedural rules, (5) impersonality, and (6) emphasis on competence. Their findings indicated that the bureaucratic model was dysfunctional in terms of pupil productivity. MacKay found that Hall’s sixth dimension was unrelated to the other five dimensions. The findings indicated that in a bureaucracy an emphasis on competence is virtually impossible.

In the MacKay study, teachers expressed the view that in a “good school” high ratings should be achieved in all six dimensions. Robinson, assessing the same six dimensions with teachers and principals, found that dimensions 1, 3, 4, and 5 were positively and significantly related, as were 2 and 6. Teachers and principals were found to disagree on the optimum level of bureaucracy. Teachers wanted more division of labor, more behavioral and procedural rules, and more impersonality than did the principals.

Punch (1927) factor-analyzed the six bureaucratic dimensions and concluded that 1, 3, 4, and 5 not only were related but measured only one basic bureaucratic factor. Dimensions 2 and 6 were also found to relate. The schools in the Punch study were operating under a bureaucratic structure, and this structure seemed to be endorsed by the teachers.

Organizational Climate Since Halpin and Croft (1966) published their study using the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire, there have been many studies based on the use of data from the OCDQ. An analogy often used in the literature is that climate is to an organization as personality is to an individual. If one accepts this analogy, then the data is weakened if it is restricted to only the social interaction between teachers and principals when so many human forces are involved in the educational enterprise. Climate, as pointed out by Feldvebel (1964), Gentry and Kenney (1965), Nicholas,
Vivje. and Wattenberg (1965) is sensitive to cultural and socioeconomic conditions and impairments. An analytical study of the climate of the school would require an assessment and interpretation of all the forces that make and affect inputs and outputs in the school.

A careful analysis of organizational climate could not afford to ignore any of these forces. Wilson (1966) found that, like personality, climate is relatively stable over a considerable period of time.

Probably due both to lack of tools to assess the climate of schools and to the notion that the teachers and principal were the greatest contributing factors to organizational climate, the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire has been used extensively since 1966. The OCDQ is a 64-item descriptive questionnaire which measures staff perception of teacher behavior on four subtests: Disengagement, Hindrance, Esprit, and Intimacy; and administrative behavior on four subtests: Aloofness, Production emphasis, Thurst, and Consideration. Through a factor-analysis procedure, Halpin transposed the eight subtests into six profiles and labeled them on an open-to-closed continuum as Open, Autonomous, Controlled, Familiar, Paternal, and Closed. While this postulated the profiles as criteria of school effectiveness, additional research was called for which would validate the OCDQ. Numerous studies followed this pioneer effort. Andrews (1965) found the description of school climates in both elementary and secondary schools in Alberta, Canada quite similar to Halpin’s original study. which dealt with elementary schools. Brown (1967) concluded that description questionnaires have a role in research and proposed that leadership be regarded as an interaction between leader and staff.

Halpin (1966) revealed that unpublished OCDQ studies demonstrated a tendency for inner-city schools to exhibit closed climates disproportionately Carver and Sergiovanni (1969). on the basis of a review of Watkins’ study of nine secondary schools and their own study of 36 high schools in Illinois, stated that their study does not validly measure climate in large secondary schools. They conclude, “it seemed obvious that there was major interaction between size and climate, but the difference was so great that initially we searched for some other explanation.” As the present researchers read the reports there does not appear to have been any effort to refactor their data. Therefore one could conclude that their conclusion about size may have been the most significant observation that they had to offer.

Watkins (1966) utilized in his study Fiedler’s psychological distance concept and the OCDQ. He administered the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) and the Assumed Similarity of Opposites Scales (ASO) to 48 principals and 1.188 professional staff members from 31 white and 17 black schools. The principals responded to both instruments, while the staff completed only the OCDQ. The findings revealed that there was a negative relationship between the ASO concept (psychological distance) of the school principals and the openness of the organizational climate of the schools as indicated by teachers’ perception measured by the OCDQ. It was
also found that black staffs perceive their schools to be more closed in their organizational climate; and principals perceived the climate to be more open than did the teachers.

Kenny and Rentz (1970) conducted a study of similar populations in metropolitan areas in five parts of the country. They concluded that the factor structure of the OCDQ in their urban-school sample was different from the factor structure identified by the originators of the instrument. They concluded from an analysis of their data that different kinds of influences have come to affect the urban teachers' perceptions of their schools. The four factors in their study were as follows: Factor 1, Principal as Authority Figure; Factor 2, Teacher qua Teacher Group Perception; Factor 3, More Classroom Teacher Satisfaction; and Factor 4, Work Conditions. The tone of the items appears to indicate that the principal in the urban school is perceived as an authority figure, that teachers view the teacher group in a somewhat negative manner, and that teachers derive their satisfaction from “non-classroom” activities and view their “work conditions” in a rather negative way. The results are not encouraging, for teachers seem to display a negative viewpoint, and 73 percent of the 102 schools in the survey were in the “closed” category. Gentry and Kenney in later studies have found that the OCDQ does in fact discriminate between white and black schools as postulated by Watkins in his study.
Section II
Analysis, Interpretations, and Findings

FORMAL ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

The formal structure of an organization is the blueprint or design that pinpoints the manner in which the organization uses resources to attain its goals. The formal organizational structure designates authority and responsibility to persons, assigns or withholds power, classifies and describes work assignments, and sets up a system of incentives to motivate the members of the organization.

The investigators felt that a general picture of the formal organizational structure of the school systems in the study could be ascertained if all written documents related to organizational policy and procedure in each school district and each local school in the study were gathered and classified according to where authority and responsibility were allocated. These documents included: 1) organization chart, 2) bylaws, 3) job descriptions, 4) contractual agreements, 5) written directives related to current policies and procedures, 6) standing committees, 7) ad hoc committees, 8) directives, 9) memoranda, and 10) others. A formal Organizational Structure Grid (OSG) was devised to focus on where the organization had assigned authority and responsibility in selected areas directly related to the education of children and the working climate of teachers. Upon examination of all written documents and directives and an interview with each of the 40 principals in the study, the Organizational Structure Grid (OSG) was completed for each of the 17 school districts and for each of the 40 local schools in the study. The purpose of the interview with the principal was to compare the principal's perceptions of the formal organizational structure as he perceived it operating in his school with the formal organizational structure derived...
from inspection of written policy materials at the local-school level. The OSG permitted the investigators to pinpoint where authority and responsibility was formally designated. The grid ranges from concentration of authority at the top administrative level to wider participation of middle management, teachers, students, parents, and community. School districts and local schools whose OSG indicated authority and responsibility assigned only to administrators and middle management were classified as operating in a closed structure. The more extensive the participation designated on the OSG, the more open the district or school organizational structure was judged to be.

One of the questions raised by the investigators was whether the 17 school systems in the study were bureaucratic in design. The following simple model of a public bureaucracy was used as a guide for making judgments, with the assumption that the public school system can be classified as a bureaucracy if it contains the major features found in all public bureaucracies:

**Simple Model of a Public Bureaucracy**
1. Part of government at some level.
2. Employs many public servants, organized to carry out consciously conceived coordinated activities.
3. Contains a complex administrative hierarchy.
4. Specialization of skills and tasks.
5. Prescribed limits on the use of discretion by members are set forth in a system of rules, regulations, and policies.
6. Impersonal behavior with regard to contact with clientele.
7. Separation of ownership and control in the sense that members of bureaucracies do not own the tools and instruments with which they work.
8. Constant exposure to public scrutiny. A concern with public interest. (In this regard, public bureaucracies differ from private ones due to their public nature and activities. The result is constant exposure to public scrutiny and concern with public interest.)

Upon inspection of all documented materials specifying formal organizational structure gathered in each of the school systems, it seemed evident that all of the 17 school systems conformed to the model and were bureaucratic in design. It was interesting to note that organizationally all school systems in the study, as judged by this bureaucratic model, were very similar in organization. In the larger school systems, however, it was much more difficult to pinpoint authority and responsibility directly to a person. The bureau or a subsystem in the organization most often issued the policy pronouncements. The larger the system, the greater was the tendency to standardize administrative operations. Thus the school in the large bureaucracies tended to be governed largely through standard policies and procedures. One could speculate that the larger the bureaucratic organization, the greater is the tendency to standardize all operations, thus making the flexibility required to solve current educational problems at the local school level very difficult, if not impossible.
A second question raised by the investigators was whether there was a direct relationship between the formal organizational structure of the school district and the local schools within that district. As indicated in the correlation matrix, the correlations between the formal organizational structure at the local-school level and school-district levels were not sufficiently high to show a significant relationship.

**Correlation Matrix 1**

Organizational Structure Grid

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>School District (OSG)</th>
<th>Local School (OSG)</th>
<th>Principals' Perception (OSG)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School District</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.072</td>
<td>0.178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local School</td>
<td>0.072</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.308</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principals' Perception</td>
<td>0.178</td>
<td>0.308</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

0.30 Significant at the five-percent level

The formal organizational structure at the district level in all 17 districts did not provide for participation in decision-making outside the administrative hierarchy in any of the 19 items on the OSG, and therefore all school districts in the study were judged to be closed.

The principals' perceptions of the organizational structure operating in their schools did not correlate significantly with the organizational structure designated on the OSG at the school district level. This lack of significant correlation seems to imply that a number of principals in the study, through their own volition, had broadened the participative base in certain areas of decision-making at the local school level.

One critical area in the OSG, community relations, correlated significantly with the same area on the principals' interview, showing a 0.40 correlation.

A possible explanation is that the principals' perceptions of the way decisions are made in their schools are substantially correlated with written district policy in the area of school-community relations. Possibly, the principals identify strongly with the central administration in the way the school as a social institution is related to the community. They may also identify very strongly with the professional bureaucracy and the way that the professionals in the central office interpret their role vis-a-vis the community.

The principals' perceptions of organizational structure in the local school also correlated significantly (.308) with the formal organizational structure of the local school as determined by the assessment of documented policy and
procedure. This positive correlation tends to indicate that a number of principals in the study perceived their schools as functioning according to the documented policy ascertained at the local school level.

The OSG data at the local school level and the data on the principal's perception of organizational structure revealed significant correlations between these two sets of data in the areas of supervision (0.41) and administrative policy (0.38). A possible explanation of these two correlations may be that the principal tends to identify with local school policy and that both principal and teachers to some extent agree on decisions made in the area of supervision. The positive correlations may also be influenced by union and teacher-association contracts.

Perhaps the local school principal and the professional teachers identify with similar norms and values. This may be because they are both employed within the same bureaucracy and principals were teachers before they assumed leadership roles as administrators.

Findings
1. The 17 school systems in the study conformed in structure to the simple public bureaucracy model used in the study.
2. There was no significant correlation between the formal organizational structure of the school district and the formal organizational structure found in operation at the local-school level.
3. The principal's perception of organizational structure correlated significantly with the formal organizational structure in his school as determined by documented policy and procedure.
4. At the local-school level, schools tended to be more closed than open, with "closed" designated as authority responsibility in decision-making residing in the administrative hierarchy.

ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

The majority of the 40 schools in the present study of organizational climate and structure are large compared to most schools in the country; all are located in urban or suburban New York City. The Halpin-Croft questionnaire on Organizational Climate (OCDQ) was administered in each school. The research team also used the factor structure established by Halpin and Croft (1963) in their original study. The data on climate revealed that all of the schools in the study fell into a classification defined by Halpin and Croft as a closed organizational climate. However, the 40 schools in our study were different from the schools in the Halpin study in a number of ways: The Halpin data were gathered in 1963, while our data were gathered in 1969. The data in the present study were collected from junior and senior high schools as well as from elementary schools; the Halpin questionnaire was constructed for elementary schools only. Perhaps the greatest difference between the Halpin study and the present one is the fact that the present data was gathered from schools in densely populated areas. Thus, it became clear
that our data from the Halpin scale must be refactored if the data were to be
useful in describing the schools in our study.

Factor Analysis and Description of OCDQ Factors

We assessed each of the four factors by groupings of teacher
perceptions and what these groupings seemed to imply. In each of the factors
there were items with high item loadings. In describing each factor, high and
relatively high loading items were used heavily as clues for meaning and the
low loading items were not given extensive weight.

Factor I: As it reflects the perceptions of teachers in this study, factor one
was judged to be positive. The items with high factor loadings seem to
declare a role definition for the administrator and an acceptance by the
teacher that this, in fact, is the administrator's role. Implicit in the high
loading items is a recognition that the administrator's role is to make the
organization function through planning, organizing, and controlling. There is
acceptance by teachers that the administrator is crucial in effecting
orderliness in the school, in maintaining standards, and in efficiently
expediting administrative routines. Also implied in some of the factor items is
the need, even in large schools where interpersonal relationships are
sometimes difficult, for teachers to know and be known by the administrator.
The administrative role as supervisor is accepted and the administrator is
expected to recognize quality in teaching and learning. When standards in
these areas are below acceptability, his role is to take appropriate action.

In a school high in factor one, the administrator is visible as a leader, he
pays attention to matters that make the organization function efficiently, and
he is crucial in setting the teaching/learning tone. His directives are clear and
seldom questioned, which implies that communication has been effective to
the extent that the directives are not only understood but accepted by
members of the organization. The school is operating as a part of a
bureaucracy but is representative in nature. An appropriate name for this
factor appears to be Order and Consent.

The factor analysis of the OCDQ data revealed that four dimensions were
being measured, rather than eight as in the Halpin study. As we worked to
determine descriptive meaning for each of the four factors and their
relationships to each other, we identified two factors as positive and two as
negative.

2. The mannerisms of teachers at this school are annoying.
6. There is a minority group of teachers who always oppose the majority.
25. Teachers prepare administrative reports by themselves.
*26. Teachers ramble when they talk in faculty meetings.
*27. Teachers at this school show much school spirit.
29. The principal helps teachers solve personal problems.
*30. Teachers at this school stay by themselves.
*31. The teachers accomplish their work with great vim, vigor, and pleasure.
33. The principal helps teachers solve personal problems.
34. Teachers eat lunch by themselves in their own classrooms.
35. The morale of the teachers is high.
38. Teachers socialize together in small select groups.
39. The principal makes all class-scheduling decisions.
*40. Teachers are contacted by the principal each day.
44. Teachers leave the grounds during the school day.
*46. The principal corrects teachers' mistakes.
47. The principal talks a great deal.
50. Extra duty for teachers is posted conspicuously.
*51. The rules set by the principal are never questioned.
53. School secretarial service is available for teachers' use.
54. The principal runs the faculty meeting like a business conference.
56. Teachers work together preparing administrative reports.
*57. Faculty meetings are organized according to a tight agenda.
59. The principal tells teachers of new ideas he has run across.
60. Teachers talk about leaving the school system.
*63. Teachers are informed of the results of a supervisor's visit.
*64. The principal insures that teachers work to their full capacity.

Factor II: Factor two was judged by the investigators to be negative in terms of a viable working climate. Items with high loadings in the factor indicate that teachers perceive interference and hindrance by the administration in performing their tasks as teachers. The climate of the school seems to reflect little, if any, cooperative relationship either between teachers and administrators or among teachers. The administration imposes rules, regulations, and tasks that are not accepted as important by the teachers.

An appropriate name for this factor appears to coincide closely with the Halpin factor of Hindrance.
*4. Instructions for the operation of teaching aids are available.
8. Sufficient time is given to prepare administrative reports.
*10. Teachers exert group pressure on non-conforming faculty members.
*12. Administrative paper work is burdensome at this school.
14. Teachers seek special favors from the principal.
*16. Student progress reports require too much work.
18. Teachers interrupt other faculty members who are talking in staff meetings.

*The high loading items in each of the factors are starred in the list of items which make up the factor.
*20. Teachers have too many committee requirements.
22. Teachers ask nonsensical questions in faculty meetings.
*24. Routine duties interfere with the job of teaching.
42. The principal helps staff members settle minor differences.
*58. Faculty meetings are mainly principal-report meetings.

**Factor III:** Factor three reflects a positive working climate, that is, characterized by cooperation and understanding among the entire faculty of the school. It also reflects a feeling of commitment and personal responsibility in achieving the institution's educational goals. The principal is perceived as a member of the working team and not as an example to be copied or as a special adviser to help teachers (note the negative loading on items 28 and 32). An appropriate name for this factor is *Cooperative Commitment,* which reflects the overall tone of the school.

* 1. Teachers' closest friends are other faculty members at this school.
* 3. Teachers spend time after school with students who have individual problems.
* 5. Teachers invite other faculty to visit them at home.
* 7. Extra books are available for classroom use.
* 9. Teachers know the family background of other faculty members.
*11. In faculty meetings, there is a feeling of "let's get things done."
13. Teachers talk about their personal life to other faculty members.
*15. School supplies are readily available for use in classwork.
*17. Teachers have fun socializing together during school time.
*19. Most of the teachers here accept the faults of their colleagues.
21. There is considerable laughter when teachers gather informally.
23. Custodial service is available when needed.
30. The principal uses constructive criticism.
36. The principal stays after school to help teachers finish their work.
*37. The principal stays after school to help teachers finish their work.
41. The principal is well prepared when he speaks at school functions.
*43. The principal schedules the work for the teachers.

**Factor IV:** Factor four was judged to be negative. In this factor the principal's role appears to be paternalistic. The educational performances and tasks are conceived and planned by the principal and made known to teachers. The principal's role is one of setting direction, monitoring performance, and assisting the teacher to comply with policies and standards of the school. His role is control, but in a paternalistic fashion. The factor is not characterized by involvement of teachers in decision-making or in cooperative problem-solving situations. Standardization of curriculum and teaching would be characteristic in schools rating high in this factor. An appropriate name for this factor is *Paternalistic Control.*

*21. There is considerable laughter when teachers gather informally.
23. Custodial service is available when needed.
36. The principal uses constructive criticism.
*37. The principal stays after school to help teachers finish their work.
41. The principal is well prepared when he speaks at school functions.
*43. The principal schedules the work for the teachers.

*The high loading items in each of the factors are starred in the list of items which make up the factor.*
45. Teachers help select which courses will be taught.
48. The principal explains his reasons for criticism to teachers.
49. The principal tries to get better salaries for teachers.
*52. The principal looks out for the personal welfare of teachers.
*55. The principal is in the building before teachers arrive.
*61. The principal checks the subject-matter ability of teachers.
62. The principal is easy to understand.

Factor Analysis and Description of PSES Factors

The Professional School Environment Scale is a measure of working climate in the organization and is not intended to assess social climate. Positive responses on the PSES indicate that teachers perceive themselves as being involved and cooperating in the ongoing educational enterprises. High positive responses by teachers indicate a working climate that is conducive to problem-solving and change. The PSES was factor-analyzed and three factors were present. The PSES factors are highly correlated among themselves; however, they are relatively independent from the OCDQ factors. The relationship between PSES and OCDQ factors served a useful purpose in describing the organizational climate of the schools grouped into clusters.

Item 13 in the PSES was not included in any of the three factors.

13. Administrators are considered to be recognized authorities in their profession by the teachers in their schools.

PSES Factor I: The items in PSES factor one indicate that teachers' professional knowledge and skills are recognized and used by the administrators. Teachers perceive their knowledge and professional experience as being sought and used when important educational decisions are being made. In problem-solving situations which concern curriculum or teaching, the knowledge and skills of teachers are fully utilized by the administrator of the school. An appropriate name for factor one could be Professional Recognition in Decision-Making.

Factor Items

1. Teachers and the administration decide on local school policy.
2. When planning, the principal solicits suggestions from teachers.
3. Teachers' professional opinions and ideas are valued by the administration.
4. Teachers' professional opinions and ideas are used by the administration.
5. Teachers are rewarded for the introduction of innovation and change in their daily routine.
7. The entire school staff is involved in the evaluation of the curriculum.

Factor II: The items in PSES factor two indicate that there is experimentation and change toward improving the environment for learning taking place in the school. The principal's role is one of leadership which encourages and assists

*The high loading items in each of the factors are starred in the list of items which make up the factor.
teachers to use their special skills and knowledge in a continuous effort to improve education. Teachers are involved in decisions related to curriculum and teaching. Group and individual evaluation of current educational programs and procedures and change toward improvement seem to characterize the overall climate of schools rating high on this factor.

The general atmosphere is one "conducive" to educational change. An appropriate name for this factor seems to be Professional Growth and Change.

**Factor Items**

6. Teachers are encouraged to discuss new ideas in curriculum and teaching.
8. The administration encourages teachers to participate in discussions about curriculum.
9. The teacher is expected to try new and different methods—rather than to continue with the status quo.
10. Teachers help plan workshops concerning their particular professional problems.
12. Teachers are expected to try new ideas in curriculum and teaching.
14. Innovation in curriculum and teaching is encouraged by the administration.
20. Teachers are encouraged to participate in new experimental programs.

**Factor III:** The items in factor three relate to recognition and respect on the part of administrators for teachers' professional training, judgment, and experience in curriculum and teaching. The items imply teacher consultation and involvement when important policy decisions affecting teaching roles and curriculum are being made. An appropriate name for this factor is Professional Respect.

**Factor Items**

11. The administration encourages teachers to make decisions about teaching.
15. Teachers are involved in local school policy decision.
16. Teacher judgment is respected in matters of curriculum.
17. Teacher judgment is respected in matters of teaching and materials.
18. Teachers share with their colleagues latest advances in educational research theory.
19. Teachers are expected to indicate when they disagree with administration decisions.
21. The principal uses the special knowledge of teachers.
Clustering Procedure

In order to interpret the data on organizational climate, a procedure was needed to group or cluster schools that were roughly homogeneous as described by the OCDQ factors. The procedure selected for use was a mathematical clustering process developed by Raymond B. Catell. The Cattell clustering procedure has been used by Andrew E. Hayes' on OCDQ data in a number of recent studies, including the present one. The schools in the study were first grouped into a P cluster, which is a group of schools that are alike enough to be clustered, yet different enough from all others to be labeled different. The schools were then grouped into S clusters, which are composites of several P clusters. The P clusters may overlap, but S clusters are independent. For the purposes of this study, descriptions were written for the four S clusters obtained from the OCDQ factors. These four clusters contained the 40 schools in the study. In writing the descriptions for each of the four clusters, the correlation data of the OCDQ factors and the PSES factors were utilized.

The schools were not equally distributed in the clusters: 21 schools (52.5%) fell into cluster one; ten schools (25%) fell into cluster two; four schools (10%) fell into cluster three; and five schools (12.5%) fell into cluster four. Clusters one and three were judged to be negative in terms of organizational climate, while clusters two and four indicated more involvement and cooperativeness on part of the teachers.

Relationship of PSES factors to OCDQ factors

The OCDQ and PSES were analyzed in several ways, but for the present report of the study the investigators chose to concentrate on an analysis of the zero-order correlations. The correlation matrices shown below indicate high correlations among the PSES factors.

Correlation Matrix II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Factor I</th>
<th>Factor II</th>
<th>Factor III</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor I</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.821</td>
<td>0.914</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor II</td>
<td>0.821</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.805</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor III</td>
<td>0.914</td>
<td>0.805</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Information concerning the statistical procedures in the clustering process in this study is available from Andrew E. Hayes, University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia.
Profiles of four segregate Clusters identified from the set of OCDQ factors

Standard Scores

OCDQ I
Order and Consent

OCDQ II
Hindrance

OCDQ III
Cooperative Commitment

OCDQ IV
Paternalistic Control

Cluster I
Cluster II
Cluster III
Cluster IV
Correlation Matrix III
Correlation of OCDQ Factors and PSES Factor

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Order Consent</th>
<th>Hindrance</th>
<th>Cooperation</th>
<th>Paternalism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor I</td>
<td>0.706</td>
<td>-0.573</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>-0.310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor II</td>
<td>0.716</td>
<td>-0.581</td>
<td>0.645</td>
<td>-0.398</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor III</td>
<td>0.636</td>
<td>-0.639</td>
<td>0.620</td>
<td>-0.468</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PSES Factors
Professional Self-Enhancement Scale (PSES)
(Prof. Recog) Factor I
(Prof. Recog) Factor II
(Prof. Recog) Factor III

A correlation of 0.30 is significant at the 5 percent level.

The PSES factors also correlated significantly with the four OCDQ factors, revealing significant positive correlations with factors one and three and negative correlations with factors two and four.

Description of Clusters
The interpretations of the data from the OCDQ and the PSES factors are personal and related closely to the interpreters' experience, knowledge, and biases. The following generalizations are the product of many hours spent inspecting and discussing the meaning of the data. The investigators make no claim as to the infallibility of the interpretation, but it is hoped that the brief descriptions of each of the clusters will promote worthwhile discussions by the administration and staff in each of the 40 schools in the study.

Cluster One. Schools in cluster one appear to be considerably higher in Hindrance and Paternalistic Control than in Order and Consent and Cooperative Commitment. The teachers tend to perceive the climate as one where there is meager recognition and use of their professional knowledge and skill, as indicated by comparing the mean scores (high negative

1 Table of means is found in Appendix A, Table V.
correlation) of the PSES factors with those of the OCDQ factors two and four, and as illustrated in the profile of the four clusters. Some degree of hindrance on the part of the administration is present in the schools in cluster one, with the principal assuming a paternalistic role. The schools in this cluster follow rather closely the prescribed school district curriculum and policies. The principal may be characterized as a kindly manager who identifies the problems, initiates the solution procedures, and implements district policy. The school operates fairly efficiently, but as perceived by teachers there is relatively little real involvement and participation on their part in making decisions related to curriculum and teaching. Schools in this cluster were judged by the investigator to be negative in organizational climate.

The organizational emphasis is on efficiency, with effectiveness suffering as a result.

Cluster Two. The schools in cluster two, as revealed by the OCDQ factors, are high in the two positive OCDQ factors, Order and Consent and Cooperative Commitment, and relatively low in Hindrance and Paternalistic Control. In these schools the teachers perceive themselves as an involved part of a working team. There is mutual respect and recognition on the part of teachers and administrators. Teachers perceive themselves as being active in making decisions related to curriculum and teaching and this involvement is not only encouraged by the administration but expected. The teachers in the schools grouped in cluster two tend to see themselves as being respected and used as professional educators. This position is supported by the higher PSES factor means obtained in schools with high means in the positive OCDQ factors of Order and Consent and Cooperative Commitment. In addition to the mutual respect of teachers and administrators, there is an overall climate of cooperation toward improving education. The school is seen by the teachers as a place where new materials, methods, and procedures are being envisioned and tested. The climate is flexible enough for needed changes to be recognized and solutions sought. The relatively high score in Order and Consent indicates that the teachers perceive the school as operating efficiently and the principal actively assuming the role of educational leader.

Cluster Three. The organizational climates of the schools in cluster three are perceived by teachers as being high in Hindrance and low in Order and Consent, Cooperative Commitment, and Paternalistic Control. In these schools there seems to be a lack of dynamic leadership—whether democratic, authoritarian, or paternalistic. The principal is not visible as a leader; the schools are largely administered by standardized administrative policies, procedures, and curriculum established outside the local school by the central school board. Much of this administrative endeavor results in procedures perceived by the teachers as hindrance. Adjustment and changes in organization, curriculum, or teaching in order to provide for differences in children's needs and circumstances, or adjustments to the needs of the community, are not likely to occur in these schools. The teachers do not
perceive the school as a place where they are respected and used as professional educators in decisions affecting either curriculum or teaching. There is little if any cooperation between teachers and administrators or among teachers toward evaluating and improving the school’s program in terms of children's learning. Many teachers in this cluster feel alienated from rather than cooperative toward the educational processes operating in their schools. The schools in this cluster were judged to be negative in terms of an organizational climate that would adequately meet the educational needs of the children and the community.

Cluster Four. Cluster four was judged by the investigators to be positive in organizational climate. These schools seem to be operating rather efficiently as educational organizations. There is relatively little feeling of being hindered from performing as professional teachers and there is a general feeling of cooperation and commitment. The schools in this cluster were, however, rather high in the OCDQ factor of Paternalistic Control, which relates negatively with all of the PSES factors. This may indicate that the administrator is well organized, genial, and considerate in personal areas but does not respect and use the teachers' professional knowledge and skill. Teachers cooperate when asked because they personally like the administrator and not because they are ego-involved and feel professional pride and commitment in the enterprise being undertaken.

The administrators in these schools may tend to assume the role of the kindly father figure, but this role implies that father knows best. The organizational climate of the schools in cluster four is characterized by efficient management and congeniality among staff and with administrators. Changes in curriculum and teaching are generated largely by the administrators and teachers for the most part cooperate with them.

In general the schools in the study appear to be more closed than open in terms of organizational climate, with 25 schools grouped in clusters one and three while only 15 schools were grouped in the two positive clusters, two and four.

It is apparent, however, that there were marked differences in organizational climate at the local-school level, even though all of the schools in the study were in school districts whose formal organizational structures were judged to be closed. Only the 15 schools in clusters two and four were judged to have the kind of organizational climate that would permit, let alone foster, such changes in curriculum, teaching, and organization at the local-school level as would meet the current needs of the individual children and of the community and secure teachers' satisfaction.

At the local-school level, only those schools in cluster two seem to enjoy, as judged by the perception of teachers, an organizational climate where thoughtful, planned change is the concern of both teachers and administrators.

Findings

Factor analysis of the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire
revealed four factors. Items in each of the four factors described different dimensions of organizational climate. Two of these dimensions, Order and Consent (I) and Cooperative Commitment (III) were more open in terms of climate than were Hindrance (II) and Paternalistic Control (IV).1

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE AT THE LOCAL SCHOOL LEVEL

According to the analysis established by the investigators, the 17 school districts were all bureaucratic in model and closed in organizational structure. Closed structure in the present study means that documented policy and procedure materials revealed that only positions in the administrative hierarchy were formally designated authority and responsibility for decision-making in the areas of personnel, supervision, curriculum development, administrative policy, and community relations. The 40 local schools in the study were all included in these 17 districts. As pointed out in the discussion of organizational structure, there was no significant relationship between organizational structure at the district level and organizational structure at the local-school level. This information seems to indicate that the principal of the local school has open to him a rather wide repertoire of leadership behavior. He can delegate authority responsibility, include members other than those designated as administrators in certain areas of decision-making, or follow rigorously the bureaucratic letter of the law.

Inasmuch as there appeared to be some openness in organizational structure at the local-school level, the data from the OSG and OCDQ were submitted to analysis of variance in order to determine whether there was a direct relationship between organizational climate and organizational structure.

The statistical results of the analysis produced positive relationships; however, none of them was sufficiently high to be significant at the 5 percent

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1 The OCDQ data were first processed using the eight factors in Halpin and Croft's study. The results revealed that all 40 schools in the study had closed organizational climates. When the data were refactored four factors were obtained. These four factors, except for Hindrance, are different from those in the Halpin and Croft study. These findings suggest that when questionnaires and tests based on perceptions are used as a source of descriptive data, these data must be submitted to factor analysis.

The organizational climates of the 40 schools in the study were different enough to permit placing each of the schools in one of four clusters. The schools placed in each of the clusters were homogeneous in factor pattern. Clusters two and four were judged to be positive in terms of open climate while clusters one and three were negative.

There was a significantly high positive correlation between the Professional Self-esteem Scale (PSES) factors and OCDQ factors one and three; and a significantly high negative correlation between the PSES factors and OCDQ factors two and four.

There was a significantly high positive correlation among the three PSES factors, indicating that perhaps factor analysis is not essential when using this scale.

The schools in the study tended to be more closed than open in organizational climate. Only 15 of the 40 schools were grouped in clusters two and four, whose factor pattern indicated greater openness in organizational climate.
level. Our conclusion, therefore, was that no significant relationship existed between organizational structure and organizational climate at the local-school level. The fact that the local schools were more closed in structure than open, the use of an instrument (OSG) to designate organizational structure which was restricted to documented policy and procedure, and the use of a climate questionnaire developed for use in smaller schools may have accounted for the fact that structure and climate did not show a significant relationship. Even though the data did not support a significant relationship between structure and climate, there was some trend of relationship between the two. When the organizational structure mean for each of the four clusters was ranked from low to high on each of the OSG variables and all variables combined, this trend was supported. The larger the mean, the more open was organizational structure. Clusters two and four were the two clusters judged to be most open in climate. Cluster one was judged to be third in openness, while Cluster three was assessed to be most closed in all respects.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Climate clusters ordered by OSG Means</th>
<th>Personnel</th>
<th>Supervision</th>
<th>Curriculum</th>
<th>Administrative Policy</th>
<th>Community Relations</th>
<th>All Variables Combined</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Clusters ordered by OSG Means revealed that Cluster two is a prototype of open climate and Cluster three is the prototype of closed climate.

This trend suggests that change in organizational climate is related to change in the formal organizational structure at the local-school level, or perhaps is a necessary step if organizational climate is to change.

In the present study where changes in the organizational structure at the local school level were in evidence, the principal through his own initiative had delegated authority and responsibility to other members of the organization. Inasmuch as the local school is a part of the school-district bureaucracy, the establishing of different patterns in organizational structure at the local-school level required administrative leadership that presupposed trust in the integrity of staff, students, and community and willingness to include others in critical areas of decision-making. This does not mean abdication from the leadership role, but active leadership which draws teachers, students, and community into cooperative relationships in achieving educational goals and objectives.

Most important, this trend, which seems to show some relationship between structure and climate, needs to be fully investigated. Thorough and
comprehensive studies of the public school system as an organization and the relationship of this organization to goal achievement have long been neglected.

The investigators believe that the trend indicating the relationship between organizational structure and climate in the present study is strong enough to indicate that further studies of this phenomenon should be developed. Instruments that would permit more intensive and extensive study of both climate and structure are needed.
Section III
Remarks

REMARKS

Education in the 1970s will be, for many professional educators, a source of frustration and despair. But for those educators who are courageous, informed, and creative enough to make major changes in organizational structure and curriculum, the educational enterprise will be exciting and rewarding. Only in recent years has there developed a large segment of our society which has lost its optimism and faith in our country. Historically, there has been an abiding faith in the American educational system as a ladder—to the good life. However, immediately after Sputnik there was tremendous activity in beefing up the curriculum and certifying teachers so that they would be better informed in academic disciplines. This was the panacea for preparing children to cope with the increasingly complex social and technological world about them. Out of social unrest came the realization that children, especially at the junior and senior high-school level, needed academic specialists to teach them. During this period, academic specialists to a large degree revised and established new certification requirements for the preparation of teachers, and teachers thus prepared are to a large extent now conducting the classes in the junior and senior high schools. Secondary-school teachers have approximately 140 credits in academic subjects and 12 to 18 credits in education courses.

During the 1950s and early 1960s, innovation was the key word. Innovation centered around adult-conceived and planned curricula, with academic subjects as the curriculum core and specialists in the academic area used to teach the subject. During this period, we had “new math,” “language labs,” “programmed instruction,” “team teaching,” “modular scheduling”—
to name only a few of the innovations. This flurry of innovations, however, changed the basic curriculum very little. The curriculum remained academically fixed in the content and instructional procedure established by both college and public-school educators. The innovations were designed to make the little-changed content more palatable and digestible to the learner. Perhaps the innovations improved learning in the school for most children; however, there seems to be no overwhelming evidence to support that proposition. Over the past two decades the bureaucratic structure of public-school systems has remained relatively unchanged except for greater complexity as the schools increased in size. The changes in teacher education and certification requirements, the supposed academic upgrading of the curriculum, and the many innovations calculated to enhance children's learning have not proven to be predictive of greater satisfaction and achievement on the part of students in the public schools.

In the 1960s a different kind of dissatisfaction with education was manifest. Influenced by many social forces, a great number of young people in high school and college began to question the efficacy and relevance of the educational institutions they attended. Back of this unrest developed a knowledge that most of our institutions were not working well. Pinpointed were poverty, minority groups, job opportunities, justice in the courts, clean air and water, health care, equality in education for all, and the engagement in a war that was difficult to justify. The relevance of education to what was happening politically and socially became the slogan of these years, and a large segment of the young joined forces with many adults, especially from the minority groups. During the 1960s many attempts were made to change institutions, especially educational institutions, through revolution. Probably greater changes have been made in institutions, especially the public school, through the tactics of revolution than through curricular innovations. In this revolutionary period, professional educators, both public-school and college, were caught between extreme left and extreme right groups, and were roundly damned if they did and damned if they didn't.

The revolutionary phase, however, broke down neither the system nor the bureaucracy of public institutions; it did bring about an awareness that basic changes must be made in institutional educational systems. Education in the 1970s is marked by a new slogan—"alternatives": alternative ways to become educated, alternative organizational plans; alternative ways to develop viable curricula other than those used for years by public-school institutions.

The investigators do not foresee public school bureaucracies disintegrating any more rapidly than other governmental bureaucracies. Bureaucracies when once established are tough, resilient, and practically impossible to destroy. Their perpetuation is insured by the vested interest of their members, who have livelihood and prestige at stake. The school bureaucracy, when attacked, gains support from other interested organizations which see their own achievement of power and prestige enhanced by working with the school bureaucracy rather than with smaller organizations.
Perhaps the bureaucratic model is workable in educating children if certain modifications are made. It is these modifications that investigators see taking place in the next few years. The following are some of the modifications we see taking place.

1. There will be an effort to decrease the size of the bureaucracy instead of constantly increasing its size and complexity, as has been the pattern since bureaucracies were established.

2. Bureaucracies will shift decidedly toward being more representative, i.e., certain decision-making areas will be broadened to include the voices of teachers, students, and community in policy-making.

3. The local school and local college will become more autonomous, to adjust curriculum and resources to the needs of their students.

4. Greater interest and acceptance of education as preparation for life, both vocationally and socially, will change the curriculum in both the college and the public school.

In the present study, wherever all 17 school districts were found to have closed organizational structures, in no place in the policy statement were teachers, students, or community members included in policy-making decisions. Authority and responsibility were allocated only to administrators. At the local-school level teachers were included in limited areas of decision-making, but in no case were students or community members included in the organizational structure in decision-making roles. Some principals of schools in the study had delegated responsibility to faculty committees, especially in the area of curriculum development, but students were not included. Educators ought not to be fearful of student involvement in decision-making, for it is the students who have the most at stake and the majority of them will press for better education.

For school administrators, participation by students and parents in decision-making means neither abdication by the professional educator nor the relinquishing of his social concerns, but rather places responsibility in the realm of informed, intelligent thinking, and the principal is hired to give leadership in this realm.

Among the questions posed in the study was whether or not location (urban or suburban setting) or level of school had any effect on organizational climate. Twenty-one (slightly more than half) of the 40 schools fell into cluster one on the OCDQ. On a range of 30 to 70 of standard scores on the factors of the OCDQ in our study, cluster one schools scored near the mean on almost all four factors. They were just below the mean on Order and Consent (46) and on Cooperation (48). On the factors of Hindrance (55) and Paternalism (54) they were slightly higher. Thus the majority of the schools in the study appeared to be somewhat closed.

More closed, however, were the four schools in cluster three. These schools tended to be low in Order and Consent (35) and Cooperation (37), and relatively high in Hindrance or "Blocking" (62), but below the median (40) in Paternalism. Leadership on the part of the principal does not appear to be
visible in this cluster of schools. The high negative score of Hindrance indicates that the faculty, by its blocking maneuvers, may in effect assume the leadership role in these institutions. All four of the schools in this cluster are secondary schools. Upon examination of their factor means, schools in clusters one and three were judged to be closed.

The schools in clusters two and four tend to be more open. Twenty of the 25 schools, or 80 percent of the schools in the study that are closed, are secondary institutions. The secondary schools in this study appear to be more closed than the elementary schools. When we look at the locations, urban or suburban, of this same group of schools, we see that 13 of the "closed" schools in clusters one and three are in suburban areas, while 12 are in New York City; hence approximately 50 percent of the schools are in the suburbs, and the other 50 percent are located in the urban area adjacent to the city. One must conclude that level, in this case secondary school, is a more significant indicator than the location of the school in determining whether a school is closed or open in organizational climate.

Larger institutions are more likely to be found in the urban center. The larger schools are secondary. Again, level of school in this study appears to be a more important factor in determining climate than either size or location. We should not lose sight of the fact that 25 of the 40 schools appear to be more closed than open. That would leave 15 of the 40 in clusters two and four representing the more open organizational climate of the schools in this particular study.

The ten schools in cluster two scored high on the factor of Order and Consent (60) and fairly high in Cooperation (55). They also scored fairly low (42) on Hindrance and on Paternalism (45). These appeared to be the most open schools identified in the study. Apparently, their leadership is non-paternalistic and the faculty accepts the order and structuring within the school. There is little blocking or hindering, and substantial cooperation; hence one could conclude that schools which fall in cluster two are likely to be susceptible of change and improvement.

Moving to cluster four, one observes that these schools are above the mean (55) in Order and Consent and at the mean (50) in Cooperation. They are also rather low (40) in Hindrance and, interestingly enough, rather high (60) in Paternalism. These schools are probably operated by principals who insist on order and structure and receive cooperation from their faculties, although they are paternalistic. These schools can be considered open, although not as open as the schools in cluster two. When cluster two and cluster four schools, the two open groups, were considered together interesting observations emerged about the level of the school. It appears that of the 15 schools, 12 are elementary and three are secondary. It may also be significant that the two secondary schools in cluster two are both junior high schools. This is the most open group of schools, and in the next most open group, cluster four, only one of the five is a secondary school and it is a junior high school. There is no senior high school in either of the two clusters which could be described
as open and susceptible of change. The level of a school is most significant in terms of its being open or closed. Suburban schools are more likely to be open than urban schools. Eight of the 10 schools in cluster two, the most open schools, are in suburban areas, while three of the five schools in cluster four are in suburban areas. That is, 11 of the 15 schools which are in the most open categories are located in suburban areas. These are smaller than their counterparts in the inner city. Thus 73 percent of the schools in the two open categories, clusters two and four, are suburban institutions. It would appear from this study that the school that is most susceptible of change—that has the most open climate—is likely to be a smaller elementary school located in a suburban area. Conversely, it would seem from this study that the larger secondary schools located in an urban area are likely to be more closed in organizational climate.

One wonders whether there might be some similarity in characteristics among staff members who locate in urban areas. Another question which deserves further study is whether the schools in this particular study which are in an urban area and were centralized under a central Board of Education with very weak and ineffectual local boards were less responsive to their clientele and to the need for change than were their counterparts in the suburban areas, which were located in districts which had a long history of being decentralized and may have been more responsive to their decentralized boards and to the clientele that they served. At the time of the study, salaries for administrators and teachers were approximately the same in the urban and the suburban areas. However, from observation, it would appear that the teachers and the administrators put in longer hours in the suburban areas than in the urban areas; the urban area is permeated with a strong union and many of the administrators in the urban area had second jobs within the city system in another capacity, and therefore left their buildings shortly after three o'clock to assume responsibility as directors of playgrounds or community centers within the metropolitan area.

Another factor which may be important is that most of the teachers who worked in the suburban areas lived in suburban areas adjacent to the districts in which they were employed. Most of the teachers who worked in the urban areas lived in suburban areas adjacent to the urban centers in which they were employed. Thus the longer traveling time to and from work may have had some effect on the amount of time available for urban-area teachers to devote to the clientele, to the districts in which they were employed, to their own education, or to related endeavors. Staff participation in community activities would also have to be taken into consideration. In this study the suburban districts spend approximately $2,000 per child while the urban districts spend about $1,000 per child. Furthermore, it is our subjective opinion that the urban school districts receive less for each dollar spent than suburban districts receive for each dollar that they expend for education. Thus the difference is more than just a difference in dollars, but the difference in what the administrators of the schools can demand in professional commitment from
the faculty and staff of those schools.

Under the present bureaucratic school structure, many possibilities for change are open to the local school. In fact, the tenor of the time is in tune with change. In a social climate where there is considerable dissatisfaction with the job being done by the schools, changes can be initiated much more easily than where satisfaction with the status quo predominates.

The local school within a school district that is tightly closed in organizational structure can make significant changes to improve education if the climate is right for change. It is the job of the principal to develop a climate of cooperation among all those who have influence on what happens in the school. If the climate is such that administrators, teachers, students, and community want the proposed changes, then the changes can take place no matter how closed the organization may be at the district or school-board level. In the present study only one part of the organizational climate was investigated: teachers' perception of the social and working climate of the school. Only one cluster of schools was found where one would judge the organizational climate to be conducive to change. Change cannot be successfully brought about unless the majority of all members of the organization are in cooperative relationships with regard to objectives and procedures.

Where can the local school begin? Perhaps the following questions will highlight some present thinking.

1. How can the curriculum content be made meaningful to all students?
2. How can students be involved in learning experiences that develop their ability to think?
3. How can the student come to grips with the wealth of knowledge that will help him understand his environment?
4. How can each child be helped to develop a concept of self that is optimistic and confident, so that he is able to cope with both success and failure?
5. How can we help each child to develop communication skills so that he can understand and relate well to other humans and make relevant connections between the past, the present, and the future?

We could continue listing many questions. These questions point to putting into practice knowledge that the educator has had in his rhetoric for years, i.e., (1) each child is unique; (2) real learning is related to real experiences; (3) the personality of the child is the integration of all his experiences; (4) achievement is enhancing and failure is destructive of motive for working to achieve school objectives.

If in the local school changes were made in any of the areas mentioned above, changes would have to be made in the school's formal organizational structure. The environment for learning will need, in many schools, a drastic overhaul in both climate and structure in order to gain a cooperative relationship between administrators, teachers, children, and parents towards accomplishing mutually acceptable educational goals.
APPENDIX A

Table 1

Local schools listed by code number under climate cluster assignment as determined by OCDQ factors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cluster one</th>
<th>Cluster two</th>
<th>Cluster three</th>
<th>Cluster four</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>01</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
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Table II
Standardized Scores of OCDQ and PSES
listed for each of the local schools

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<th>Local School Code No.</th>
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<th>PSES</th>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>58.38</td>
<td>55.87</td>
</tr>
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</table>

$\overline{X} = 50$

SD = 10
Table III

Forty local schools broken down as to level and location.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of school</th>
<th>Code number of local schools in the study</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elementary, suburban</td>
<td>01, 02, 03, 04, 05, 06, 07, 08, 09, 12, 14, 34, 46</td>
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<tr>
<td>Elementary, New York City</td>
<td>11, 13, 15, 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior High School, suburban</td>
<td>22, 26, 41, 44, 45, 50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior High School, New York City</td>
<td>17, 27, 30, 33, 35, 38, 39, 43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School, suburban</td>
<td>29, 31, 36, 37, 42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School, New York City</td>
<td>19, 20, 21, 40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Elementary Schools 17
Junior High Schools 14
High Schools 9
Total 40

Suburban Schools 24
Urban Schools 16
Total 40
Table IV
Profile of the P-Clusters that form S-Cluster (I) (Explanatory profile)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standardized Scores</th>
<th>OCDQ 1</th>
<th>OCDQ 2</th>
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<th>OCDQ 4</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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</table>

All schools in P-Cluster A, B, C, and F were grouped in S-Cluster I.
Table V
Table of Means

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OCDO Factors</th>
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<th>Cluster three</th>
<th>Cluster four</th>
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<tr>
<td>1+</td>
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<td>31.30</td>
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<td>4-</td>
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<table>
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<td>3</td>
<td>17.24</td>
<td>15.51</td>
<td>18.97</td>
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Table VI
Organizational Structure Grid
Means and standard deviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>St. Deviation</th>
<th>No. of Items</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personnel</td>
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<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
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<tr>
<td>Curriculum</td>
<td>10.0250</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admin. Pol.</td>
<td>8.3000</td>
<td>2.9889</td>
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<tr>
<td>Comm. Rel</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Local School</th>
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<th>St. Deviation</th>
<th>No. of Items</th>
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<tr>
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<td>Curriculum</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principal's Perception</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>St. Deviation</th>
<th>No. of Items</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>------</td>
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APPENDIX C
A Theoretical Statement on Self-Enhancement as a Human Psycho-social Drive Central to the Attainment of Organizational Goals

A partial explanation of the Professional Self-Enhancement Scale. 
Rationale for a Theory of Self-Enhancement

The life-long quest for self-enhancement is a preoccupation of every human organism. This quest is always personal; however, the enhancing factors of self can be transferred to groups of other human beings if the need for enhancement can be satisfied through collective and cooperative behavior. In order to elicit positively directed energy toward attainment of group goals, the individual organizational member must perceive the group as a self-rewarding collection of people. The more rewarding the group behavior is to individual members, the more energy the group elicits from each member to obtain and maintain his membership and to achieve group goals. The greater the self-enhancement rewards perceived as accruing by group membership, the more the group becomes attractive. Power to reward or punish members of a group (organization) can be used to coerce behavior, but there is full commitment of energy only when the results of committed energy are perceived as resulting in self-enhancing accrual that is cumulative; in power, security, and prestige. The amount of energy and time the human is willing to give to achieve organizational goals (unless coerced) will be proportionate to the extent the organism perceives his endeavors as satisfactorily maintaining good self-image and leading toward further enhancement of self-image.

The organizational member who perceives in the organization's processes and goals no self-enhancing factors but instead threat to his power, prestige, and security will devote time and energy proportionate to the amount of perceived threat to change or defeat the organization's processes or goals.

If there is relatively little threat to self-enhancement but no accrual of self-enhancement, the energy given to the organization's enterprise will be at a minimum. In such a climate the organization member will devote time and energy to an environment outside of the organization in his search for self-enhancement. Under such conditions he will give to the organization only the time and energy minimally necessary to maintain the security of his role and function.

If through carrying out or cooperating in proposed organization processes or goals the member feels unimportant, demeaned, or economically threatened, he will exhibit anti-goal and anti-organization behavior. The amount of anti-organization behavior exhibited will be proportionate to the degree to which the enterprise, either in its processes or its goals, is perceived as denigrating to self or threatening to future self-enhancement.

Organizations that are closed in structure limit or coerce the behavior
of their members. Self-enhancement may then be sought through covert anti-organization behaviors which take the form of informal organizational structures. In organizations with closed structures, informal organizations opposing the organization will proliferate.

In organizations, recognition of members can be provided through many avenues ranging from formal recognition through election or assignment to positions of authority and responsibility, material rewards, to informal recognition in day-to-day human interactions.

The successful functioning of an organization can be defeated by any subgroup of the organization if this group feels threatened or unrewarded. In the public-school organization careful consideration in terms of self-enhancement must be given to students, teachers, and middle management as well as to all ancillary sub-groups of professionals.

Hypotheses

1. The organizational member will expend energy toward achieving organizational goals to the degree that he perceives his involvement as fulfilling self-enhancement needs, either immediately or in the future.

2. The organizational member will expend energy to subvert or block organizational goals to the degree that he perceives his involvement as not fulfilling self-enhancement needs or as threatening to his present power, security, or prestige.

3. When the organizational member as a member of an organization perceives either the goal attainment of the institution or the process utilized to reach the goal as a threat to this power, status, or prestige, he will expend energy in anti-goal behavior in direct relationship to the perceived degree of threat. Anti-goal behavior will range from physical aggression and hostility to passivity and withdrawal.

4. Human fear is generally centralized around loss of or blocking of the self-enhancing syndrome of power, prestige, and security or any part of it. The degree of perceived threat and the resultant fear possessed by the organizational member either individually or as a member of a group will be in direct relationship to the dysfunction of the organization.

5. When formal organizational structure, procedures, and human interaction produce elements of threat and fear, informal organizational structures will develop in order to provide the members of the organization with an arena for establishing self-enhancing behavior. The development and use of informal organizations opposed to organizational processes and goals will be directly related to the degree of self-enhancing inhibition imposed by the formal organizational structure and organizational processes.
6. When organizational processes or goals of the organization are perceived by its members as threatening to either personal power, status, or security, rationalization on the part of the members as to why they are unable to carry out the organizational policies and directives will proliferate. This device protects self-image and subverts organizational objectives.

7. Ego-defense mechanisms on the part of organizational members will be prevalent in situations where the organization is tightly structured or closed.

8. When the formal structure of an organization is open, it permits many avenues for self-enhancement, e.g., some degree of autonomy, recognition, and responsibility in many areas of organizational goal-setting and achievement. The need for informal organizations is greatly reduced: and informal organizations are mostly of a social nature.

9. Organizational members will work cooperatively toward achieving group-identified goals provided the members of the group perceive the group to be attractive and view the attainment of group-defined goals as rewarding self-enhancement.

Principles Supporting a Theory of Self-Enhancement as a Motivating Force in the Functioning of Organizations

1. The human animal is social by nature. He is social in his need for other humans and selfish in his need to develop autonomy. His constant need is to perceive from humans he respects and admires reflections of his uniqueness, his importance, his worth, his professional appearance, and his potential capabilities.

2. In organizational settings, when the member of the organization is involved or chosen as a member of a special group, trusted or depended upon or given recognition, the energy output of the organizational member increases. The research conducted at the Hawthorne Works of Western Electric Company, published in 1937, and many subsequent studies, have demonstrated this phenomenon of human behavior. The “Hawthorne” or “halo” effect noted in many studies is no more or no less than a revelation of the effect of some perceived self-enhancement in the enterprise.

3. Threat produces fear. Fear and self-enhancement are co-determinous. When fear of self-denigration (loss of face, of respect, of confidence) dominates over self-enhancement in an enterprise, energy flows not toward achieving goals in this arena, but toward blocking achievement. When self-enhancement in the operation of an organization is denied or threatened, personal behavior and/or group behavior (informal organization) will result in reduced energy toward organizational goal achievement. If the threat to self-enhancement is great, there will be increased energy in both open and
subverted opposition toward preventing organizational achievement.

4. Organizations, institutions, and bureaucracies that are closed in structure and whose operation limits the number of avenues and areas available to members of the organization to find self-enhancing pursuits will produce limited energy toward organizational goal-achievement and will proliferate informal organizations with anti-organization intent. While organizations that are more open in structure and whose operation provides greater opportunities for individual members to find enhancing endeavors in harmony with their interests and skills will channel human energy toward organizational goal-achievement, and there will be a reduced need for informal organizations.

5. Organizational members' recognition of worth and professional respect is provided through many avenues ranging from formal recognition of important assignments and responsibilities to the members' perceptions of informal recognitions in the day-by-day human interactions. Humans who have developed strong self-images need less immediate feedback as to their status than those who are not certain of who they are or what they are. The human who is well developed socially and psychologically can project his future and devote time and energy to attain self-enhancing goals far in the future. Lasting self-enhancing goals are those that earn the gratitude of many other humans. Jonas Salk, Martin Luther King may serve as examples.
Model: The energy given by members of an organization toward achieving goals is in direct proportion to the members' perception of self-enhancement accrual or threat in the organization's objectives and procedures.
ASSESSMENT OF ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

Responsibility-Authority Domain - SYSTEM
According to written policy and established procedures, responsibility and authority is exercised for the most part as described below:

Check the category which most nearly describes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Critical Areas in the processes of formal education</th>
<th>Central Administration</th>
<th>Central and local school administration &amp; consultation</th>
<th>Administration of local school</th>
<th>Local school administration in consultation with staff</th>
<th>Local school administration with staff participation</th>
<th>Other*</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Recruitment of staff</td>
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<td>3. Assignment of teachers</td>
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<td>4. Orientation of new teachers</td>
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<td>5. Evaluation of instruction</td>
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<td>6. Granting of tenure</td>
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When the category "other" is checked, write a paragraph describing the procedure used and attach to this form.
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<tr>
<th>Critical Areas in the processes of formal education</th>
<th>Central Administration</th>
<th>Central and local school administration &amp; consultation</th>
<th>Administration of local school in consultation with staff</th>
<th>Local school administration with staff participation</th>
<th>Other*</th>
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<td>7. Supervision of teachers - observation</td>
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<td>8. Inservice education - implementation of district plan</td>
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<td>9. Inservice education - local school initiation</td>
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<td>10. Curriculum change - local school initiation</td>
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<td>11. Curriculum change - implementation</td>
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<td>12. Establishing change procedures</td>
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<td>13. Evaluating school curriculum</td>
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<td>14. Establishing class size</td>
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<td>15. Grouping children for instruction</td>
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<td>16. Utilization of community resources</td>
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<td>17. Informing parents of school achievement</td>
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<td>18. Informing parents of school goals</td>
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<td>19. Reporting pupil progress</td>
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</table>
Professional Self-enhancement Scale (PSES)
QUEENS COLLEGE
of the City University of New York

Please fill out the following information:

Sex ______ Age ______ Number of years teaching experience ______

DIRECTIONS

This questionnaire consists of a number of statements about things which may or may not characterize your school. Look at the example below:

A. Teachers work toward some goal the school has set for them.
   1. Strongly agree
   2. Agree
   3. Disagree
   4. Strongly disagree

Which of these four alternatives (strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree) is more characteristic of your school? If you strongly agree that teachers work toward some goal the school has set for them, you should circle 1. If you agree that teachers work toward some goal the school has set for them, you should circle 2. If you disagree that teachers work toward some goal the school has set for them, you should circle 3. If you strongly disagree that teachers work toward some goal the school has set for them, you should circle 4. If more than one alternative characterizes your school, then you should choose the one which you think is most characteristic. If none of the alternatives characterizes your school, then you should choose the one which you consider to be the least inaccurate.

Your choice, in each instance, should be in terms of the extent to which each statement characterizes your school, and not in terms of what you think should characterize your school or how you think you should feel. This is not a test. There are no right or wrong answers. Your choices should be a description of your school. Make a choice for every statement; do not skip any.

The statements on the following pages are similar to the example given above. Read each statement and pick out one alternative that best describes your school.

For each numbered item draw a circle around the 1, 2, 3, or 4 to indicate the answer you have chosen.

Thank you for your cooperation.
QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Teachers and the administration decide upon local school policy.
   1. Strongly agree
   2. Agree
   3. Disagree
   4. Strongly disagree

2. When planning, the principal solicits suggestions from teachers.
   1. Strongly agree
   2. Agree
   3. Disagree
   4. Strongly disagree

3. Teachers’ professional opinions and ideas of teachers are valued by the administration.
   1. Strongly agree
   2. Agree
   3. Disagree
   4. Strongly disagree

4. Teachers’ professional opinions and ideas are used by the administration.
   1. Strongly agree
   2. Agree
   3. Disagree
   4. Strongly disagree

5. Teachers are rewarded for the introduction of innovation and change in their daily routine.
   1. Strongly agree
   2. Agree
   3. Disagree
   4. Strongly disagree

6. Teachers are encouraged to discuss new ideas in curriculum and teaching.
   1 Strongly agree
   2 Agree
   3 Disagree
   4 Strongly disagree
7. The entire school staff is involved in the evaluation of the curriculum.
   1. Strongly agree
   2. Agree
   3. Disagree
   4. Strongly disagree

8. The administration encourages teachers to participate in discussions about curriculum.
   1. Strongly agree
   2. Agree
   3. Disagree
   4. Strongly disagree

9. The teacher is expected to try new and different methods - rather than to continue with the status quo.
   1. Strongly agree
   2. Agree
   3. Disagree
   4. Strongly disagree

10. Teachers help plan workshops concerning their particular professional problems.
    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Disagree
    4. Strongly disagree

11. The administration encourages teachers to make decisions about teaching.
    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Disagree
    4. Strongly disagree

12. Teachers are expected to try new ideas in curriculum and teaching.
    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Disagree
    4. Strongly disagree
13. Administrators are considered to be recognized authorities in their profession by the teachers in their schools.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Disagree
4. Strongly disagree

14. Innovation in curriculum and teaching is encouraged by the administration.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Disagree
4. Strongly disagree

15. Teachers are involved in local school policy decision.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Disagree
4. Strongly disagree

16. Teacher judgment is respected in matters of curriculum.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Disagree
4. Strongly disagree

17. Teacher judgment is respected in matters of teaching and materials.

1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. Disagree
4. Strongly disagree

18. Teachers share with their colleagues latest advances in educational research and theory.

1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. Disagree
4. Strongly disagree
19. Teachers are expected to indicate when they disagree with administration decisions.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Disagree
4. Strongly disagree

20. Teachers are encouraged to participate in new experimental programs.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Disagree
4. Strongly disagree

21. The principal uses the special knowledge of teachers.

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Disagree
4. Strongly disagree
Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ)

QUEENS COLLEGE
of the City University of New York
Flushing, N. Y.

Directions

This questionnaire consists of a number of statements about things which may or may not characterize your school. Look at the example below:

A. Teachers work toward some goal the school has set for them.

1. Rarely occurs
2. Sometimes occurs
3. Often occurs
4. Very frequently occurs

Which of these four alternatives (rarely occurs, sometimes occurs, often occurs, very frequently occurs) is more characteristic of your school? If teachers rarely work toward some goal the school has set for them, you should circle 1. If teachers sometimes work toward some goal the school has set for them, you should circle 2. If teachers often work toward some goal the school has set for them, you should circle 3. If teachers very frequently work toward some goal the school has set for them, you should circle 4. If more than one alternative characterizes your school, then you should choose the one which you think is more characteristic. If none of the alternatives accurately characterizes your school, then you should choose the one which you consider to be least inaccurate.

Your choice, in each instance, should be in terms of the extent to which each statement characterizes your school, and not in terms of what you think should characterize your school or how you think you should feel. This is not a test. There are no right or wrong answers. Your choices should be a description of your school. Make a choice for every statement; do not skip any.

The statements on the following pages are similar to the example given above. Read each statement and pick out one alternative that better describes your school.

For each numbered item draw a circle around the 1, 2, 3, or 4 to indicate the answer you have chosen.

DO NOT TURN THIS PAGE UNTIL THE EXAMINER TELLS YOU TO START.
1. Teachers' closest friends are other faculty members at this school.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

2. The mannerisms of teachers at this school are annoying.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

3. Teachers spend time after school with students who have individual problems.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

4. Instructions for the operation of teaching aids are available.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

5. Teachers invite other faculty members to visit them at home.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

6. There is a minority group of teachers who always oppose the majority.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs
7. Extra books are available for classroom use.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

8. Sufficient time is given to prepare administrative reports.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

9. Teachers know the family background of other faculty members.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

10. Teachers exert group pressure on nonconforming faculty members.
    1. rarely occurs
    2. sometimes occurs
    3. often occurs
    4. very frequently occurs

11. In faculty meetings, there is the feeling of "let's get things done."
    1. rarely occurs
    2. sometimes occurs
    3. often occurs
    4. very frequently occurs

12. Administrative paperwork is burdensome at this school.
    1. rarely occurs
    2. sometimes occurs
    3. often occurs
    4. very frequently occurs
13. Teachers talk about their personal life to other faculty members.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

14. Teachers seek special favors from the principal.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

15. School supplies are readily available for use in classwork.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

16. Student progress reports require too much work.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

17. Teachers have fun socializing together during school time.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

18. Teachers interrupt other faculty members who are talking in staff meetings.
    1. rarely occurs
    2. sometimes occurs
    3. often occurs
    4. very frequently occurs
19. Most of the teachers here accept the faults of their colleagues.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

20. Teachers have too many committee requirements.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

21. There is considerable laughter when teachers gather informally.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

22. Teachers ask nonsensical questions in faculty meetings.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

23. Custodial service is available when needed.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

24. Routine duties interfere with the job of teaching.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs
25. Teachers prepare administrative reports by themselves.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

26. Teachers ramble when they talk in faculty meetings.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

27. Teachers at this school show much school spirit.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

28. The principal goes out of his way to help teachers.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

29. The principal helps teachers solve personal problems.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

30. Teachers at this school stay by themselves.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs
31. The teachers accomplish their work with great vim, vigor, and pleasure.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

32. The principal sets an example by working hard himself.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

33. The principal does personal favors for teachers.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

34. Teachers eat lunch by themselves in their own classrooms.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

35. The morale of the teachers is high.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

36. The principal uses constructive criticism.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs
37. The principal stays after school to help teachers finish their work.

1. rarely occurs
2. sometimes occurs
3. often occurs
4. very frequently occurs

38. Teachers socialize together in small select groups.

1. rarely occurs
2. sometimes occurs
3. often occurs
4. very frequently occurs

39. The principal makes all class-scheduling decisions.

1. rarely occurs
2. sometimes occurs
3. often occurs
4. very frequently occurs

40. Teachers are contacted by the principal each day.

1. rarely occurs
2. sometimes occurs
3. often occurs
4. very frequently occurs

41. The principal is well prepared when he speaks at school functions.

1. rarely occurs
2. sometimes occurs
3. often occurs
4. very frequently occurs

42. The principal helps staff members settle minor differences.

1. rarely occurs
2. sometimes occurs
3. often occurs
4. very frequently occurs
43. The principal schedules the work for the teachers.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

44. Teachers leave the grounds during the school day.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

45. The principal criticizes a specific act rather than a staff member.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

46. Teachers help select which courses will be taught.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

47. The principal corrects teachers' mistakes.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

48. The principal talks a great deal.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs
49. The principal explains his reasons for criticism to teachers.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

50. The principal tries to get better salaries for teachers.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

51. Extra duty for teachers is posted conspicuously.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

52. The rules set by the principal are never questioned.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

53. The principal looks out for the personal welfare of teachers.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

54. School secretarial service is available for teachers' use.
   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs
55. The principal runs the faculty meeting like a business conference.

1. rarely occurs
2. sometimes occurs
3. often occurs
4. very frequently occurs

56. The principal is in the building before teachers arrive.

1. rarely occurs
2. sometimes occurs
3. often occurs
4. very frequently occurs

57. Teachers work together preparing administrative reports.

1. rarely occurs
2. sometimes occurs
3. often occurs
4. very frequently occurs

58. Faculty meetings are organized according to a tight agenda.

1. rarely occurs
2. sometimes occurs
3. often occurs
4. very frequently occurs

59. Faculty meetings are mainly principal-report meetings.

1. rarely occurs
2. sometimes occurs
3. often occurs
4. very frequently occurs

60. The principal tells teachers of new ideas he has run across.

1. rarely occurs
2. sometimes occurs
3. often occurs
4. very frequently occurs
61. Teachers talk about leaving the school system.

   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

62. The principal checks the subject-matter ability of teachers.

   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

63. The principal is easy to understand.

   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

64. Teachers are informed of the results of a supervisor's visit.

   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

65. Grading practices are standardized at this school.

   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs

66. The principal insures that teachers work to their full capacity.

   1. rarely occurs
   2. sometimes occurs
   3. often occurs
   4. very frequently occurs
67. Teachers leave the building as soon as possible at day's end.

1. rarely occurs
2. sometimes occurs
3. often occurs
4. very frequently occurs

68. The principal clarifies wrong ideas a teacher may have.

1. rarely occurs
2. sometimes occurs
3. often occurs
4. very frequently occurs

69. Schedule changes are posted conspicuously at this school.

1. rarely occurs
2. sometimes occurs
3. often occurs
4. very frequently occurs
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