THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHERS' BELIEF SYSTEMS AND PERCEPTIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE IN HIGH AND LOW CHANGE-ORIENTED ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

By

HELEN LOUISE HUMMELKE

Bachelor of Arts in Education
Wichita State University
Wichita, Kansas
1965

Master of Education
Wichita State University
Wichita, Kansas
1969

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of the Oklahoma State University
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Thesis Approved:

Thesis Adviser

Dean of the Graduate College

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND ITS SETTING

Introduction

Historically, American public education has had many critics. Education in the 1970's was no exception. Macdonald (1975) offered the perspective that:

> . . . in no other . . . society has so much been hoped for, asked from, given to, or taken on by the schools . . . it is not difficult to understand why schools in America have been a focal point for criticism (p. 12).

Today, people throughout the country lack confidence in their schools. Parents and the taxpaying public have been affected by personal experiences as well as media accounts and have begun to demand improvement (Wellborn, 1979).

Contemporary dissatisfactions with the schools involve the basic issue of accountability, which has resulted in recent actions by state legislatures and/or local school boards across the country to establish criteria for competency-based education and testing of students for mastery of basic skills (Ragan and Shepherd, 1977).

Additionally, the issue of accountability focuses on the question of teacher competence. The 11th Annual Gallop Poll of the Public's Attitude Toward the Public Schools (Gallup, 1979) has indicated that 85 percent of those polled answered "yes" to questions relative to whether teachers should be required to pass a state board examination before

they are hired; and, whether after employment, teachers should be tested every few years to see if they are keeping up-to-date.

Doubt about teacher competence can be further demonstrated by the numbers of state legislatures and local school districts across the country that are incorporating competency-based teacher preparation and certification plans as part of the procedures for hiring and/or retaining teachers. These plans often include provision that teachers must pass a written examination that objectively confirms mastery of subject matter knowledge and skills ("Testing Teachers," 1979).

Such efforts to assure competence have created an imbalance in relative concerns for product (or accountability) and process (or improvement) dimensions in American public education. According to Usher and Hanke (1971) what teachers know is important; but the primary "tool" with which they work is themselves. How teachers use and feel about what they know is equally important. Beniskos (1971) made the distinction that in teaching, skills are those things which a teacher adds to what s/he already is. There are process indices of teacher competence that cannot be easily and quantitatively assessed. For example, teachers' belief systems and the interpersonal relationships between teachers and between teachers and principal are subjective, qualitative variables affecting the school environment and serving as the foundation for specific changes in the quality of education.

Rationale

Elementary schools differ in their orientation to change. They differ in their willingness to improve and innovate in problem solving and decision making situations concerned with planning and implementing

of individual and group goals and purposes. Improving the effectiveness of teaching in schools seems to depend on how the nature of change and the person of the teacher are viewed.

Contemporary educational literature reflects what has been learned about change in respect to the failures of past change efforts. The literature represents a more pragmatic and less analytical view than earlier literature on change, which typically discussed how change could happen in a bureaucratic organization and according to social systems theory itself. Research efforts specifically designed to uncover explanations for the generally considered widespread failure of most innovation during recent years of reform in the 1960-1970's identify distinct lists of "dos and don'ts" for the design and greater success of future change strategies.

Herriott and Gross (1979) pointed out that change is of a complex nature with multiple and interrelated factors influencing it. Hall and Loucks (1978-1979) provided representative description of basic assumptions about the nature of change. In their discussion about the need to individualize and personalize staff development/change efforts, they related the following assumptions. Change is a process and not an event. Change takes time and is achieved only in stages. It is developmental in nature. Institutions cannot change until the individual persons within them change. Thus, the individual person must be the primary target of interventions designed to facilitate change. Change is a highly personal experience. Specifically, the perceptions and feelings of the person experiencing the change process is a dimension that often is of more critical importance to the success or failure of change efforts than is the technological dimension. Furthermore,

individuals involved in change go through stages in their perceptions and feelings about the innovation itself as well as stages in their skill and sophistication in using the methods and materials of change.

In reporting on the RAND Change Agent study, McLaughlin and March (1978-1979, p. 69) stated that "we have learned that the problem of reform or change is more a function of people and organizations than of technology." Lieberman and Miller (1978-1979) indicated agreement in stating that improvement efforts must be carried on by persons who understand and care about the work life of teachers as well as the ideas they present to teachers. According to conclusions of the RAND study, "successful change" and "staff development" are essentially synonymous. Factors related to successful change and important in staff development have been identified in reports of the RAND study and include the following: collaborative planning and implementation strategies, teacher beliefs, organizational climate, and leadership.

Collaborative strategies that actively involve teachers in making decisions about the planning and implementing of change efforts communicates to teachers that administrators view them as competent, which further contributes to a "sense of ownership" on the part of teachers for the change effort. The RAND study suggested that a "Pygmalion effect" of sorts may operate in change projects that seek teacher participation in decision making. Also, teachers own views about their competence influence their sense of efficacy or belief that they can help even the most difficult or unmotivated students. As well, the quality of the school's organizational climate, its _esprit de corps_, efficiency, and effective management influence the quality of working relationships among teachers and enhance the continued use of methods

and materials which were a part of the initial change efforts. Finally, from the outset and throughout a project, active involvement of both the principal and central office administrators is vital to maintenance of changes. It is the principal who is chiefly responsible for establishing the school's policies and philosophy; and it is her/his efforts of team building and problem solving in the improvement process that relate directly to the success of change efforts.

Other writers discuss the effects of collaborative change strategies, teacher beliefs, the organizational climate, and leadership in terms of the person of the teacher. If change is to happen, there is no substitute for respecting the individual uniqueness and worth of persons and trusting in one another's potential to be and to do. Thus, it appears that the problem of change in our schools and teacher competence must focus on the improvement process rather than on accountability of an end product. There must be primarily greater concern than presently exists for analysis of teacher competence rather than for appraisal of competence. The improvement process seems to hinge on interdependence, cooperation, and open communication among persons. In this spirit, the researcher has considered the following premise in this investigation.

If change is more a function of persons and organizations than technology, then it seems reasonable to assume that focused belief systems and open climate would exist in high change-oriented schools. Further, it seems reasonable to assume that eclectic belief systems and closed climates would exist in low change-oriented schools. Finally, if leadership is the important motivator of a sense of mission in change efforts, then it seems reasonable to assume that focused belief systems and positive leader behavior would exist among principals in high

change-oriented schools rather than among principals in low change-oriented schools.

Statement of the Problem

Review of the literature indicates concern for measures of intangible, qualitative factors that contribute to teacher behavior and improvement in our schools. In regard to interests in teacher effectiveness, current research efforts appear to emphasize quantitative analysis of factors that allow for objective assessment of teacher behavior. The result has been creation of an imbalance in relative concerns between the basic questions: "what works with whom?" and "what is happening here and why?" This study seeks to contribute towards answering the latter question.

Specifically, this study sought to determine whether there is a relationship between the qualitative environmental variables of belief systems of elementary classroom teachers and their perceptions of organizational climate in independently identified and categorized high and low change-oriented schools. This study seeks to investigate the relationships among beliefs, climate, and change orientation.

Answers to the following questions were explored: (1) Is there a significant relationship between teachers' belief systems and perceptions of organizational climate in high and low change-oriented elementary schools? (2) Are there significant relationships among the principal's belief system, her/his leader behavior, and the school's orientation to change?

Additionally, an answer to the following ancillary question was explored: Are there significant relationships between the organizational

climate and the following individual beliefs: the nature of man, the nature of motivation, the conditions of learning, the conditions of social learning, the nature of intellectual development, the nature of knowledge, the nature of society, the nature of instruction, the nature of curriculum, the nature of organization, the nature of content, the nature of materials and resources, and the nature of evaluation.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to contribute descriptive analysis and interpretation of data representative of present conditions regarding the elementary school's orientation to change as indicated by measures of the undergirding environmental factors of beliefs and climate. This study proposes to fill gaps in formulation of educational theory regarding the analysis of qualitative factors that affect teacher behavior and improvement in our schools. If a significant relationship were found to exist between beliefs and climate in high and low change-oriented schools, then perhaps the design and methodology of this study might serve as a model for initial procedures for individual building level program planning for change and/or a school system's staff development efforts.

Based on the researcher's assumptions, the specific research objective of this study was to investigate the following research hypotheses:

1. There is a significant relationship between teachers' belief systems and perceptions of organizational climate in high and low change-oriented elementary schools.

2. There is a significant relationship among the principal's belief system, her/his leader behavior, and the school's orientation to change.

The following research hypothesis relates to the ancillary question posited in this study:

> There are significant relationships between the organizational climate and the following individual beliefs: the nature of man, the nature of motivation, the conditions of learning, the conditions of social learning, the nature of intellectual development, the nature of knowledge, the nature of society, the nature of instruction, the nature of curriculum, the nature of organization, the nature of content, the nature of materials and resources, and the nature of evaluation.

Definitions of Terms

The following definitions were used for this investigation:

Change - planned, systematic, complex, and difficult set of processes substantially distinct from the routine ongoing processes of maintaining teaching and learning.

Change-oriented - disposition to respond in relevant and flexible manner when confronting problem solving and decision making situations concerning individual and group goals and purposes.

High change-oriented - willingness to innovate and improve; evidence in outcome measures that reflect results of efforts in open communication, and positive, interdependent, and cooperative decision making skills.

Low change-oriented - individualism, isolation, dependence on outside authority and subgrouping in the school organization; passive rather than active response to needs of the organization; minimal involvement beyond boundaries of classroom responsibilities.

Belief system - countless beliefs or inferences made about truth of physical world, social reality, and the self organized in some psychological form, highly resistant to change and may be consistent or

contradictory.

Focused belief system - an internally consistent set of philosophical concepts, a point of view that reflects honest and consonant values, insights, and understandings and a mode of behavior that results from such a point of view; a prevailing philosophy.

Eclectic belief system - result of the process of picking and choosing ideas and concepts from various philosophical systems and attempting to put them together without regard to consistency or interrelatedness.

Organizational climate - set of internal characteristics that distinguishes one school from another and influences the behavior of persons in it. Climate is conceptualized along a continuum ranging from "open" to "closed" as reflected by teachers' interpersonal relationships with one another and the principal's leader behavior.

Open climate - energetic, lively organization that is moving towards its goals and which provides satisfaction for the group members' social needs. Leader behavior appropriately emerges from the principal and group members. There is balance in task achievement and satisfaction of social needs. The main characteristic is the "authenticity" of behavior; and "functional flexibility" exists.

Closed climate - high degree of apathy on the part of all members of the organization. The organization is not "moving" and esprit is low because group members secure neither social needs satisfactions nor satisfactions that come from task accomplishment. Members' behavior can be construed as "inauthentic." The organization seems to be stagnant; and "functional rigidity" exists.

Behavior - performance; verbalizations and overt actions resulting

from the individual's perceptions, feelings, attitudes, and thoughts.

Leader - an individual in a given position of apparently high influence potential.

Leadership - active, purposeful, skilled influencing of people to facilitate change.

Role - a norm embedded within the school organization to which all are expected to subscribe.

Personhood - the affirmation of one's unique self and one's perceived reality as opposed to functioning according to the norm of an assigned role.

Assumptions

The following major assumptions are critical to this study:

1. Curriculum improvement attempts are based on short-run fads rather than long-term change strategies.

2. Educational practices do not necessarily reflect needed priorities.

3. Curriculum understanding is primarily the result of individual efforts, since preservice and inservice education emphasizes techniques.

4. People desire to contribute and accomplish.

5. There exists potential among staff members for greater commitment to the school's ultimate purpose of service to students and society.

6. Teacher behavior is based on educational philosophy and interpersonal relationships.

7. Educators have belief systems, although they may be relatively

unaware of them.

8. Classroom climate generally reflects school climate.

9. Open communication is necessary if staff relations are interdependent and cooperative in nature.

10. Basic to meaningful change is leader behavior which communicates vision of purpose and expectations.

Limitations

For the purpose of this study, the following limitations apply:

1. This study selectively sought to measure two independent variables in the educational environment in high and low change-oriented elementary schools: the philosophical belief systems of classroom teachers and principals and their perceptions of the school climate as identified by dimensions of group interactions and leader behavior.

2. The sample of the study was derived from a limited number of subjects in a limited number of elementary schools in one urban public school district located in the midwest area of the United States. Selection of schools was done by a committee of central administrative leaders within the district according to the researcher's suggested criteria.

3. Individual participation by regular classroom teachers and principals from within the selected schools was voluntary. The instruments were left with each potential participant so that completion might be at the individual teacher or principal's convenience during several days time, which, with rare exception, included a weekend.

4. Inferences can be made only to the respective subjects from whom the data came. No conclusions are extended beyond the groups

described, and any similarity to those outside the groups cannot be taken for granted.

5. The statistics can be used only as descriptions and not as evaluations of individuals or schools represented in the study.

6. This study does not include measurement of certified personnel serving in special education or support positions outside the regular classroom.

7. It is surmised that the variables are related additionally to demographic factors including age, size and other physical characteristics of the school buildings, their location in the innercity or suburb, and the number, age, and sex of students; to the biographical and personality measures of teachers and principals including age, sex, education, number of years teaching experience, and length of assignment in the present building; and to the "political flavor" and values of the school community and district.

8. A limitation may exist due to the philosophical bias of the researcher.

9. The length of time for this study was restricted to approximately six months.

Summary

Chapter I has provided the general background for this study, the significance of the study, a statement of the problem investigated, and the purpose of the study. Terms were defined, and assumptions and limitations were identified. Chapter II presents review of literature and conceptual framework including summary of previous research and related writings of experts in the field. Chapter III presents a description of

the instruments used in the study and the procedures involved in their use. Chapter IV presents the statistical analysis of the data collected in the study. And, Chapter V summarizes the entire study, presents findings, gives conclusions, and makes recommendations of areas for further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Introduction

One way to study change-orientation in schools is to consider process variables that influence teacher behavior; because for institutions to change, the individual persons within them must change. In the words of Sanders and Sanders (1978, p. 14), ". . . the person of the teacher is the most important factor in the learning process."

Hoy and Miskel (1978) indicated the way a person behaves in an educational organization is determined in part by the kind of person s/he is and in part by the organizational setting. Qualitative factors that contribute to teacher behavior would include the teacher's philosophical beliefs about educational theory and practice (as an index of the kind of person s/he is) and perceptions of interpersonal relations between teachers and between teachers and principal or the school climate (as an index of the organizational setting). Within this framework, institutional or school change can be studied as being dependent upon change in individuals involved in group situations.

This chapter presents selected review of the writings and research of experts concerning relationships among the concepts of change-orientation in schools, individual belief systems, organizational climate, and leader behavior. A brief summary of previous research that has used the Educational Beliefs System Inventory and Educational

Practice Belief Inventory (EBSI-EPBI) (Dobson et al., 1978) or the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) (Halpin and Croft, 1963) is also presented. Areas of agreement and disagreement are included throughout. The chapter ends with a summary.

Change and Accountability

Review of the literature on change reflects concern about what accountability means, what it involves, and what its strengths and limitations might be. Various explanations have been used to define "accountability." According to Hayman and Napier (1975) it is a demand by the public that education be held responsible for the result it achieves. Seeley (1979) argued that accountability is the issue of improved teacher performance.

The latter view considers accountability as if it were determined on the basis of input and demonstrates that teacher competence can be judged in ways similar to a textbook or film. The prior view considers accountability as if it were determined on the basis of output and demonstrates that teacher competence can be judged as if an instructional manager were solely responsible for quality. Current emphasis on teacher results or performance represents emphasis on product or productivity involved in the technical or deficit design of change efforts. Thus, accountability is generally associated with deciding on goals, planning for their achievement, and designing methods for their objective evaluation.

However, House (1975) suggested that an accountability scheme which applies a deficit design or mechanical solution to change in individuals is simplistic. Similarly, Jackson (1968) identified the major weakness

of what he has called the "engineering" point of view for looking at the teaching process as beginning with an oversimplified image of what goes on in school. More specifically, Pino (1975) described current plans for competency testing of teachers as being attempts to measure the degree of uniformity in regurgitating quantitative achievement of past learning, given present memorization and review efforts. He cautioned that competency testing of teachers emphasizes maintenance of teacher results and remediation of teacher performance; and, not necessarily improved education.

On the other hand, DeNovellis and Lewis (1975) concluded that more effective accountability would seek to avoid emphasizing product over process, since an overemphasis on product contributes to preoccupation with achievement of immediate goals. But, if accountability is to result in improved education, the issue first demands reconstruction of goals and agreement on which goals have highest priority. As well, the power to make these decisions should be in the hands of the majority who will be held "accountable."

Additionally, Webb (1977) indicated that constant study and revision in planning and implementing change efforts at the building level should be a deliberate part of the decision making process, because such activity would provide ongoing educative experience for all. Mayberry (1977, p. 643) provided reinforcement of Webb's position by suggesting that ". . . continuous professional growth is probably the most important characteristic of a competent teacher." Finally, Bushnell (1975) also noted that group participation in change efforts is influential in changing individual behavior.

However, Seeley (1979) reminded that although teacher behavior is

an important factor in change efforts, it is only one of the factors in the issue of accountability. Everyone involved in the schooling process has responsibilities if the public's confidence in the schooling process is to be restored.

Change and Goals for the Future

Review of the literature on change reflects consideration of appropriate or adequate goals of education for the possible future states of society. According to Holtzman (1978) there is presently no consensus as to goals and priorities attached to goals in education. There is crisis of belief in authority; there is shrinkage of leadership in education. Furthermore, basic research and theory are essential before new significant practices are implemented. He opined, as well, that only one thing seems certain: the public schools cannot afford to be all things to all people. Rubin (1978) expressed a similar viewpoint. He stated that it has been lack of consensus on goals and diversity in views that has resulted in the usual policy being no policy in education. Thirdly, Ebel (1972) stated that

> . . . we seem to have lost sight of, or become confused about, our main function as educators, our principal goal, our reason for existence. We have no good answer that we are sure of and can agree on to the question, what are schools for (p. 3)?

It is amidst such circumstances that perhaps the most important task presently facing education is that of restoring faith and confidence of the American public in our system of public education. In order order to restore faith, according to Goldman (1977), decisions concerning school changes need to be made in accord with what people want the future to be. Thus, the most important challenge facing educational decision makers is that of identifying desirable goals for the future. He

made the distinction that decisions about goals need to be made in terms of what persons believe or desire the future to be rather than in terms of the past or present. Amara (1976) also made the point that education must anticipate and facilitate change and not merely reflect society. For instance, Toffler (1970) expressed concern for what he has viewed as the serious gap that exists between environmental change and the pace of human response, including education's response.

The literature on change reflects various predictions about possible futures. However, many experts in the field have written that education must recognize the importance of new fundamentals. In this regard, Macdonald (1973) identified what he believes to be two fundamental questions in education today: (1) What is the meaning of human life? and (2) How shall we live together? Concurrently, Shane (1976) suggested that goals should include as basic essentials instruction in cross-cultural understanding and the arts of compromise, reconciliation, and consensus building in the planning and preparation for a future based on an interdependent global community. "The future is not a new continent to be explored but a new world to be created," according to Shane (1977, p. 26). Havighurst (1973) similarly discussed education's need to extend its vision to the year 2050 and consider goals of world citizenship. Bundy (1976) wrote of a society in the future wherein people of all cultures will depend on and care for one another. From another viewpoint, Bennis (1972) wrote about "on the way to the future" as change from the present emphasis on achievement to the needed emphasis on self-actualization. As well, Macdonald (1975) stated that schools must strive to make people what they ought to be--complete human beings. Thus, a basic function of the schools is that of protecting

persons from dehumanization. More specifically, Holman (1980) identified the new fundamentals as the three C's: caring, critical thinking, and coding. He defined "coding" as an update of the old three R's or communicating and computing.

Finally, Klein, Tye, and Wright (1979) pointed out that presently numerous decisions are made at the classroom level in an isolated and random fashion. They admonished that there is need for more communication between teachers and persons with other sources of information regarding decisions. Blumberg, May, and Perry (1974) suggested, too, that such communication includes a shift in the decision making pattern from one that is typically hierarchical to a participative one that involves teachers and principal working together at the building level on the concerns of instructional improvement.

Change and the Teacher and Teaching

A review of the literature on change reveals concern about the teacher and the nature of teaching. According to Reichart (1969) change is seen by many teachers as something that "upsets the applecart." Teachers are resigned to situational innovations such as a new textbook, changes in permanent record folders, or last minute staff meetings and do not develop positive attitudes about change. It is his contention that too few teachers are aware of what is happening and too few seem to care. Hodgkinson (1977) proposed that the teacher's task involves communicating and otherwise providing evidence that teachers care. Reichart, additionally, declared that teachers must see change as their responsibility, be committed to quality, keep learning more themselves, formulate and uphold their own convictions, and make themselves

vulnerable because they care. In other words, teachers need to be committed to expressing themselves as individual persons. Berman (1968) provided elaboration of this concern by identifying the ability to share one's self openly and with integrity as prerequisite to good communication. Brubaker and Nelson (1974) agreed that the most significant changes are often brought about through affective learning situations. Finally, Reichart (1969) noted also that the real significance of change is what happens in a person, not to a person.

A number of writers expressed parallel viewpoints about factors that determine teacher effectiveness. Dobson and Dobson (1976) contended that how teachers feel about themselves, their psychological posture, definitely influences what happens or what does not happen in the classroom. The fears or insecurities some teachers possess concerning their own personal worth may create barriers to honest personal encounters with students. Jersild (1955) demonstrated that when "teachers face themselves" they feel more adequate as individuals and function more effectively as teachers. Purkey and Avila (1971) emphasized that teachers' beliefs concerning the worth and dignity of individuals are paramount and, in order to identify "good teachers" it is necessary to explore how teachers see themselves and the world around them. According to Usher and Hanke (1971) there is a definite need for teachers to recognize their own basic value structures and the value base of those with whom they interact. They agreed that the nature and quality of teachers' personal beliefs become crucial; teachers convey their beliefs through their methods, knowledge, and procedures or in spite of specific procedures used in the classroom. Moustakas (1967) pointed out that when the individuality or uniqueness of teachers is

prized, the learning environment of the school can become one of encouraging student individuality.

Hamachek (1969) stated that good teachers view teaching as primarily a human process involving human relationships and human meanings. Flexibility and ability to perceive the world from the student's point of view distinguish more effective from less effective teaching. As well, Wrightsman (1964) stated that teachers' expectations about people or assumptions about what people are like will influence their interactions with them.

Additionally, Combs (1979) emphasized the importance of a person's basic beliefs about human nature and the influence of this phenomenon upon human interaction in the education process. He argued that good teaching is a product of teacher beliefs or perceptions. Seaberg (1974) also argued that it is necessary for teachers to clarify beliefs about people and how they learn if they are to facilitate growth in others. Gordon (1974) in fact, suggested that one of the best ways to deal with conflicting values is for teachers to model the behavior that they would like to facilitate. Goodlad et al. (1974), too, argued that teachers need to examine their beliefs and act responsibily so that they do not violate their own integrity.

Change and Belief System

Review of the literature on educational philosophy reveals consideration of the kind of change that occurs in education in the absence of a coherent and known belief system. Benham (1977) made the statement that philosophical discourse is rare in education. Consequently, there have been fundamental philosophical differences between proposed reforms

and the schools in which they were to be implemented. These differences have included disparate views regarding the proper role of schooling, the nature of education, and the role of the teacher. According to Benham, schools are operated largely within a traditional deterministic rationale. Reformers were largely reflective of philosophy expressed by contemporary relativistic rationale. Conflict and contradiction resulted from humanistic goals and deterministic teacher behavior. It was Granger's contention (1971) that teachers who profess to educate without philosophy are merely reactors to the past. Klein (1977) summarized what typically happens as "crisis decision making." She contended that far too many school personnel adopt changes in response to demands of critics or current fads. Change becomes a highly valued concept. The choice for school personnel is either to get on the bandwagon or be considered stagnant or "bad." On the other hand, few personnel adopt changes because they are in agreement with the underlying philosophy of the change or truly believe in its educational value. The result is change that often is inconsistent with other practices. Finally, she stated that, instead, decisions about changes should be guided by philosophy. Robinson (1977) declared, too, that philosophy must undergird all major decisions.

McDaniel (1978) discussed the usefulness of philosophy in decision making. Basically, personal knowledge of educational philosophies enables teachers to identify and examine possible change efforts, amidst the myriad of fads and personal values. Katz and Stotland (1959) defined values as highly integrated sets of attitudes about particular objects in an individual's environment that are based on lasting and deep-seated beliefs. Knowledge of values concerning concepts of truth,

goodness, and right action, as well as understanding of purposes of education, can help teachers to evaluate in a broader context the worth of particular methods, curricula, and programs. It was the opinion of McDaniel (1978, p. 356) that philosophy has ". . . the potential for rescuing education from those who are merely craftsmen or technicians with a grab-bag of unexamined values, methods, and skills." Zahorik (1977) also concluded that by personally examining and clarifying values, teachers will develop better understanding of those behaviors that are appropriate for them.

As has been stated earlier, Usher and Hanke (1971) identified the "self as instrument" concept of teaching which means that teacher effectiveness is a personal matter of the effective use of one's unique self. In similar thought, according to Combs (1979), there is a vast difference between developing a personal philosophy and studying philosophies. It was his contention that the methods that teachers use arise from their own personal belief systems. Since teachers are unique persons, the methods they use to express their beliefs and purposes must also be unique. Methods are only vehicles through which teachers' purposes are expressed. The crucial quality of methods, according to Combs, is the authenticity or fit of the method for the teacher using it. Teachers with clear and consistent belief systems can be effective with a wide variety of methods, while those with confused or inadequate systems or beliefs are apt to fail no matter what methods they employ.

However, Pratte (1977) has indicated that a belief system is the natural consequence of the enculturation process, is personal, and is idiosyncratic. It would be desirable if persons were consistent in specifying belief systems that were largely coherent and well grounded;

but people do hold to logically inconsistent beliefs. This circumstance is not another's business, according to Pratte. For some people beliefs are highly integrated and systematized; for others beliefs may be fragmented. However, his concern was that the individual understand his/her beliefs in relation to one another. Also, the individual should try to eliminate from his/her personal belief system beliefs of the non-evidential sort or the "I don't know" ones. Additionally, he stated that to be most effective the individual should have and know how to use effectively a coherent set of beliefs.

Finally, Brown (1968) discussed beliefs as theory and suggested that teaching practice which is unconnected or unaware of its underlying theory is usually "dull, routine, and stupid." In other words, teaching practice without theory lacks specific direction, purpose, and reason. On the other hand, in order for teaching practices to be intelligent, or imaginative and exciting, they must be deliberately related to theory. According to Brown, failure to make this vital connection between theory and practice is a glaring weakness in American education.

Review of the EBSI-EPBI

Dobson and Dobson (1980) discussed the utility and necessity for exploring one's personal philosophy in the following way:

> The importance of values in educational decision making can be demonstrated by value laden words such as goals, objectives, adequate, and greatest importance. Educators can not afford the luxury of continuing to ignore values in educational planning and decision making. To attempt to forecast, predict, or engage in long range planning while ignoring the values base of those involved is to plan for failure.
>
> This is not to imply that values are totally neglected in educational planning; for certainly, any school policy manual sets forth noble goals for human direction. However, this aspect is treated in a casual manner. Educators seem to assume that everyone knows the values so there is no point in

> wasting time with exploration. What happens very often is that what everyone seems to know, no one knows.
>
> . . . Beliefs/philosophy, whether clearly known or not, determine the individuals' goals and the quality of interaction with others.
>
> The philosophies of individuals within an institution collectively serve to contribute to the philosophy of that institution. Different schools value different things. It is not only desirable, but absolutely crucial if meaningful direction is to emerge, that individuals within an institution have a crystal clear grasp of their basic beliefs relative to human nature and have cognizance of how these beliefs are translated into their educational practice. Different beliefs demand different behaviors (pp. 30-31).

Review of the literature prior to development of the EBSI-EPBI (Dobson et al., 1978) reveals various investigations concerning the relationship between different beliefs and different behavior. The research of Combs' et al. (1969) concluded that the system of beliefs about other persons which teachers (and other members of the helping professions) hold is an extremely important factor in their effectiveness. Initial impetus for the development of the EBSI-EPBI was Combs' (1962) viewpoint that whatever is done in teaching begins with what is thought about what people are like.

Other studies investigated the relationship between philosophies of human nature, hereafter referred to as PHN, and teacher effectiveness and confirmed speculations that a teacher's goals, judgments, and actions are determined by her/his beliefs about the nature of man (Wrightsman, 1974).

According to Wrightsman, PHN are attitudes about people in general--the expectancies that people have certain socialized qualities and will behave in certain ways. Typically, most people have definite beliefs about human nature and often refer to the manner in which others behave in terms of their assumptions about human nature. Individuals may not easily verbalize these attitudes, but they are learned early,

held widely, and changed with difficulty.

Furthermore, Wrightsman's conceptualization of PHN has six dimensions: trustworthiness or not, strength of will and rationality or external control and irrationality, altruism or selfishness, independence or conformity to group pressures, complexity or simplicity, and similarity or variability of people. Additionally, other concepts relevant to assumptions about people are: Christie's "Machiavellianism" (Christie and Geis, 1970) which is characteristic of the person who manipulates others through guile, deceit, and opportunism, and Rotter's "locus of control" and "interpersonal trust." The former is indicative of attitudes about one's self; the latter is the persons' generalized expectancy that promises of others can be relied upon. Rotter (1966) found that persons who believe that the locus of control is outside or external to themselves have negative scores on substantive dimensions of PHN.

Wrightsman (1974) also found considerable evidence that PHN differences from one occupational group to another were large and consistent with other things that are known about the groups. For example, guidance counselors have extremely favorable beliefs about human nature. He pointed out as well that Maslow's study of more fully functioning persons revealed that those people are more congruent in regard to values and self-perceptions as well as more accepting of others or less intolerant of complexities of others.

Other studies correlated PHN and nonverbal behavior. Dobson, Hopkins, and Elsom's study (1973) indicated that teachers with favorable PHN show nonverbal communication patterns that reflect a desire to permit open expression of ideas in the classroom; whereas teachers with

negative PHN are more directive and restrictive in their nonverbal communication. In other words, teachers with a positive PHN tended to rank higher on the frequency of their nonverbal communication in the classroom. Dobson, Sewell, and Shelton (1974) studied the relationship between teachers' PHN and the congruence of their verbal and nonverbal behavior in the classroom. Over extended periods of time, they found greater congruence in teachers with positive PHN and less congruence in teachers with negative PHN. They concluded that this may suggest that nonverbal inferences betray true feelings.

Studies conducted by Cook and Wrightsman (Wrightsman, 1974) to investigate PHN and attitude change found that change would succeed given two determinants: a negative self-concept and favorable assumptions about other people. Positive PHN alone was insufficient to bring about behavior change. Many studies that fail to relate PHN and cooperative behavior are discussed by Wrightsman (pp. 136-145). Instead, Geis and Christie's review (1970) pointed out that situational characteristics can severely delimit or eliminate the effects of attitudes upon behavior. Finally, other research (Wicker, 1971; Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975) supports the premise that attitudes represent one of the determinants in the variance in behavior.

Initial use of the EBSI-EPBI was reported in Kessinger's study (1979); the results seemed to indicate that the perceived educational beliefs and perceived educational practices of the participants of the study were not harmonious. From data related to the study, it was concluded that most of the teachers involved were inconsistent in their choice of both beliefs and practices. Results indicated that the teachers were content with a bureaucratic model of decision making and

had little desire to restructure the process. These teachers believed that decisions concerning curriculum should be left to others. Their concerns implied a product orientation, according to Kessinger, with focus on what and how of the educational process and not on who and why. The recommendation of his study was that there be greater emphasis on philosophy so that teachers become able to explain why it is they do what they do. Brown (1968) suggested that this is the only sort of change that anyone has a right to ask: that teachers make changes to seek and maintain the greatest possible logical consistency in themselves.

Change and Organizational Climate

Review of the literature on school climate reveals discussion about the kind of climate that supports or facilitates change efforts and includes the pivotal relationship of leader behavior.

A number of writers explained the meaning of climate. Miskel (1977) discussed the concept of climate as the social environment within a school building and the result of behaviors, attitudes, and perceptions of individuals within buildings as they interact with each other. Differences in this variable depend on particular individuals serving as teachers and principal. According to Ables and Conway (1973) climate is directly related to the degree of congruence between the leader's belief system and the mean belief system of the staff. Teachers and principal with belief systems that are alike tend to be compatible and compatibility tends to produce satisfaction. Likert (1961) pointed out that values and atmosphere determine whether a group has positive or negative impact upon the growth and behavior of its members. Baumgartel and

Jeanpierre (1972) found that interpersonal climate was the most significant factor in the innovative process.

Finally, Leonard (1968, p. 39) stated that ". . . no environment can strongly affect a person unless it is strongly interactive." In other words, learning involves freqent, varied, and intense interaction between learner and the environment. To be interactive, the environment must be responsive and provide relevant feedback to the learner. It must meet the learner where s/he is, then program change in appropriate steps at appropriate times as the learner changes.

The research of Aspy and Roebuck (1977) identified three levels or measures of interpersonal functioning of principals that relate significantly with teacher behavior and in turn the same three levels of interpersonal functioning of teachers that relate significantly with student attendance, self concept, and achievement. These three factors are: empathy, congruence, and positive regard. Empathy is understanding another's inner world of personal meaning. Congruence is the degree to which words and actions reflect one's real feelings and attitudes. Positive regard is warmth expressed in interpersonal communication with others. According to Aspy and Roebuck, persons can be taught to provide higher levels of facilitative interpersonal relations. Additionally, they stressed the critically important position of the principal's behavior which appeared to set the pattern for the school. Since teachers tended to use the same pattern of behavior in the classroom, therefore, the principal's level of respect, empathy, use of praise, and acceptance of ideas in dealing with teachers and students is pivotal in a school's program.

Many writers have agreed that open and trusting relationships

result in acceptance of responsibility by one another. Rogers (1977) pointed out that the higher the levels of understanding, genuineness, and respect that a teacher gives to students, the more students will learn. According to Stodghill (1974) when teachers and principal are described high in consideration and structure, then students tend to make higher scores on achievement tests. The conclusion can be made that most everyone works a little harder for those other persons who really seem to understand the individual's self worth.

Unfortunately, however, the schooling experience is based more on assumptions about "control" than on assumptions about "growth," according to Roberts (1975). For example, Sarason (1974) contrasted the educational leader and educational administrator in the following way: if the principal cannot confront him/herself and others about competing ideas and values shaping the life in a school, then the principal is an administrator, not a leader. As well, Stodghill (1974) indicated that if real educational leadership is to emerge from the principal, there is need for the principal to come to terms with his/her own personal needs, especially those needs related to feelings about authority. Knowles and Knowles (1972) shared Stodghill's concern by identifying two essential ingredients for effective group relations: shared leadership and the collection and examination of data about what is happening to the group. Stodghill (1974) pointed out additionally that groups tend to accept leaders who can facilitate accomplishment of the task or who show innovative effort. Finally, according to Hoy, Newland, and Blazovsky (1977) teachers seem to want rules and regulations in order to reduce job uncertainty; but they resent excessive supervision and tight enforcement of those rules.

Others wrote about the importance of leadership. Seeley (1979) pointed out that good teachers perform well in schools with a sense of mission, and the same good teachers perform poorly in schools that are poorly led. Combs (1962) pointed out, too, that the leader's philosophy in action affects the lives of all in the school. Fantini (1977) suggested that schools need to be inspired by leaders who have the capacity to illumine the ingredients of a future marked by hope. Sergiovanni (1979) addressed the issue directly by suggesting an outline of topics from which the leader might establish his/her "philosophical platform" as a basis for decision making. According to Flynn (1977) it is time for the leader to be decisive, to explain, and to sell professional ideas to constituents. It is time for the leader to emphasize things that are best for the education of students.

Review of the OCDQ

The pioneering work with school climate can be largely attributable to Halpin and Croft who authored the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire in 1963. Most of the school climate studies that have since been completed owe much of their rationale and instrumentation to Halpin and Croft's work. During the late sixties and early seventies the OCDQ achieved bandwagon status in educational administrative research, especially in doctoral dissertations. Thomas (1976) reported that over 200 studies have used the instrument. And, although much of the enthusiasm for the study of school climate seems to have subsided and the OCDQ is used on a much smaller scale, investigations continue.

Prior to development of the OCDQ, the term "organizational climate" was used first by Cornell (1955) who defined it as:

> . . . a delicate blending of interpretations (or perceptions as social psychologists would call it) by persons in the organization of their jobs or roles in relationship to others and their interpretations of the roles of others in the organization (p. 222).

Argyris (1958) developed the concept in his study of a bank in which he emphasized interpersonal relationships as major determinants of the "climate" of the organization. Katz and Kahn (1966) saw climate as the resultant of the "total culture" of an organization. Frederickson (1968) described climate as a set of conditions that tends to produce a common understanding of acceptable and appropriate behavior.

Halpin and Croft (1962) indicated the complexity of the concept of the climate of schools by suggesting the analogy with the "personality" of people. As an intangible concept, climates of schools differ in subtle ways that are difficult to describe. Yet, there is a "feel," an "atmosphere," or a "tone" that is unique to each school.

The development of the OCDQ relied heavily on Halpin's experiences with the study of leadership styles at Ohio State Univesity in the 1950's. Of consequence, two basic assumptions undergirded the theoretical framework of the OCDQ (Thomas, 1976):

> How the leader really behaves is less important than how the members of his group perceive him to behave. Perceptions of leader behavior will determine the behavior of the group members and hence provide a measure of organizational climate.
>
> An essential determinant of a school's 'effectiveness' as an organization is the principal's ability (or his lack of ability) to create a 'climate' in which he and other group members can initiate and consummate acts of leadership (p. 446).

As previously stated, the OCDQ has served as a catalyst for a considerable amount of research in schools. Many school variables have been investigated in conjunction with the OCDQ. As a generalization, evidence from the many studies has suggested that perceptions of openness

and closedness and some dimensions of climate may be influenced by the socioeconomic environment of the school and by certain personality characteristics of principals and teachers (Thomas, 1976). Otherwise, this review will identify studies that relate the OCDQ to innovation or change efforts, to beliefs, and to leader behavior which are the variables of direct concern to this study.

A number of studies has investigated the relationship between school innovativeness and climate. Marcum (1968) used an adoption scale to observe the relationship between openness and innovativeness of both primary and secondary schools. In secondary schools, Ricker (1968) noted relationship of openness of climate with teachers' "readiness to change." Hughes (1965) noted that openness of climate in central offices was related to school district innovativeness. However, Peach (1969) and Bennett (1968) observed significant relationship between the autonomous climate and innovativeness.

Other significant relationships between innovativeness and certain dimensions of climate have been observed as well. Helsel (1968) found significant positive relationships between teachers' expectations of successful change and dimensions of principal's behavior as measured on the OCDQ; but production emphasis was significantly related to change expectations in a negative direction. Barden (1970) found thrust, esprit, and production emphasis factors on the OCDQ significantly related to schools that had joined organizations that promoted educational change.

Attempts to link dogmatism with climate have been unsuccessful in past studies (Downey, 1966; Huff, 1968; Kirk, 1965; Levy, 1968; and Shea, 1970) although some relationship with certain dimensions of

climate were found in other studies (LaGattuta, 1966, and Farber, 1968). Still other studies (Collins, 1965, and Plaxton, 1965) showed that personality appeared to have influence on a teacher's perception of climate. Anderson (1966) found that teachers in open climate schools showed significantly less introspection than those in closed climates. Ernst (1965) found no differences in levels of empathy and acceptance of others by principals in open and closed climate schools.

Implicit in the theoretical development of the OCDQ was the assumption that certain elements of leadership are present. A number of studies investigated the climate (and its dimensions) and specific measures of leader behavior. McGregor (1960) emphasized the influence of "management's attitudes" on teachers' perceptions of climate. Schmidt (1965) and Cook (1965) in reports of teachers in open climates described mixed results in respect to relationships with dimensions of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire. Guy (1969) found a significant correlation between leadership and the esprit factor. Dugan (1967) observed that principals in open climates were ranked as more satisfactory communicators. But other studies (Wiggins, 1968; Hagans, 1969; Brinkmeier, 1967; and Shea, 1970) found no significant relationships between factors of leadership and climate.

Thus, as this review has suggested, there have been quite mixed results in attempts to relate the OCDQ with change, beliefs, and leadership. Consequently, the instrument continues to provide a basis for discussion and debate in the study of educational administration at the elementary school level. In addition, the instrument has provided impetus for further research and instrument development in secondary schools and in schools in other countries, too. As well, the literature records

use of the OCDQ as a procedure for retrieving information upon which a school might base decisions in staff development endeavors (Watkins and Cleveland, 1977, and Breckenridge, 1976).

Finally, most research studies have been designed to investigate climate with another variable in simple correlation. This study sought to explore the multiple relationship among both teachers' individual perceptions of climate and the principal's self perception of leader behavior with, in turn, their belief systems in high and low change-oriented schools.

Halpin (1966) indicated that the chief consequence of the original study of organizational climate was the identification of the pivotal importance of "authenticity" in organizational behavior. He referred to the element of authenticity as reality-centered behavior wherein behavior of people is "for real," genuine, and without pretense. He has described it in the following manner:

> As we looked at the schools in our sample, and as we reflected about other schools in which we had worked, we were struck by the vivid impression that what was going on in some schools was for real, while in other schools, the characters on stage seemed to have learned their parts by rote, without really understanding the meaning of their roles . . . . Something in the first situation made it possible for the characters to behave authentically . . . . The professional roles of individuals remained secondary to what the individuals, themselves, were as human beings . . . . (In the second situation) the role itself and the individual's status as a teacher or a principal appeared to constitute his essential sense of identity. Furthermore, in these instances the individual used his role ritualistically, so that it became a device which kept others at a distance and thus precluded the establishment of authentic relationships (pp. 204-205).

Halpin (1966) explained that the thrust and esprit subtests of the OCDQ are measures of the authenticity factor. Esprit represents the degree of morale or satisfaction within the school environment. Thrust represents the degree of positive leader behavior. Appleberry and Hoy

(1969) found that the distinguishing feature of the open school climate was the authenticity in relations between teachers and between teachers and principal.

In conclusion, the literature seems to allude to the usefulness of, and perhaps, to attest to the necessity for further theorizing and research efforts that might contribute yet greater understanding of process variables including beliefs and climate which influence teacher behavior and school change. Bakalis (1974) concluded that education will be revitalized when learning is equated with living and curriculum is recognized as the acquisition of skills plus the interaction of individuals. Hosford (1978) in discussion of the hidden or silent curriculum, expressed agreement in stating that school must be made a place to live and related to the real world. Goodlad (1975) expressed similar concern in pointing out that the real goals of the school are embedded in what happens in schools hour after hour each day. From these experiences students learn to value or reject achievement, love or hate, trust or distrust, play fair or cheat. Goodlad (1979, p. 343) also declared that schools need "qualitative appraisals" of what goes on within them and that ". . . how a student spends precious time in school and how he feels about what goes on there is of much greater significance than how he scores on a standardized achievement test." It is the writer's contention that the literature supports a similar conclusion in respect to the issue of teacher competence. Additional research might provide further confirmation for this viewpoint.

Summary

Chapter II has presented the review of related literature and

conceptual framework for the study. Summary of previous research and the writings of experts were presented. Considerable concern for process measures of intangible, qualitative factors that contribute to teacher behavior and improvement in our schools was identified. Mixed results were identified in research efforts to link change and measures of beliefs and climate. The review suggested the usefulness and necessity for additional efforts to provide descriptive analysis of what is happening in schools and why.

The design and methodology used in this study are specified in Chapter III.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter discusses the research design and methodology followed in this investigation. It includes an outline of the procedures used in sample selection, data collection, and data treatment and analysis. Information about the instruments used in the study is presented also. The chapter ends with a summary.

Sample Selection

Elementary classroom teachers and principals from one urban public school system in the midwest area of the United States were asked to complete, on a voluntary basis, the two instruments used in this study. Prior to making arrangements at the building level to meet with individual staffs, the researcher met with the district's eight-man research council and secured approval to gather data from teachers and principals in the district.

Several considerations resulted in the selection of teachers and principals serving in an urban area's elementary schools as the focus of this study. First, the researcher's teaching experience was at the elementary school level in an urban public school system. Second, much of the previous research involving either school organizational climate or educators' belief systems has been completed with elementary level

personnel. Third, problems of time and cost to the researcher were of consideration in the selection of the sample.

Additional criteria were applied in selection of the particular sample of elementary schools and individual personnel to be investigated. The selected schools were identified independently of the researcher's choice by a central administrative committee in accordance with the researcher's list of suggested criteria which represented outcome measures indicative of a school's orientation to change (see Appendix A). A committee of the district's central administrative personnel who served in positions of leadership were assumed to be knowledgeable of change in the district's schools. Thereby, they could be considered responsible for making valid and reliable identification of schools. By a tallying procedure, schools that fit categories of high and low change orientations were selected. The researcher's list of suggested criteria reflected discussion by Miles (1965) concerning ten dimensions of organizational health: goal focus, communication adequacy, optimal power equalization, resource equalization, cohesiveness, morale, innovativeness, autonomy, adaptation, and problem solving adequacy.

Selection of the sample of schools was restricted to regular kindergarten to sixth grade attendance centers, specifically excluding the district's designated alternative schools. Alternative schools were assumed to be categorized as high in orientation to change.

The sample of personnel within schools, in addition to building principals, was restricted to regular classroom teachers who currently served full time in kindergarten to sixth grade positions in only one building. The sample specifically excluded certified or noncertified full time or part time personnel who served in special education or

various support positions. These personnel were assumed to represent discernably separate categories for analysis, which was beyond the design of the present study.

Finally, the researcher depended on the voluntary participation of classroom teachers and principals in the selected schools. Thus, upon consideration of the approximately one hour length of time necessary to complete the two instruments used in the study, the instruments were left with each potential participant so that completion might be at the individual teacher or principal's convenience during several days time, which, with rare exception, included a weekend.

Data Collection

Upon identification of schools from which participants were to be included in the sample, the researcher met personally with each of the 32 building principals and explained in general terms the focus of the research. Each principal was asked if s/he would permit the researcher to meet with classroom teachers in her/his building for a ten-minute presentation to seek teachers' participation in the study. The principal in one of the 32 schools identified by the committee of central administrative personnel did not wish to participate in the study; therefore, subjects in the high change-oriented category came from only 15 schools.

After securing permission from 31 principals and scheduling a meeting time with each staff, the researcher returned to each building according to schedule for presentation of the instruments. In all schools the instruments were presented by the researcher in a scheduled staff meeting. The instruments, answer sheets, information sheet, and a

pencil with the inscribed slogan, "Teachers are very special people," were left with each potential participant for completion at the individual's convenience during several days time. Instructions provided in each staff meeting involved reading a statement of explanation and directions (see Appendix B). According to schedule, the researcher returned to each building to collect the materials including the data from those who chose to participate in the study. As well, the researcher made additional follow-up trips to some buildings in order to collect additional data and materials.

Instrumentation

The Educational Beliefs System Inventory and Educational Practice Belief Inventory, Part I and Part II respectively (see Appendix C), was used to assess the educational belief systems of elementary classroom teachers and principals. The EBSI-EPBI is composed of 138 Likert-type items and subdivided into 13 subtests representing a cross-section or survey of an educator's opinions about beliefs and practices of schooling.

Each subtest measures one of 13 areas of educational beliefs and practices. Seven of the areas are found in Part I, EBSI and pertain to perceptions of the individual concerning beliefs about the nature of man, the nature of motivation, the conditions of learning, the conditions of social learning, the nature of intellectual development, the nature of knowledge, and the nature of society. The other six areas are found in Part II, EPBI and pertain to perceptions of the individual concerning beliefs about teaching practices including the nature of instruction, the nature of curriculum, the nature of organization, the

nature of content, the nature of materials and resources, and the nature of evaluation.

The inventory identifies three distinct camps of educational philosophy that are classified as Camp A: Behaviorism-Essentialism, Camp B: Cognitivism-Experimentalism, and Camp C: Humanism-Existentialism. These camps are conceptualized on a continuum ranging from training to education which is perhaps a reflection of whether persons are primarily concerned with doing to, for, or with students. Further description of the philosophical beliefs represented by each camp is provided as follows (Dobson and Dobson, 1980).

Camp A is characterized by these statements of beliefs and practices:

> For the good of society and themselves, children must be directed and controlled because man's potential tends towards evil. Appropriate external stimulation, usually in the form of rewards is necessary for optimal achievement. Focus is on training separate faculties of the mind and learning situations that induce competition for rewards. Social learning is seen as the acquisition of attitudes and behavior which are acceptable to society. Intelligence is a function of environmental conditions; and persons possess different amounts. There is a central body of knowledge that must be transmitted to all. Truth is preexistent to learning of it; and its test is its correspondence to reality. The function of schooling is to preserve the social order by developing a standardized student-citizen; and tendency is toward a meritocratic society.
>
> Focus of instruction is on indoctrination with transmission of verifiable facts. Activities are preplanned with specific performance objectives clearly stated. Curriculum is highly structured and content centered; essential subject matters, intellectual skills, and accepted values are predetermined and logical. Organizational arrangement is rigid and orderly; emphasis is on management and efficiency. Time-space are segmental. Content is decided by the state; and the planner's task is the identification of common content. Emphasis is on materials that correlate with a diagnostic approach and that can be easily prescribed. Evaluation is measurement based on comparisons and is product oriented, with standards and procedures determined by authority and imposed on students.

Camp B is characterized by the following statements of beliefs and practices:

> With a neutral belief about man, human potential is seen as a goal to be realized by beginning with the child where he is and manipulating the environment so that the child will have the best possible experience based on the adult's judgment of what is best. Focus is on a blend of the teacher as manipulator and the intellectual structures that characterize what is to be taught. Determining learner expectations and lifelike learning tasks are based on a combination of self confidence, physiological, social, and intellectual development of the child. Of consideration is how the child functions relative to group norms; and satisfaction in learning is affected by group atmosphere and products. Readiness for learning is matter of learning style and learning rate. Knowledge is rooted in experience and is tentative; and workability is the test of truth. The major role of the school is to teach the adults of tomorrow to deal with the planning necessarily involved in the process called society.
>
> The role of the teacher is learning manager and consultant. Future utility and universalism are considered in selection of problem centered content that is sequenced. Flexible scheduling is related to instructional needs of the staff. Individualized instruction occurs by pacing the individual student through study sequences. Emphasis is on what is learned which is utilized in prescribing next tasks, especially critical thinking, problem solving, and higher order cognitive skills.

Camp C is characterized by statements about beliefs and practices identified below:

> Man is inherently inclined toward goodness, is cooperative, and constantly seeking experiences that enhance her/his unique self. Focus is on the person as the initiator of his/her own learning tasks with the most desirable rewards being internal. Learning emerges in the continuity of man's total experiencing and growing. There cannot be stated outcomes of learning. The person is central to her/his own idiosyneratic universe creating his/her own environment. Intellectual development proceeds from 'wholes' to 'parts' and potential already exists within the individual. The only thing persons can be certain of is that they experience a stream of thoughts and feelings; truth is an individual matter. The way to improve society is through improving institutions. The school should concentrate upon the development of absolute freedom in the child; and tendency is toward an egalitarian society.
>
> Instructional behavior of the teacher is determined by the learner and occurs only by invitation from the learner. The curriculum is viewed as dynamic and emergent on a consequence of the student's needs, wants, and desires. Each

> student is seen as an unlimited reservoir of curriculum. Individual pupils plan their own use of time within limits of personal and social order. The organization provides for the interdisciplinary nature of education. Content is concerned with process skills that enable the person to know, think, value, feel, and act; and the quality of being is more important than the quality of knowing. Knowledge is a means not an end of education. Resources are limited only by imaginations. Focus is on self evaluation; and external feedback is available upon student request and is a shared experience.

Each subtest of the instrument contains equal numbers of statements reflecting the three camps and has been designed to yield scores which correspond to the particular camps.

Individual responses to the EBSI-EPBI were obtained from elementary classroom teachers and principals. Each responder was asked to judge each item from the viewpoint: "this is what I really believe" and answer in respect to a five point scale indicating: complete agreement, score 1; moderate agreement, score 2; uncertain, score 3; moderate disagreement, score 4; or complete disagreement, score 5.

The inventory can be either hand or machine scored with the resulting scores graphed to depict profiles of the individual's educational belief system relative to each of the three camps. An SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) computer program and a Fortran plotting program are available for scoring and graphing responses recorded on standard answer sheets. Also, a mean score can be graphed to depict the staff's profile relative to each of the three camps.

Then, individuals can judge for themselves whether or not their belief systems are harmonious or in conflict in the subtests and/or with the group's profile. Harmony is indicated by both sides of the profile representing Parts I and II of the instrument appearing at approximately the same level of agreement. The individual who is experiencing belief/practice harmony would be one whose profiles show her/his beliefs

closely aligned with relevant practices. This would be shown graphically by a flat line on one of the profiles indicating agreement with one of the camps. As well, it might be possible to identify similarly a prevailing philosophy for the group. The authors of the EBSI-EPBI (Dobson et al., 1978) consider that the basic strength or purpose of the instrument lies in its use as a tool for dialogue by providing perceptual base line data for self awareness and staff development (Kessinger, 1979). In this study, the instrument was used to measure whether belief systems of individuals were focused or eclectic.

Validity and reliability of the EBSI-EPBI are as follows. In development of the instrument, the EBSI-EPBI was validated by a jury of experts. The items included on the instruments were submitted to qualified curriculum experts at three major midwestern universities who rated the items as representative of the philosophies being measured.

Reliability of the instrument was achieved through the use of the Cronbach Alpha Internal Consistency Reliability Scale, which is similar to Guttman (Lambda) Split-Half Method. Correlation coefficients relating perceived beliefs with perceived practices were achieved through the use of the Pearson product-moment coefficient of correlation. The following scores are reported by Kessinger (1979): the internal consistency reliability for the total of subtests for the EBSI was: A - .829, B - .730, and C - .790. The internal consistency reliability for the total of subtests for the EPBI was: A - .790, B - .800, and C - .825. When the two parts of the inventory were considered together, the internal reliability for the total of subtests for the EBSI-EPBI was: A - .890, B - .865, and C - .905. These scores represent the reliability achieved during six months of testing involving an accumulated N of

427; additonally, Kessinger reported initial reliability scores with an N of 34.

In the present investigation, the researcher was able to further categorize the individual's belief system as indicating either tendency towards a focused (or prevailing) belief system or tendency towards an eclectic belief system according to the following procedure. The person's belief system was categorized as indicating a tendency to be focused if the profile showed congruency or harmony by measuring either moderate agreement (score 2) or complete agreement (score 1) with only one of the three camps on the basis of composite scores for Part I and Part II as recorded on subtest scores 8 and 14 respectively. Figure 1 presents an example of a profile that illustrates a belief system categorized as indicating a tendency to be focused. It indicates moderate agreement with Camp B and uncertainty in both Camps A and C.

The person's belief system was categorized as indicating a tendency to be eclectic if the profile showed contradictions by measuring conflicting or inconsistent mixture of extents of agreement, disagreement, and/or uncertainty in and among the three philosophical camps on the basis of composite scores for Part I and Part II as recorded on subtest scores 8 and 14 respectively. Figure 2 presents an example of a profile that illustrates a belief system categorized as indicating a tendency to be eclectic. It indicates lack of agreement with only one of the three camps.

The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire, Form IV (see Appendix D) was used to measure the teachers' perceptions of the organizational climate in the elemen-tary schools in which they were working, as well as, the self-perceptions of principals' leader behavior. The

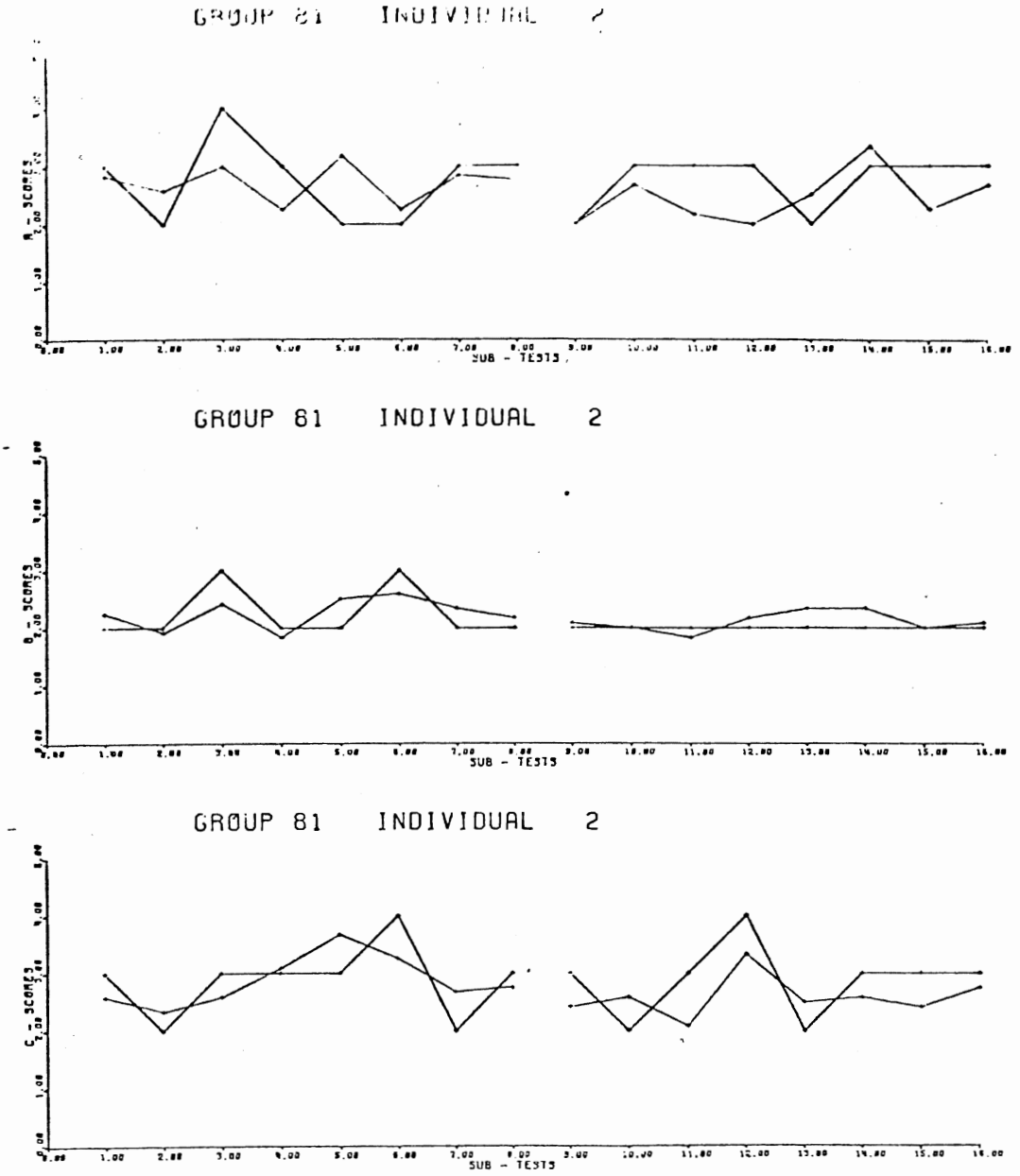

Figure 1. Focused Belief System

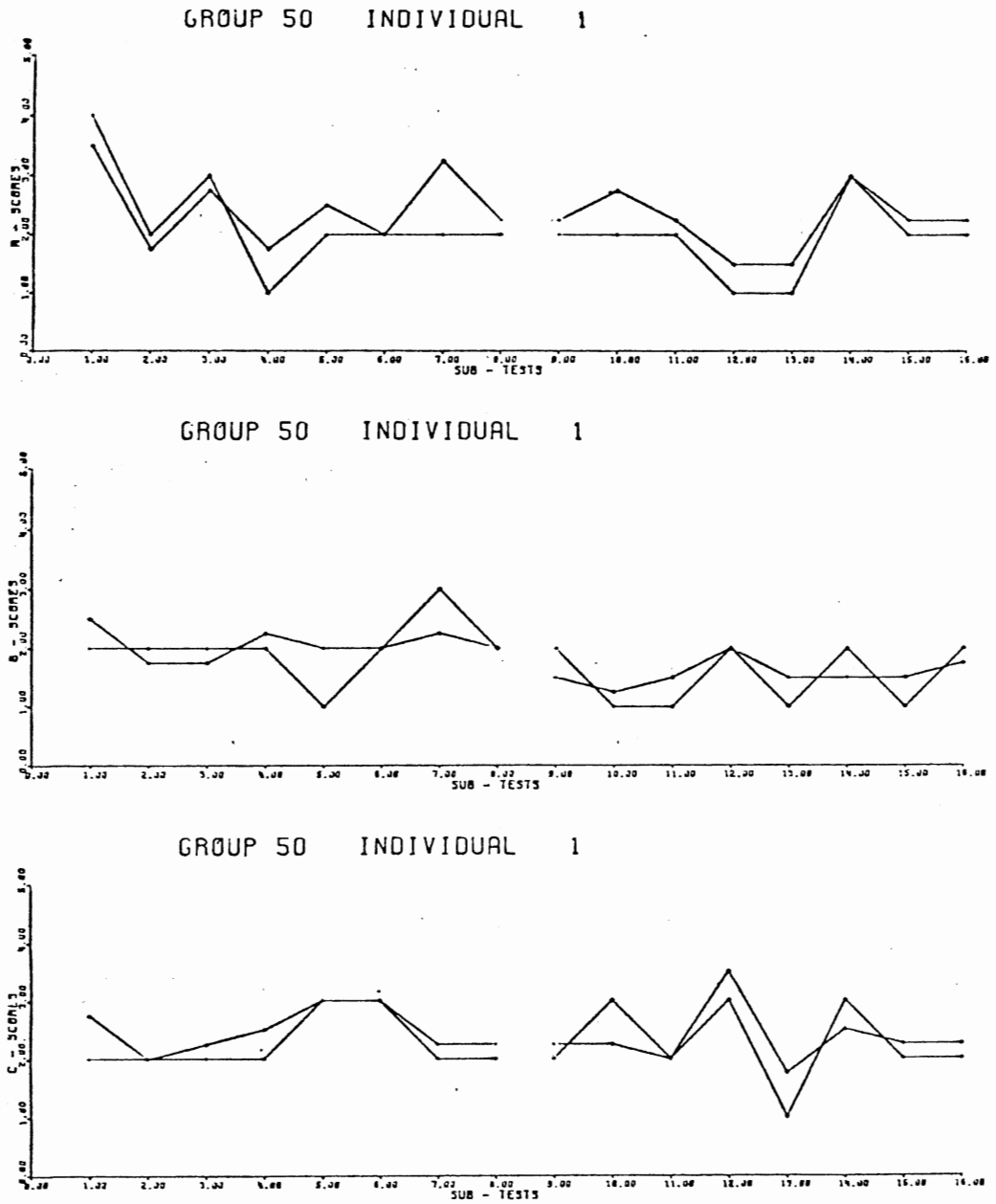

Figure 2. Eclectic Belief System

OCDQ is composed of 64 Likert-type items that are related to eight dimensions of organizational climate. Four of the dimensions pertain to behavioral characteristics of interactions among teachers as a group and are the following:

Disengagement - refers to the teachers' tendency to be "going through the motions" and describes a planlessness in respect to the task at hand.

Hindrance - refers to the teachers' feeling that the principal burdens them with "busywork" or with routine duties and committee demands they construe as unnecessary.

Esprit - refers to teachers' morale and indicates that they feel their social needs are being met and they enjoy a sense of accomplishment in their job.

Intimacy - refers to teachers' enjoyment of friendly social relations with each other but is not necessarily associated with task accomplishment.

The other four dimensions pertain to behavioral characteristics of the principal as leader:

Aloofness - refers to the principal's behavior characterized as formal and impersonal, "going by the book" rather than dealing with teachers face-to-face.

Production emphasis - refers to the principal's close supervisory behavior, highly directive, one-way communication, and insensitive to feedback from the staff.

Thrust - refers to the principal's effort in trying to "move the organization" and attempt to motivate teachers through the example which s/he sets.

Consideration - refers to the principal's behavior characterized by the inclination to treat teachers "humanly."

Individual responses to the OCDQ were obtained from elementary classroom teachers and principals. Each responder was asked to judge each item from the viewpoint: "how true or characteristic is this of my school?" and answer each item in respect to a four point scale indicating that the behavior: rarely occurs, sometimes occurs, often occurs, or very frequently occurs.

From the resulting scores, the questionnaire identifies six basic elementary school climates on a continuum from open to closed: open, autonomous, controlled, familiar, paternal, and closed. However, Halpin and Croft (1966) and other researchers have concluded that the extremes of the continuum, the open and the closed perceptions of organizational climate, have provided the most useful categories for description and interpretation. Researchers have often expressed these categories in broad terms such as more open, less open, the open end of the continuum, or tendency to an open climate.

Validity and reliability of the OCDQ are as follows. A limited number of efforts has been made to validate the OCDQ. Reportedly, one of the more significant validity studies was conducted by Andrews (1965). The approach he used was construct validity. Results indicated that the subtests provided reasonably valid measures of important aspects of the principal's leader behavior in the perspective of interaction with her/his staff. But, the vagueness of the six climate types was seen as a detraction from the validity of the instrument. Andrews considered that the only valid meaning to be attached to the climate types was that they were commonly occurring patterns of scores on the

subtests.

In replication of Halpin and Croft's work, Brown (1965) identified eight rather than six climate types and found the following: the pattern of subtest intercorrelations was comparable with that in Halpin and Croft's study; the assignment of items to the subtests was generally substantiated; and the instrument was reliable.

In Roseveare's study (1966) to validate the subtests esprit and thrust, he found that the subtest thrust was valid when compared with the Esprit-Thrust Interview Schedule, and that the esprit subtest seemed to have validity but data were not conclusive.

McFadden's study (1966) raised the question of validity when three non-participant observers rated each of thirty schools on the eight subtest dimensions and on the six climate dimensions. McFadden found that their ratings did not agree with the results obtained by administering the OCDQ itself.

Pritchard (1966) used non-faculty school personnel as an outside criterion to validate the instrument by responding to the OCDQ Short Form (16 items). These ratings were compared to principal and teacher ratings. Significant correlations were found for three of the eight subtests, and two others approached significance.

Many researchers have questioned the original method of classification of schools into climate types by computing a similarity score and equating the climate of a particular school with one of the six prototypic climate profiles from which it deviates least in terms of summed absolute differences between subtest scores (Halpin and Croft, 1962, pp. 69-71). Watkins (1966) stated that there was apparent weakness in the middle classifications. McFadden (1966) stated that schools in his

study frequently did not match the prototypic profiles. And, Pritchard (1966) stated that in his study the method of assignment accounted for inconsistency in climate assignment.

The conclusion appears to be that while the subtests of the OCDQ are valid (Andrews) and reliable (Brown), the method of climate assignment is questionable. Brown's conclusion (1965) was that it is possible to identify a climate continuum but that dividing it into discrete climate types refines the results further than the data warrant.

An alternate method of ranking schools on the climate continuum has been recommended by Croft as reported by Appleberry (1969). This method involves summing the school's scores on the esprit and thrust subtests, then subtracting the school's scores on the disengagement subtest. While not identifying discrete climates, this method does allow a ranking of the school along a climate continuum from open to closed; and, the higher the final score, the more open the school.

In view of these considerations and the fact that in the present study individual perceptions of climate were being considered rather than the average, prototypic, or school profile, the researcher used the alternate method of ranking individual scores on the climate continuum. The midpoint of the resulting continuum of scores was taken as the point of division for categorizing individual scores as either relatively open or relatively closed perceptions of climate (Walden, Taylor, and Watkins, 1975). The possible range of scores using the alternate method for scoring is 24-121.

Data Treatment and Analysis

Scoring of the raw data from both the instruments was done in the

following manner. Responses of teachers and principals to the EBSI-EPBI were punched on computer cards from the standard answer sheets and scored and plotted with programs at the Oklahoma State University Computer Center. The resulting individual profiles were inspected by the researcher and classified as either focused or eclectic on the basis of agreement or not respectively with only one of the three camps according to subtest scores 8 and 14.

Responses of teachers to the OCDQ were computed by hand by the researcher according to the alternate method of scores which involves summing the individual's scores on the esprit and thrust subtests, then subtracting the individual's score on the disengagement subtest. The midpoint of 75 was identified from the resulting range of scores which was 51-100. Individual scores at 75 or above were categorized as relatively open; scores at 74 or below were relatively closed. A low score indicates that the individual perceived the school climate as being relatively closed. A high score indicates that the individual perceived the school climate as being relatively open. Responses of principals to the OCDQ were computed by hand in respect to the four dimensions of leader behavior subtest scores: aloofness, production emphasis, thrust, and consideration. Each score was summed.

Raw scores (see Appendix E) were coded for dichotomous categories of the schools' orientation to change, the teachers and principals' beliefs, and the teachers' climate perceptions. These scores and the principals' subtest scores on leader behavior were punched on computer cards for analysis in respect to the stated hypotheses of the study.

With assistance from a research specialist, the researcher developed the following SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences)

computer programs (Nie et al., 1975). The chi-square statistic in the Crosstabs program was used in analysis of hypothesis one; the t test for independent samples was used in analysis of the proposition related to hypothesis two; and the Pearson product-moment coefficient of correlation was used in analysis of the ancillary hypothesis.

Finally, the personal and professional data collected from participants as requested on the information sheet (see Appendix F) were tabulated and reviewed by the researcher for serendipitous relationships.

Summary

Chapter III has described the design and methodology used in this investigation. Procedures for sample selection and data collection were discussed. The instruments used were described, and reliability and validity data were reported. Plans for treatment and analysis of data were outlined. Data from the study will be presented and analyzed in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

In purpose, this investigation was designed to describe the elementary school's orientation to change as influenced by process variables of beliefs and climate. In order to accomplish this purpose, the data gathered in this study were used to test the following null hypotheses: (1) There is no significant relationship between teachers' belief systems and perceptions of organizational climate in high and low change-oriented elementary schools. (2) There is no significant relationship among the principal's belief system, her/his leader behavior, and the school's orientation to change. (3) There are no significant relationships between the organizational climate and the following individual beliefs: the nature of man, the nature of motivation, the conditions of learning, the conditions of social learning, the nature of intellectual development, the nature of knowledge, the nature of society, the nature of instruction, the nature of curriculum, the nature of organization, the nature of content, the nature of materials and resources, and the nature of evaluation.

This chapter presents a description of the participating sample and the statistical analysis of the data obtained from the investigative procedures described in Chapter III. Demographic data are presented in the final portion. The chapter ends with a summary.

Description of the Sample

The population of this study constituted 366 elementary classroom teachers and 31 elementary principals from 31 elementary schools of one urban public school district in the midwest area of the United States. Selection of schools identified as high and low change-oriented was based on judgment by a committee of the school district's central administrative leadership in accordance with the researcher's suggested criteria. As many as sixteen schools in each category were identified for the study. With one principal declining his/her school's invitation to participate, voluntary responses were gathered by the researcher from teachers and principals in 15 high change-oriented and 16 low change-oriented schools. The participating sample of the study consisted of 202 teachers and 21 principals in 31 schools. The participating sample represented 55 percent of the teachers and approximately 68 percent of the principals invited to participate. Table I illustrates the participating sample number and percent of the invited sample for both teachers and principals by category of the school's orientation to change.

Testing the Hypotheses

The two main hypotheses and a single ancillary hypothesis posited in the study were tested using statistical SPSS computer programs at the Oklahoma State University Computer Center. Adhering to common practice, the researcher accepted null hypotheses which were not rejected at the .05 level of significance.

Hypothesis one stated: There is no significant relationship between teachers' belief systems and perceptions of organizational climate in high and low change-oriented elementary schools. Data for

TABLE I

SAMPLE REPRESENTATION BY CHANGE-ORIENTATION

Change-Orientation of Schools	Invited Sample Number	Participating Sample Number	Percent Participating*
Teachers			
High	220	123	55.91
Low	146	79	54.11
Total	366	202	55.19
Principals			
High	15	9	60.00
Low	16	12	75.00
Total	31	21	67.74

*Percentage carried two digits.

analysis were secured from responses on the EBSI-EPBI and the OCDQ.

Chi-square tests were computed to determine whether there were significant relationships between teachers' belief systems and perceptions of organizational climate in high and low change-oriented elementary schools. The computations of the Chi-square yielded a corrected value of .64 for the high change-oriented group and a corrected value of .00 for the low change-oriented group. Corrected values are reported because of the small size of 50 percent of the cell frequencies. With one degree of freedom, a Chi-square value that was equal to or greater than 3.84 was required for statistical significance for the two-tailed test.

Therefore, according to the level of significance previously established, the hypothesis is not rejected. For this sample, there is no significant relationship between belief system and climate in high and low change-oriented schools. A summary of the relevant data in the testing of the hypothesis is presented in Tables II and III.

Hypothesis two stated: There is no significant relationship among the principal's belief system, her/his leader behavior, and the school's orientation to change. With only one focused belief system among the data from principals, statistical analysis of the relationship among the factors of belief system, leader behavior, and the school's orientation to change was not possible.

This hypothesis led to the prediction that there was no significant difference between principals' self perceptions of leader behavior and the schools' high or low orientation to change. To test this difference, t tests for independent samples were computed using data from responses of the four subtest measures of leader behavior on the

TABLE II

ANALYSIS OF BELIEF SYSTEM AND ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE FOR DESCRIBING HIGH CHANGE-ORIENTED SCHOOLS

	Open Climate	Closed Climate	
Focused Belief System	1	3	4 3.3%
Eclectic Belief System	69	50	119 96.7%
	70 56.9%	53 43.1%	123

Corrected X^2 = .64, df = 1, ns.

TABLE III

ANALYSIS OF BELIEF SYSTEM AND ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE FOR DESCRIBING LOW CHANGE-ORIENTED SCHOOLS

	Open Climate	Closed Climate	
Focused Belief System	5	3	8 10.1%
Eclectic Belief System	42	29	71 89.9%
	47 59.5%	32 40.5%	79

Corrected X^2 = .00, df = 1, ns.

OCDQ. This was done to see whether a significant difference existed between the mean scores of principals' leader behavior in high change-oriented and low change-oriented schools.

For each of the four measures of leader behavior, means and standard deviations were computed. Given groups of unequal size, F tests supported the assumption of equal variances. Differences between means on each measure of leader behavior were analyzed by use of the t test for independent samples. Since no significant differences were found, results indicated that the two groups of principals in high and low change-oriented schools are not significantly different on any of the four variables of leader behavior. Table IV presents relevant data in the testing of this prediction.

The ancillary hypothesis stated: There are no significant relationships between the organizational climate and the following individual beliefs: the nature of man, the nature of motivation, the conditions of learning, the conditions of social learning, the nature of intellectual development, the nature of knowledge, the nature of society, the nature of instruction, the nature of curriculum, the nature of organization, the nature of content, the nature of materials and resources, and the nature of evaluation.

Individual scores from each of the 13 subtests for each of the three philosophical camps on the EBSI-EPBI and the climate score on the OCDQ provided the data for analysis. The Pearson product-moment coefficient of correlation was computed to determine whether there were significant relationships between individual beliefs represented by each subtest score for each philosophical camp and organizational climate.

The tests yielded a low negative association (Davis, p. 49) between

TABLE IV

MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION, AND RESULTS OF TESTS OF SIGNIFICANCE BETWEEN MEANS AND VARIANCES OF LEADER BEHAVIOR FOR PRINCIPALS IN HIGH AND LOW CHANGE-ORIENTED SCHOOLS

Leader Behavior	Change-Orientation				F*	t[x]	p
	High (N=9)		Low (N=12)				
	M	S.D.	M	S.D.			
Thrust	71.00	2.74	69.58	3.78	1.90	-.95	ns
Aloofness	37.44	3.05	38.25	2.99	1.04	.61	ns
Production Emphasis	45.22	3.23	44.58	3.26	1.02	-.45	ns
Considera-tion	45.55	1.74	46.00	2.95	2.88	.40	ns

*F test - tests the homogeneity of variance.

[x]t test - tests significance of differences between means.

organizational climate and scores on Camp A beliefs about the conditions of social learning, the nature of knowledge, nature of society, nature of content, and nature of materials and resources, and on Camp B beliefs about the nature of man, nature of motivation, and conditions of social learning. The test of significance for r with 200 degrees of freedom has a value of .138 at .05 level of significance for the two-tailed test.

Therefore, the null hypothesis may be rejected for these subtests. The remaining measures of individual beliefs did not yield computed r values greater than the tabled r; and therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected for these subtests. Table V presents summary of the relevant data in the testing of the hypothesis.

Demographic Data

The final portion of this chapter summarizes the demographic data of the study. Data are reported for teachers and principals' groups in high change-oriented and low change-oriented schools. Additional data are reported for the groups of schools. These data were analyzed for serendipitous relationships. No prior hypotheses were formulated, and no statistical tests were made on these data.

Among the sample of teachers, a large majority was female with only 9.41 percent male. About half of the teachers in both the high and low change-oriented groups of schools was over 50 years of age and had education beyond the Master's degree level. A total of seven teachers had degrees beyond the Master's. About half of the teachers in the low change-oriented schools had less than twenty years of teaching experience, and about 60 percent of those in the high change-oriented schools

TABLE V

PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS
OF CLIMATE WITH PHILOSOPHICAL CAMPS

Measures of Belief System	Camp A	Camp B	Camp C
Nature of Man	.05	-.12*	-.02
Motivation	.00	-.17*	-.02
Conditions of Learning	-.05	-.11	-.05
Social Learning	-.14*	-.12*	-.06
Intellectual Development	.09	-.02	.11
Knowledge	-.13*	.01	-.01
Society	-.13*	-.10	-.08
Instruction	-.04	.06	.00
Curriculum	.07	-.11	-.02
Organization	-.04	-.04	-.06
Content	-.16*	-.03	-.01
Materials and Resources	-.12*	.00	-.11
Evaluation	-.04	-.02	-.04

*$p < .05$ (two-tailed).

N = 202

had less than twenty years of teaching experience. Table VI summarizes the data.

Among the sample of principals, there was only a single female principal. There were three principals with doctoral degrees among the sample. Over half of the principals in both groups was over 50 years of age; but 25 percent was over 60 years in the low change-oriented group, while none was over 60 years in the high change-oriented group. Instead, 22 percent was between 30 and 39 years of age in the high change-oriented group and none was under 40 years in the low change-oriented schools. The levels of educational attainment of principals in the two groups did not appear to reveal substantial differences. Three-fourths of the principals in each group had completed graduate work beyond the Master's degree level. Analysis of the total work experience in the field of education for principals revealed that all principals in the study had a minimum of 15 years experience. As well, approximately 16 percent of those in the low change-oriented schools had total experience of 36+ years. The data are summarized in Table VII.

Demographic data about the groups of schools included in the study are reported. The sample size of 31 schools represents 40.79 percent of the district's regular kindergarten through sixth grade attendance centers. The size of student populations and the relative socioeconomic and geographic location of schools in the district are worthy of special note. Among the low change-oriented group of schools, approximately three-fourths had student populations under 250. Among the high change-oriented group of schools, approximately 86.67 percent had student populations over 250. Equal numbers of schools in Title I socioeconomic areas are represented in the two groups; however,

TABLE VI

SEX, AGE, EDUCATION, AND TEACHING EXPERIENCE OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS IN HIGH AND LOW CHANGE-ORIENTED SCHOOLS

Item	High Change-Oriented		Low Change-Oriented	
	Frequency	Percent*	Frequency	Percent*
1. Sex				
Male	9	7.32	10	12.66
Female	105	85.36	64	81.01
Not given	9	7.32	5	6.33
Total	123	100.00	79	100.00
2. Age				
20-29	17	13.82	10	12.66
30-39	32	26.02	12	15.19
40-49	20	16.26	18	22.79
50-59	37	30.08	20	25.32
60-69	8	6.50	14	17.72
Not given	9	7.32	5	6.33
Total	123	100.00	79	100.00
3. Education				
BA or BS	7	5.69	6	7.59
Graduate work	44	35.77	27	34.18
Master's	6	4.88	1	1.27
Graduate work	54	43.90	36	45.57
Specialist	2	1.63	4	5.06
Doctorate	1	.81	0	0.00
Not given	9	7.32	5	6.33
Total	123	100.00	79	100.00
4. Teaching Experience				
1-5 years	15	12.20	11	13.92
6-10	20	16.26	8	10.13
11-15	21	17.07	11	13.92
16-20	18	14.63	9	11.39
21-25	15	12.20	8	10.13
26-30	11	8.94	18	22.78
31-35	4	3.25	7	8.86
36+	4	3.25	6	7.60
Not given	15	12.20	1	1.27
Total	123	100.00	79	100.00

*Percentage carried two digits.

TABLE VII

SEX. AGE, EDUCATION, AND TOTAL EXPERIENCE OF ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS IN HIGH AND LOW CHANGE-ORIENTED SCHOOLS

Item	High Change-Oriented		Low Change-Oriented	
	Frequency	Percent*	Frequency	Percent*
1. Sex				
Male	8	88.89	11	91.67
Female	1	11.11	0	0.00
Not given	0	0.00	1	8.33
Total	9	100.00	12	100.00
2. Age				
20-29	0	0.00	0	0.00
30-39	2	22.22	0	0.00
40-49	2	22.22	3	25.00
50-59	5	55.56	5	41.67
60-69	0	0.00	3	25.00
Not given	0	0.00	1	8.33
Total	9	100.00	12	100.00
3. Education				
BA or BS	0	0.00	0	0.00
Graduate work	0	0.00	0	0.00
Master's	0	0.00	0	0.00
Graduate work	7	77.78	9	75.00
Specialist	0	0.00	1	8.33
Doctorate	2	22.22	1	8.33
Not given	0	0.00	1	8.33
Total	9	100.00	12	99.99
4. Teaching Experience				
1-5 years	0	0.00	0	0.00
6-10	0	0.00	0	0.00
11-15	0	0.00	0	0.00
16-20	1	11.11	1	8.33
21-25	2	22.22	2	16.67
26-30	4	44.44	5	41.67
31-35	1	11.11	1	8.33
36+	0	0.00	2	16.67
Not given	1	11.11	1	8.33
Total	9	99.99	12	100.00

*Percentage carried two digits.

geographically, approximately 60 percent of the high change-oriented schools are in the Northeast quadrant and 56.25 percent of the schools in the low change-oriented group are in the Southeast quadrant of the district. Table VIII presents summary of the demographic data about the schools.

Summary

This chapter presented the results of the study. The chapter contained a description of the respondents and analysis of the data in accordance with the hypotheses of the study. Chi-square, t test for independent samples, and Pearson product-moment coefficient of correlation statistical procedures provided the appropriate means for data analysis. Demographic data were presented in the final portion.

In summary, the data analysis resulted in failure to reject hypothesis one: teachers' belief systems did not significantly relate to perceptions of organizational climate in high or low change-oriented schools. Insufficient data prevented analysis of the second hypothesis as stated. Data analysis of the ancillary hypothesis yielded a low negative association between organizational climate and eight of 39 measures of individual beliefs.

Chapter V presents the findings, conclusions, and recommendations for further research.

TABLE VIII

STUDENT POPULATION, TITLE I STATUS, AND GEOGRAPHIC LOCATION OF HIGH AND LOW CHANGE-ORIENTED SCHOOLS

Item	High Change-Oriented		Low Change-Oriented	
	Frequency	Percent*	Frequency	Percent*
1. Student Population				
Under 250	2	13.33	12	75.00
Over 250	13	86.67	4	25.00
Total	15	100.00	16	100.00
2. Title I Status				
Title I	8	53.33	8	50.00
non-Title I	7	46.67	8	50.00
Total	15	100.00	16	100.00
3. Geographic Location				
Northwest	3	20.00	2	12.50
Northeast	9	60.00	1	6.25
Southwest	1	6.67	4	25.00
Southeast	2	13.33	9	56.25
Total	15	100.00	16	100.00

*Percentage carried two digits.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

Public education today has many critics. Many people lack confidence in our schools and have begun to demand specific changes in the quality of education. The current press for accountability has become focused on the issue of teacher performance. Efforts to assure competence in teacher behavior emphasize primarily quantitative factors and their measurement. The result has been creation of an imbalance in relative concerns for product and process dimensions of education. There are also qualitative factors that are related to teacher competence as well as to lasting change efforts.

Summary

This study was designed to determine whether there were a relationship between teachers' belief systems and perceptions of climate in high and low change-oriented schools. The study also was designed to determine whether there were a relationship among the principal's belief system, his/her leader behavior, and the school's orientation to change.

A review of the literature revealed two divergent patterns of thought in relation to this problem: (1) the current press for accountability has tended to overemphasize objective measurement of teacher results and performance and (2) analysis of reform efforts during the

1960's and 70's has identified subjective factors such as beliefs, interpersonal relations or climate, and leader behavior that contribute to lasting change efforts.

Two instruments of analysis were used. The EBSI-EPBI was used to determine belief systems of teachers and principals. The OCDQ was used to identify teachers' perceptions of climate and self perceptions of leader behavior among principals.

The selection of schools was based on a central administrative committee's identification of schools having evidences of high and low change-orientation according to criteria representative of specific outcome measures appropriate to the local school district involved in the study.

The 202 teachers and 21 principals in the sample participated voluntarily. The major objective of the study was to test the following null hypotheses: (1) There is no significant relationship between teachers' belief systems and perceptions of organizational climate in high and low change-oriented elementary schools. (2) There is no significant relationship among the principal's belief system, her/his leader behavior, and the school's orientation to change. (Ancillary Hypothesis) There are no significant relationships between the organizational climate and the following individual beliefs: the nature of man, the nature of motivation, the conditions of learning, the conditions of social learning, the nature of intellectual development, the nature of knowledge, the nature of society, the nature of instruction, the nature of curriculum, the nature of organization, the nature of content, the nature of materials and resources, and the nature of evaluation.

The data for hypothesis one were analyzed through the use of the

Chi-square statistical procedure to determine the relationships as outlined by the hypothesis. Insufficient data were collected from principals which prevented analysis of hypothesis two. The t test of independent samples was used to determine the difference between indices of leader behavior of principals in high and low change-oriented schools. Data for the ancillary hypothesis were analyzed through use of the Pearson product-moment coefficient of correlation.

Findings

The findings of this study are listed below:

1. Teachers' belief systems did not significantly relate to perceptions of organizational climate in high or low change-oriented schools.

2. Principals' self perceptions of leader behavior and the school's orientation to change did not relate significantly.

3. Principals in both high and low change-oriented schools had similar self perceptions of leader behavior.

4. Few teachers or principals had focused belief systems.

5. Organizational climate did significantly relate in low negative association to eight of 39 measures of individual beliefs: Camp A beliefs about the conditions of social learning, the nature of knowledge, nature of society, nature of content, and nature of materials and resources; and Camp B beliefs about the nature of man, nature of motivation, and the conditions of social learning.

Conclusions

The rationale from which the hypotheses guiding this study were

deduced stressed the relative function of persons and organizations rather than technology in contributing to lasting change efforts. It was theorized that teachers' belief systems and perceptions of climate would be related in high and low change-oriented schools. There would be greater numbers of teachers in high rather than in low change-oriented schools who had focused belief systems and open perceptions of climate. Conversely, in low change-oriented schools, there would be greater numbers of teachers who had eclectic belief systems and closed perceptions of climate. Further, it was theorized that principals' belief systems, self perceptions of leader behavior, and the schools' level of orientation to change would be related. Focused belief systems and positive leader behavior would be more prevalent among principals in high rather than in low change-oriented schools.

Lack of confirmation of the hypothesis that there were a significant relationship between teachers' belief systems and perceptions of climate provided no support for this theory. Although failure to confirm the hypothesis that principals' belief systems, self perceptions of leader behavior, and the schools' orientation to change were significantly related provided no other support for the theory, insufficient data prevented the analysis. Although the literature supports the significantly positive influence of intangible, process variables in successful change efforts, neither beliefs, nor climate, nor leader behavior was found to relate significantly with high and low change-oriented schools in the population under study. Thus, the theory did not have support.

Implications

Failure to find significant relationships between beliefs and climate or beliefs and leader behavior in high and low change-oriented schools has raised the theoretical consideration about the popular and mythical context in which change is typically viewed. The results of this study show teachers as technicians in the typical context of change. Popularly speaking, there is a craze in education for what provides the appearance of successful change efforts. Typically, methods and materials change on a piece-meal basis in response to fads or as adaptations of current practices in absence of an accompanying understanding and commitment to the philosophical rationale. This mythical notion about the nature of change considers change as an event.

On the other hand, recall the basic assumptions about the nature of change as they were discussed earlier in this study: Change was considered as a process. It takes time and is achieved only in stages. It is developmental in nature. Institutions cannot change until the individual persons within them change. Individual persons within organizations (such as the school) provide comprehensive and lasting change efforts in response to deliberate collaborative strategies.

Although the researcher's suggested criteria were intended to identify high and low change-oriented schools in accord with evidence that reflected the effects of change as a process, perhaps popular notions of change as an event were of significant influence in the actual identification procedures. The researcher questions whether all schools in the study in fact may be of the same category. Individual schools may have only the facade or appearance of high or low change-orientation in accord with the mythical view of change as previously

discussed. In fact, it may be that few schools are actually high change-oriented. The results of this study illustrate the incompleteness of theory which attempts to quantify qualitative factors and thereby over-simplifies or misrepresents the essential nature of change. Morrish (1976) has provided perspective for this consideration in his statement that:

> . . . we really still know little . . . about how and why individuals change their attitudes, about the behaviour of groups or about cognitive and skill requirements for the retaining of teachers and administrators for the new types of interaction inevitably required in a school system that is learning-oriented (p. 51).

It is the researcher's implication that theoretical questions about the nature of change should be of special concern in considering the nonsignificant results of this study, because the popular view of change as an event is a myth in education.

Failure to find significant relationships between belief systems and climate or leader behavior in high and low change-oriented schools has raised several questions about the instruments used in the study.

This researcher would question the applicability of individual items on the OCDQ in light of changes in professional rights and responsibilities of teachers and principals as well as basic changes in American society generally between 1963 (the copyright date of the OCDQ) and 1980. These changes (for which examples are indicated in the items below) necessarily have influenced changes in interpersonal relations among teachers and between teachers and principal. Recall that the literature reports present use of the instrument, but such items as the following ones raise questions about the datedness of the instrument: "Teachers spend time after school with students who have individual problems," or "Teachers leave the ground during the school day," or "The

principal tries to get better salaries for teachers," or "The rules set by the principal are never questioned," or "The principal checks the subject-matter ability of teachers."

This researcher would question the readability of the EBSI-EPBI on the following bases. There was relative paucity of scores indicating "disagreement" with individual beliefs in preference for responses that reflect degrees of "agreement" or "uncertainty" about beliefs. This issue necessarily results in lack of congruency in any one philosophical camp. Most subjects were classified as having eclectic belief systems, since their scores indicated association with two or all three camps rather than agreement with one camp exclusively.

Additionally, there would appear to be relationship between the grade level results of readability measurements performed by the researcher (see Appendix G) and informal comments received from participants regarding the vocabulary level and difficulty of concepts addressed by the instrument. Comments similar to the following are recalled: "I had to look certain words up in the dictionary," "It was really pretty deep stuff," "Why doesn't it say what it means?" and "What if I agree with the first part but disagree with the second?" These judgments indicate preference for more readable material in the sense of easier style.

It is the researcher's implication that questions about the instruments themselves should be of concern in considering the results of this study. Use of the instruments did not result in discrimination or identification of distinctions in beliefs or perceptions of climate among teachers working in high and low change-oriented groups of schools.

The study results showed lack of significant relationships in factors among both teachers and principals which suggests confirmation of the old adage: "As the principal, so goes the school." Recall, too, that leadership was important as the motivator of a sense of mission affecting lasting change efforts. In the opinion of this researcher, inservice activities designed for principals to investigate self perceptions of leader behavior as well as course content to deal with becoming more effective leaders in the instructional improvement area would facilitate professional growth among individual principals and contribute to improvement in strategies of planning and implementing building level goals and programs.

Demographic data revealed questions about the apparent relationship between the change-orientation of schools and the factors of school size and geographic location of particular schools within the particular district involved in the present study. It is the opinion of this researcher that district level management might be interested in exploring the potential import of these revelations.

Recommendations

The completion of this study has provided insights into problems of the investigative process. The researcher has recognized that the study took place under the following restricting influences: (1) the inability to randomize with the concomitant dependence upon the competency of district leadership for classifying schools and (2) the length of the instruments themselves and amount of time necessary for their completion with the accompanying reliance on voluntary participation.

In respect to the ancillary hypothesis, further investigation of

the relationship between climate and beliefs can be recommended by the researcher. Evidence of significant correlations indicating low negative association between climate and certain measures of individual beliefs may have theoretical import. Additional study is recommended to determine whether additional findings confirm the results of the present study.

After reviewing the literature and conducting this study, it has become apparent to this researcher that the success of change efforts lies to a considerable extent in the academic preparation and staff development of teachers and principals. This researcher feels that the teachers and principals in this study were not prepared to deal with personal philosophy about educational theory and practices when research findings of this study showed that only 13 of a total sample of 223 had focused belief systems. A very large proportion of the subjects involved in this study indicated agreement with conflicting and inconsistent philosophical camps.

Additionally, this researcher questions whether the teachers and principals in this study were sufficiently prepared to deal with human relations and collaborative decision-making processes when research findings of this study showed similar percentages of teachers in both groups had open or closed perceptions of climate and indices of leader behavior were not distinguishable between the two groups of principals.

Further evidence to support these contentions could be formed by reviewing certification requirements, college and university course offerings and syllabi, and individual college transcripts.

The results of this study have suggested some possible needs in preservice and inservice programs and some ideas for meeting these needs

when research findings of this study showed 55 percent of teachers and nearly 68 percent of principals chose voluntarily to participate in this study. This researcher feels that such response is indicative of considerable potential interest among teachers and principals for becoming involved in concentrated staff development efforts that address subjective issues such as philosophy and group processes which hold promise for effecting change. In the opinion of this researcher, the evidence opens the door to further investigation within the district which utilizes the theory espoused in the present study to design programs in staff development at the building level that involve opportunities for staffs to plan and implement the investigative procedures of action research.

Results of this study support the recommendation that action research be a part of staff development efforts which collect and analyze perceptual base line data measuring philosophy and climate factors within the context of the local school and community environment. Conclusions should be utilized to provide direction for the collaborative planning and implementing of building level goals and instructional programs. Results of these efforts should be carefully evaluated by the teachers, principal, and others involved in the process. Finally, it is suggested that this kind of further investigation be implemented initially as a pilot study within the district by a staff that is especially interested in a concentrated and collaborative strategy.

In conclusion, implications and recommendations have been expressed in the spirit keeping with the assumptions identified by the researcher at the outset of this study. The preceding suggestions reflect some of

questions for further investigations of the concepts of belief systems, organizational climate, and leader behavior which might provide promise of effecting change and meaningful improvement in American public education at the local school level.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

CRITERIA FOR IDENTIFYING HIGH AND LOW CHANGE-ORIENTED ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHERS' BELIEF SYSTEMS AND ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE IN HIGH AND LOW CHANGE-ORIENTED ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Change-oriented - disposition to relevance and flexibility in dealing with problem-solving and decision-making situations in respect to individual and group goals and purposes; willingness to innovate and improve.

Criteria to consider in assessing responses to change for identifying high and low change-oriented schools:

1. Mini-grant proposals and/or awards
2. Use of science curriculum and other new materials
3. Involvement in career education and energy conservation programs
4. Use of teacher center
5. Other involvement in "keeping up" including original projects
6. Use of field trips
7. Newspaper publicity
8. Home-community relations including parent organizations and use of parent volunteers
9. Use of committees and delegation of responsibilities among staff
10. Teacher transfers and requests for transfer
11. Transfer of principals and merit pay for principals
12. Calls downtown and nature of calls
13. Calls to ombudsman and nature of concerns
14. Use of resource and consultant personnel
15. Other

APPENDIX B

STATEMENT OF EXPLANATION AND DIRECTIONS

Statement of Explanation and Directions

I am Helen Hummelke. I am a classroom and special reading teacher and on sabbatical leave to work on my doctorate in Curriculum and Instruction at Oklahoma State University. For my dissertation, I am investigating the relationship between teachers' educational philosophies and their perceptions of the school climate.

I am here to ask for your help in completing two instruments which I am using to collect data for my study. They will take about one hour of your time. I will leave them with you and come back to pick them up next _____. I shall appreciate your time and effort. Your participation is important for my study. All the questions are important also. I want to emphasize that all responses will remain confidential. No individual, school, or district will be identified in the report of my study. I cannot interpret items; and please do not talk to others while you are completing the items. Respond to every item in light of your own beliefs and perceptions of your situation.

Initially, choose a four or five digit number to put on each answer sheet in the boxes for your name. Only you will know this number; but I will be able to verify that I have received two pieces of data from each subject. Complete the belief system inventory according to the following directions . . . . Respond to the climate questionnaire in the following manner . . . . Finally, please check responses to the four items indicated on the information sheet.

When you have completed everything, place the answer sheets and booklets in this large envelope which I will leave in the office and return to pick up. If you choose not to participate, please return the materials to the same envelope. I am in need of being able to recycle the booklets and shall appreciate your cooperation. You are welcome to keep the pencil! Again, thank you.

APPENDIX C

EDUCATIONAL BELIEFS SYSTEM INVENTORY AND EDUCATIONAL PRACTICE BELIEF INVENTORY

EDUCATIONAL BELIEFS SYSTEM INVENTORY

Part I

EDUCATIONAL PRACTICE BELIEF INVENTORY

Part II

Russell Dobson
Judith Dobson
W. Frank Grahlman
John Kessinger

Oklahoma State University
1978

EDUCATIONAL BELIEFS SYSTEM INVENTORY

Part I

Following is a list of 69 statements concerning various aspects of educational theory. Please judge each of the statements according to the scale to the right. In making your judgments, DO NOT consider each statement from the viewpoint, "This is how it is now." Rather, DO CONSIDER "This is what I really believe."

1 = complete agreement
2 = moderate agreement
3 = uncertain
4 = moderate disagreement
5 = complete disagreement

What do you believe about man?

1. Man can be characterized clearly in terms of his his behavior. 1 2 3 4 5
2. Man's behavior is based on cognition, the act of knowing or thinking about a situation and not on the situation itself. 1 2 3 4 5
3. Man is greater than the sum of his parts. 1 2 3 4 5
4. Man is a malleable and passive reactor to his environment. 1 2 3 4 5
5. Man is best described in relative terms according to time, circumstance, and place. 1 2 3 4 5
6. Man is a social being and seeks identity through interaction with others. 1 2 3 4 5
7. Man has an inherent tendency toward self-actualization and productivity. 1 2 3 4 5

8. Man's behavior is predictable. 1 2 3 4 5

9. Man's characteristics can be studied independently of one another. 1 2 3 4 5

10. Man can only be studied as a whole. 1 2 3 4 5

11. Individual perceptions are the only reality known to man. 1 2 3 4 5

12. Man is an active organism that develops goal-seeking potential. 1 2 3 4 5

13. Man's significance is determined by the work he performs which is motivated by the promise of reward. 1 2 3 4 5

14. Freedom for an individual means growth and the willingness to change when modifications are needed. 1 2 3 4 5

15. Man defines his own human potential through choices. 1 2 3 4 5

	A	B	C
Score	_____	_____	_____

What do you believe about motivation?

16. Reinforcement (reward) must follow immediately after the desired behavior and be clearly connected with that behavior in the mind of the learner for learning to occur. 1 2 3 4 5

17. Behaviors which are reinforced (rewarded) are likely to recur. 1 2 3 4 5

18. Cognitive processes are set into motion (thinking) when the learner encounters an obstacle, difficulty, puzzle or challenge in a course of action which interests him. 1 2 3 4 5

19. Children are naturally curious and will explore their surroundings without adult interference and encouragement. 1 2 3 4 5

20. Children will create tasks that are of educational significance and structure methods of accomplishing these tasks when given the freedom to do so. 1 2 3 4 5

21. Productive learning experiences require active involvement. 1 2 3 4 5

22. Learning occurs best when the purposes and needs are realistic, meaningful and useful to the learner. 1 2 3 4 5

23. Appropriate external stimulation of the learner is necessary for optimal achievement. 1 2 3 4 5

24. Frequency of repetition is necessary in acquiring skills and in bringing about overlearning to guarantee retention. 1 2 3 4 5

25. True learning occurs when the experience is internalized. 1 2 3 4 5

26. The desire to learn comes from within the individual. 1 2 3 4 5

27. Productive learning takes place when the tasks are adjusted to the maturity and experimental background of the learners. 1 2 3 4 5

	A	B	C
Score	_____	_____	_____

What do you believe about the conditions of learning?

28. The mind consists of separate, but related faculties which can be trained. There is automatic transfer of training. 1 2 3 4 5

29. If a child is absorbed with and enjoying an activity, learning is occurring. 1 2 3 4 5

30. Confidence in self influences learning. The stage of development of the child affects the degree of participation or involvement in learning tasks as well as mastery of skills. 1 2 3 4 5

31. The educative process begins with providing the learner with a smorgasboard of activities that fits his/her stage of development and which reflects his/her concerns and interests. 1 2 3 4 5

32. Children are perceptually closer to the learning situation than are teachers: Subsequently, they see and feel what is needed and are capable of self-direction. 1 2 3 4 5

33. Learning is largely a reactive experience. 1 2 3 4 5

34. Learning occurs best when competition for rewards among learners is induced. 1 2 3 4 5

35. Learning processes proceed best when the learner sees results, has knowledge of his status and progress, achieves insight, and gains understanding. 1 2 3 4 5

36. Man's mind is an information receptacle which can produce factual content mastery. 1 2 3 4 5

37. Learning emerges in the flow and continuity of man's total experiencing and growing. 1 2 3 4 5

38. Expectations made of the learner should be based upon knowledge of his abilities which are determined by physiological and social development. 1 2 3 4 5

39. Children are best taught exploratory behavior when threat is not present. 1 2 3 4 5

	A	B	C
Score	_____	_____	_____

What are your beliefs concerning social learning?

40. Children receive many satisfactions from work and stimulation from reasonable new challenges. 1 2 3 4 5

41. The purpose of school is to prepare children for adulthood so they can assume a contributing role in society. 1 2 3 4 5

42. When man chooses he chooses for all men. 1 2 3 4 5

43. When groups of individuals act for a common goal there is a better cooperation and more friendliness than when individuals in the groups are engaged in competition with one another. 1 2 3 4 5

44. Behavior is a social product. 1 2 3 4 5

45. Satisfaction in learning is affected by the group atmosphere as well as the products. 1 2 3 4 5

46. Man has the capacity to adopt, adapt, and reconstitute present and past ideas and beliefs. He also has the capacity to invent. 1 2 3 4 5

47. Man creates his own environment. 1 2 3 4 5

48. Man creates groups which agree with his own reality. 1 2 3 4 5

49. Children should be motivated to learn what is significant and contributory to their lives. 1 2 3 4 5

50. Man is a social being who seeks active involvement with others. 1 2 3 4 5

51. Self-concept is observable through ones behavior or performance. 1 2 3 4 5

A B C

Score _____ _____ _____

What do you believe about intellectual development?

52. People possess different levels and amounts of intelligence. These can be ascertained and reported by a score derived from testing. 1 2 3 4 5

53. The normal curve expresses the social and academic expectation of where people are supposed to fit for the goodness of all. 1 2 3 4 5

54. Readiness for learning is a complex interplay of social, physiological, emotional and intellectual development. 1 2 3 4 5

55. The less planned adult intervention, the greater intellectual gains of the child. 1 2 3 4 5

56. Increase in intelligence tests scores are positively related to aggressiveness, competitiveness, initiative, and strength of felt need to achieve. 1 2 3 4 5

57. Learning involves creating relationships. Intellectual development proceeds from "wholes" to "parts" or from a simplified whole to more complex wholes. 1 2 3 4 5

	A	B	C
Score	_____	_____	_____

What do you believe about knowledge?

58. Knowledge is a model created by the individual that makes sense out of encounters with the external conditions in the environment. 1 2 3 4 5

59. Truth exists prior to the learning of it. 1 2 3 4 5

60. Knowledge is temporary and conditional. 1 2 3 4 5

61. Information becomes knowledge when it is perceived as relevant to the solutions of a particular problem. 1 2 3 4 5

62. Little or no knowledge exists which is necessary for all humans to possess. 1 2 3 4 5

63. Truth can be known for itself and not merely for some instrumental purpose. 1 2 3 4 5

	A	B	C
Score	_____	_____	_____

What do you believe about society?

64. Society is a process in which individuals participate. 1 2 3 4 5

65. The school preserves social order and builds new social orders when the public decides they are needed. 1 2 3 4 5

66. Mankind is made man by cultural birth. 1 2 3 4 5

67. Society is self renewing. 1 2 3 4 5

68. The way to improve civilization is by improving the quality of individuals, not by improving institutions. 1 2 3 4 5

69. Society has existence in man's mind. 1 2 3 4 5

	A	B	C
Score	_____	_____	_____

Total Score A _____

B _____

C _____

EDUCATIONAL PRACTICE BELIEF INVENTORY

Part II

Following is a list of 69 statements concerning various aspects of educational practice. Please judge each of the statements according to the scale to the right. In making your judgments, DO NOT consider each statement from the viewpoint, "This is how it is now." Rather DO CONSIDER "This is what I really believe."

1 = complete agreement
2 = moderate agreement
3 = uncertain
4 = moderate disagreement
5 = complete disagreement

What do you believe about instruction?

70. Ongoing assessment, immediate feedback and various reinforcement devices should be used to insure that students remain task oriented. 1 2 3 4 5

71. The study period should be organized through mutual agreement between teacher and pupils with each child knowing what is expected of him. 1 2 3 4 5

72. Chidlren naturally set goals and enjoy striving. 1 2 3 4 5

73. Children receive many satisfactions from work, have pride in achievement, enjoy the process, and gain a sense of worthiness from contribution. 1 2 3 4 5

74. The teacher functions as a resource person to individuals and groups rather than as a taskmaster. 1 2 3 4 5

75. Transmission of verifiable facts which constitute universal skills is necessary. 1 2 3 4 5

76. The ends of instructional activities should be exemplified in explicit behavioral terms. 1 2 3 4 5

77. Children who understand and who are involved in what they are doing will create satisfactory methods for achieving educational tasks. 1 2 3 4 5

78. Learning activities should be provided on the basis of individual needs. 1 2 3 4 5

79. Diagnostic and prescriptive teaching are absolute necessities. 1 2 3 4 5

80. Heterogenous subgrouping for instructional purposes is recommended in certain skill development areas such as math and reading. 1 2 3 4 5

81. Children are capable of assuming responsibility for their behavior and academic growth. 1 2 3 4 5

82. Children desire to be released, encouraged and assisted. 1 2 3 4 5

83. The teacher should decide when it is time to pull loose ends of learning activities together before moving on to another aspect of that which is to be learned. 1 2 3 4 5

84. Management of children is necessary to ensure proper growth. 1 2 3 4 5

	A	B	C
Score	_____	_____	_____

What do you believe about curriculum?

85.	The curriculum is a predetermined body of content with highly defined and restricted delimitations.	1	2	3	4	5
86.	Day-by-day lesson plan objectives must be well defined and specific.	1	2	3	4	5
87.	The curriculum should emerge from each student.	1	2	3	4	5
88.	In order to maintain balance in the curriculum, subject matter priorities should be determined on the basis of societal and personal needs.	1	2	3	4	5
89.	There should be some system of articulation between units within a school, between schools, within school systems, and between states.	1	2	3	4	5
90.	Curriculum content must be sequenced since there is a logical structural sequence to knowledge.	1	2	3	4	5
91.	Due to individual educational needs the scope of the curriculum should be planned to include a wide variety of unifying and pupil-speciality learning activities.	1	2	3	4	5
92.	The curriculum should reflect as its source the children of that school.	1	2	3	4	5
93.	The curriculum sequence and scope is best divided into segmented, isolated, and compartmentalized packages of knowledge specified by grade levels.	1	2	3	4	5
94.	Elements of the curriculum should be derived from the substance of knowledge itself.	1	2	3	4	5
95.	The curriculum is dynamic because of its constant emergence.	1	2	3	4	5

96. Curriculum structure exists largely in teachers and students heads, not on paper. 1 2 3 4 5

97. Though the curriculum has some degree of systematic structure, it should be flexible enough to capitalize on emergent learning situations. 1 2 3 4 5

98. Since the curriculum must be considered dynamic and forever emerging, each curriculum area should be subjected to continuous revision and evaluation. 1 2 3 4 5

99. The curriculum sequence in certain subject matter areas should be based on a spiral structure which permits the learner to conceptualize by moving from limited perceptivity. 1 2 3 4 5

	A	B	C
Score	_____	_____	_____

What do you believe about organization?

100. The teaching function should be one of diagnosing, prescribing, treating, analyzing results and writing the next prescription. 1 2 3 4 5

101. Individual differences should be viewed as existing between and among learners as opposed to differences existing within individual students. 1 2 3 4 5

102. The school should be organized in such a way that it provides opportunity for each student to have a warm, personal relationship with competent teachers. 1 2 3 4 5

103. The contributions of specialized personnel should be used as students progress through the school, but their work should be coordinated with and related to the total program. 1 2 3 4 5

104. Internal coordination and planning should result in the utilization of special talents and skills which a particular teacher or group of teachers may possess. 1 2 3 4 5

105. The organizational system should permit coordination and planning by groups of teachers responsible for clusters of children in both large and small groups. 1 2 3 4 5

106. The horizontal organization of the school should permit flexibility in assigning small and large numbers of pupils to instructional groups. 1 2 3 4 5

107. Individual differences should be acknowledged by the individual pacing of students through prescribed study sequences. 1 2 3 4 5

108. The horizontal organization of the school should permit students to be assigned to instructional groups on ability within subject matter areas. 1 2 3 4 5

109. The organization of the school should reflect a system whereby each child must measure up to a specified level of performance. 1 2 3 4 5

110. The organizational structure should not result in "labeling" children at an early age. 1 2 3 4 5

111. The vertical organization of the school should provide for continuous unbroken, upward progression of all learners, with due recognition of the wide variability among learners in every aspect of their development. 1 2 3 4 5

112. The organizational design of the school should be an expression of the needs, wants, and desires of its clientele. 1 2 3 4 5

113. The organization should provide for the inter-disciplinary nature of education. 1 2 3 4 5

114. Children should not be grouped according to ability. 1 2 3 4 5

	A	B	C
Score	_____	_____	_____

What do you believe about content?

115. The content of any education program must reflect predetermined survival skills necessary for life. 1 2 3 4 5

116. Content should contribute to the achievement of educational objectives or to the mission of the school. 1 2 3 4 5

117. There is little information that all should be required to know. 1 2 3 4 5

118. Sequence in content should reflect a logical structural sequence to knowledge and to development. 1 2 3 4 5

119. One creates knowledge through personal integration of experience. Therefore, one's knowledge does not categorize into separate disciplines. 1 2 3 4 5

120. There should be a balance between the content-centered curriculum and the process curriculum. 1 2 3 4 5

	A	B	C
Score	_____	_____	_____

What do you believe about materials and resources?

121. Centralized resource centers should include materials commensurate to the stages of development reflected by the students being served. 1 2 3 4 5

122. Emphasis should be placed on trade and reference works and on visual aids as opposed to a strict textbook approach. 1 2 3 4 5

123. Materials that can be easily prescribed (programmed materials, teaching machines, subject matter programs, learning packets, and kits) are desirable. 1 2 3 4 5

124. Wide use should be made of raw materials. 1 2 3 4 5

125. Resources should be limited only by teachers' and students' imaginations. 1 2 3 4 5

126. There should be an emphasis on appropriate diagnostic aids. 1 2 3 4 5

	A	B	C
Score	_____	_____	_____

What do you believe about evaluation?

127. A uniform standards approach to evaluation fails to consider individual differences of children. 1 2 3 4 5

128. Evaluation programs should have three dimensions: a) quantitative measurement, b) teacher's judgement, and c) the child's perceptions. 1 2 3 4 5

129. Learning can be assessed intuitively by observing a child working or playing. 1 2 3 4 5

130. A pupil should be placed in a given learning environment based on a diagnosis that it is best suited for his/her maturity, abilities attainment, and over-all general nature. 1 2 3 4 5

131. Evaluation must be quantitative and qualitative to be of real value. 1 2 3 4 5

132. Objective means of measuring performance may produce negative consequences upon learning. 1 2 3 4 5

133. In evaluating, the teacher's description of what the child is doing should include all aspects of growth. 1 2 3 4 5

134. Pupils should be ranked in terms of other children. 1 2 3 4 5

135. Errors are an indispensable aspect of the learning process. Errors are expected and desired, for they contain feedback essential for continued learning. 1 2 3 4 5

136. Qualities of one's learning that can be meticulously assessed are not inevitably the most important. 1 2 3 4 5

137. Predetermined standards should apply to all students in a grade or school. 1 2 3 4 5

138. Academic standards should serve the purpose of excluding or including persons in the formal school program. 1 2 3 4 5

	A	B	C
Score	_____	_____	_____

Total Score A _____

B _____

C _____

APPENDIX D

ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE DESCRIPTION

QUESTIONNAIRE FORM IV

ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE DESCRIPTION

QUESTIONNAIRE FORM IV

Andrew W. Halpin

Donald B. Croft

University of Chicago

Midwest Administration Center

1963

ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE DESCRIPTION

QUESTIONNAIRE FORM IV

Instructions:

Following are some statements about the school setting. Please indicate the extent to which each statement characterizes your school by circling the appropriate response at the right of each statement.

RO--Rarely Occurs, SO--Sometimes Occurs, OO--Often Occurs, VFO--Very Frequently Occurs

1. Teachers' closest friends are other faculty members at this school . . . . . RO SO OO VFO
2. The mannerisms of teachers at this school are annoying . . . . . RO SO OO VFO
3. Teachers spend time after school with students who have individual problems . . . . . RO SO OO VFO
4. Instructions for the operation of teaching aids are available . . . . . RO SO OO VFO
5. Teachers invite other faculty members to visit them at home . . . . . RO SO OO VFO
6. There is a minority group of teachers who always oppose the majority . . . . . RO SO OO VFO
7. Extra books are available for classroom use . . . . RO SO OO VFO
8. Sufficient time is given to prepare administrative reports . . . . . RO SO OO VFO
9. Teachers know the family background of other faculty members . . . . . RO SO OO VFO
10. Teachers exert group pressure on nonconforming faculty members . . . . . RO SO OO VFO
11. In faculty meetings, there is the feeling of "let's get things done" . . . . . RO SO OO VFO
12. Administrative paper work is burdensome at this school . . . . . RO SO OO VFO
13. Teachers talk about their personal life to other faculty members . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

14. Teachers seek special favors from the principal . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

15. School supplies are readily available for use in classwork . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

16. Student progress reports require too much work . . RO SO OO VFO

17. Teachers have fun socializing together during school time . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

18. Teachers interrupt other fauclty members who are talking in staff meetings . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

19. Most of the teachers here accept the faults of their colleagues . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

20. Teachers have too many committee requirements . . . RO SO OO VFO

21. There is considerable laughter when teachers gather informally . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

22. Teachers ask nonsensical questions in faculty meetings . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

23. Custodial service is available when needed . . . . RO SO OO VFO

24. Routine duties interfere with the job of teaching . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

25. Teachers prepare administrative reports by themselves . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

26. Teachers ramble when they talk in faculty meetings . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

27. Teachers at this school show much school spirit . . RO SO OO VFO

28. The principal goes out of his way to help teachers . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

29. The principal helps teachers solve personal problems . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

30. Teachers at this school stay by themselves . . . . RO SO OO VFO

31. The teachers accomplish their work with great vim, vigor, and pleasure . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

32. The principal sets an example by working hard himself . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

33. The principal does personal favors for teachers . . RO SO OO VFO

34. Teachers eat lunch by themselves in their own classrooms . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

35. The morale of the teachers is high . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

36. The principal uses constructive criticism . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

37. The principal stays after school to help teachers finish their work . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

38. Teachers socialize together in small select groups . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

39. The principal makes all class-scheduling decisions . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

40. Teachers are contacted by the principal each day . RO SO OO VFO

41. The principal is well prepared when he speaks at school functions . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

42. The principal helps staff members settle minor differences . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

43. The principal schedules the work for the teachers . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

44. Teachers leave the ground during the school day . . RO SO OO VFO

45. Teachers help select which courses will be taught . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

46. The principal corrects teachers' mistakes . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

47. The principal talks a great deal . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

48. The principal explains his reasons for criticisms to teachers . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

49. The principal tries to get better salaries for teachers . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

50. Extra duty for teachers is posted conspicuously . . RO SO OO VFO

51. The rules set by the principal are never questioned . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

52. The principal looks out for the personal welfare of teachers . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

53. School secretarial service is available for teachers' use . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

54. The principal runs the faculty meeting like a business conference . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

55. The principal is in the building before the teachers arrive . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

56. Teachers work together preparing administrative reports . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

57. Faculty meetings are organized according to a tight agenda . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

58. Faculty meetings are mainly principal-report meetings . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

59. The principal tells teachers of new ideas he has run across . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

60. Teachers talk about leaving the school system . . . RO SO OO VFO

61. The principal checks the subject-matter ability of teachers . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

62. The principal is easy to understand . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

63. Teachers are informed of the results of a supervisor's visit . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

64. The principal insures that teachers work to their full capacity . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

APPENDIX E

RAW SCORES FOR TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS

RAW SCORES FOR TEACHERS

Subject Number	EBSI-EPBI Camp A I	Camp A II	Camp B I	Camp B II	Camp C I	Camp C II	OCDQ (Esprit + Thrust - Disengagement)
1001	2	2	2	1	2	2	69
1002	3	2	2	1	2	2	74
1003	2	3	2	2	3	3	61
1004	2	2	2	2	2	2	78
1005	3	3	2	2	3	3	84
1006	3	3	3	3	3	3	75
1007	3	2	3	2	3	3	90
1008	3	2	2	2	3	3	63
1009	2	2	1	1	2	2	85
1010	2	2	2	2	3	3	91
1011	3	2	2	2	3	2	71
1012	2	2	2	1	2	2	76
1013	3	3	2	2	2	2	73
1014	2	2	2	1	2	2	78
1015	2	2	1	1	2	2	92
1016	3	2	2	2	2	2	72
1017	3	3	2	2	3	2	62
1018	3	2	2	2	2	2	64
1019	2	3	2	2	2	3	81
1020	3	3	2	2	3	3	81
1021	2	2	2	2	3	3	82
1022	2	2	2	2	3	3	72
1023	2	2	3	2	3	2	75
1024	2	3	2	2	2	3	72
1025	2	2	2	2	3	3	84
1026	3	2	3	2	3	3	99
1027	2	2	2	1	2	2	87
1028	2	2	2	3	3	3	82
1029	3	3	2	2	3	3	51
1030	2	2	2	1	3	2	80
1031	2	2	3	2	3	2	89
1032	2	2	2	2	2	2	85
1033	2	2	2	1	2	2	80
1034	4	4	4	4	3	4	80
1036	2	2	1	1	2	2	99
1037	2	2	2	2	3	2	96
1038	2	1	2	2	3	2	80
1039	2	2	2	2	2	2	66
1040	2	2	2	2	3	2	68
1041	3	3	3	3	3	3	76
1042	2	2	2	2	2	3	69
1043	3	3	2	2	3	3	81
1044	2	1	1	1	2	2	58
1045	3	3	2	2	2	2	62
1046	2	2	1	1	2	2	84

Subject Number	EBSI-EPBI Camp A I	Camp A II	Camp B I	Camp B II	Camp C I	Camp C II	OCDQ (Esprit + Thrust - Disengagement)
1047	2	2	2	2	2	2	80
1048	3	2	2	2	3	3	97
1049	2	2	2	2	2	2	82
1050	3	2	2	2	3	3	63
1051	2	2	2	2	2	2	72
1052	3	3	2	2	2	2	69
1053	3	2	2	2	3	2	90
1054	3	2	2	1	3	2	88
1055	2	2	2	2	2	2	87
1056	3	2	1	2	2	2	92
1057	2	2	1	2	2	3	67
1058	3	2	2	2	3	3	79
1059	2	2	2	1	2	2	82
1060	2	2	2	2	3	3	73
1061	2	2	2	2	2	2	74
1062	3	3	2	2	3	3	87
1063	4	3	3	3	4	4	73
1064	2	3	1	2	2	1	65
1065	3	3	2	1	2	2	76
1066	3	3	2	2	3	3	63
1067	2	2	2	2	2	2	59
1068	3	3	2	2	3	3	88
1069	3	2	2	1	2	2	70
1070	3	3	2	2	2	2	62
1071	2	2	2	2	2	2	64
1072	3	3	2	2	3	3	71
1073	3	2	2	2	3	2	62
1074	2	2	1	1	2	2	87
1075	2	2	2	1	3	2	87
1076	2	2	2	2	2	2	76
1077	2	2	3	2	3	3	76
1078	3	2	2	2	3	2	90
1079	3	2	2	2	3	2	81
2001	2	2	2	2	3	3	74
2002	3	3	3	3	3	3	64
2003	2	2	2	2	2	3	58
2004	3	2	2	2	2	2	52
2005	2	2	2	2	3	3	75
2006	2	2	1	1	2	1	91
2007	3	2	2	2	3	3	89
2008	3	3	2	2	2	2	94
2009	2	2	1	1	2	2	100
2010	3	3	2	2	2	2	92
2011	2	2	2	2	2	2	91
2012	2	2	1	1	2	2	99
2013	3	2	2	2	3	3	92
2014	3	2	2	2	3	2	88
2015	3	2	2	2	2	3	81
2016	3	3	3	2	3	3	67

Subject Number	EBSI-EPBI Camp A I	Camp A II	Camp B I	Camp B II	Camp C I	Camp C II	OCDQ (Esprit + Thrust - Disengagement)
2017	2	2	2	2	3	3	80
2018	2	1	1	1	2	2	89
2019	3	2	2	2	2	2	89
2020	3	3	2	2	3	3	90
2021	3	3	2	3	3	3	73
2022	3	3	3	2	3	2	84
2023	2	2	2	2	2	2	73
2024	3	2	2	2	3	3	65
2025	2	2	2	3	3	2	66
2026	3	3	2	2	2	2	63
2027	2	2	2	1	3	2	74
2028	2	2	2	2	3	2	56
2029	3	2	2	2	3	2	72
2030	2	2	2	2	2	2	78
2031	2	2	2	2	2	3	53
2032	2	1	1	1	2	2	72
2033	2	2	1	1	2	2	73
2034	3	2	2	1	3	2	72
2035	2	2	2	1	2	2	84
2036	2	2	2	2	3	2	68
2037	3	3	2	1	3	3	73
2038	3	2	3	3	3	3	84
2039	2	2	2	1	2	2	86
2040	2	2	2	1	2	1	67
2041	2	2	2	1	2	1	80
2042	3	2	2	2	2	2	82
2043	2	3	2	2	2	2	83
2044	2	2	2	2	3	2	89
2045	2	2	1	1	2	2	96
2046	1	1	1	1	1	1	74
2047	3	2	3	2	3	3	66
2048	2	2	2	2	2	3	91
2049	2	2	2	2	3	2	77
2050	3	3	2	1	2	2	86
2051	2	2	2	1	2	2	94
2052	2	2	1	2	2	2	88
2053	2	2	2	2	2	2	86
2054	2	2	2	2	3	2	89
2055	3	3	2	2	2	3	91
2056	2	2	3	3	2	2	89
2057	2	2	2	2	3	2	86
2058	2	3	2	2	2	3	84
2059	3	3	2	2	2	2	70
2060	2	2	2	2	2	2	99
2061	3	2	2	2	3	2	81
2062	3	3	2	2	3	3	69
2063	2	2	2	2	3	3	98
2064	2	2	2	2	2	2	73
2065	2	2	2	2	2	2	79

Subject Number	EBSI-EPBI Camp A I	Camp A II	Camp B I	Camp B II	Camp C I	Camp C II	OCDQ (Esprit + Thrust - Disengagement)
2066	2	2	2	1	2	2	78
2067	3	2	2	3	3	3	97
2068	2	3	2	2	2	2	89
2069	3	3	2	2	2	2	74
2070	2	2	1	1	2	2	82
2071	2	3	2	2	2	3	80
2072	3	2	2	2	3	2	81
2073	2	2	1	2	2	2	71
2074	2	2	2	2	2	2	81
2075	2	3	2	2	3	3	79
2076	2	2	2	2	2	3	76
2077	2	2	2	2	2	2	78
2078	2	2	2	2	3	3	79
2079	2	2	1	2	2	2	83
2080	3	2	2	2	3	3	67
2081	3	3	2	2	3	2	77
2082	2	2	2	2	3	2	93
2083	3	2	2	2	3	3	60
2084	2	2	2	2	2	2	59
2085	2	2	2	2	3	2	82
2086	2	2	2	2	2	3	73
2087	2	2	2	2	2	2	70
2088	1	2	1	2	2	2	91
2089	2	2	2	2	2	2	82
2090	2	2	2	2	2	2	66
2091	3	3	2	2	3	2	71
2092	3	3	2	2	2	2	68
2093	2	2	1	1	2	2	82
2094	2	2	2	2	3	3	75
2095	2	3	2	1	2	2	77
2096	3	2	2	2	3	2	63
2097	2	2	2	2	3	2	85
2098	2	2	2	2	2	2	68
2099	3	2	2	2	3	3	70
2100	2	1	2	2	2	2	57
2101	3	3	2	2	2	3	68
2102	3	2	2	2	2	2	76
2103	2	2	2	2	3	3	76
2104	3	3	2	2	2	1	72
2105	2	2	1	1	2	2	62
2106	3	3	2	2	2	2	80
2107	2	3	2	2	2	2	56
2108	3	3	2	2	3	2	69
2109	3	3	3	2	3	3	70
2110	3	3	2	2	3	3	73
2111	2	3	2	2	2	3	67
2112	2	2	2	2	2	2	76
2113	2	1	2	1	2	2	64
2114	2	2	2	2	2	2	74

Subject Number	EBSI-EPBI Camp A I	Camp A II	Camp B I	Camp B II	Camp C I	Camp C II	OCDQ (Esprit + Thrust - Disengagement)
2115	3	3	2	2	3	2	76
2116	2	3	2	2	3	3	65
2117	3	2	2	2	3	2	84
2118	3	2	1	1	2	2	93
2119	3	2	2	1	2	2	69
2120	2	2	2	2	2	2	59
2121	3	3	2	2	3	2	71
2122	2	2	1	1	2	2	85
2123	2	2	2	2	2	2	75

RAW SCORES FOR PRINCIPALS

Subject Number	EBSI-EPBI Camp A I	Camp A II	Camp B I	Camp B II	Camp C I	Camp C II	OCDQ Thrust	Aloofness	Production Emphasis	Consid-eration
1001	3	2	2	2	2	2	64	36	45	44
1002	3	3	2	2	3	3	65	34	41	43
1003	4	3	4	4	3	4	68	38	44	48
1004	2	2	2	2	3	2	73	41	44	49
1005	3	3	3	3	3	3	68	38	45	45
1006	2	2	1	1	2	2	74	38	42	43
1007	2	2	2	2	2	2	73	40	46	50
1008	3	2	2	1	3	2	68	39	46	42
1009	3	2	2	2	3	3	65	36	39	47
1010	3	2	2	2	3	2	71	34	44	45
1011	2	2	2	1	3	2	71	41	47	51
1012	3	2	2	2	3	2	75	44	52	45
2001	3	2	2	2	3	3	75	41	41	45
2002	3	3	3	2	3	2	67	38	45	45
2003	2	2	2	2	3	2	74	34	44	43
2004	2	2	2	1	3	2	73	40	48	48
2005	2	3	2	2	2	3	72	37	43	47
2006	2	2	1	2	2	2	70	32	52	45
2007	3	2	2	2	2	2	68	37	43	45
2008	3	3	2	2	2	2	69	37	46	44
2009	3	2	2	2	3	3	71	41	45	48

APPENDIX F

INFORMATION SHEET

INFORMATION SHEET

Please complete this form by checking the appropriate blanks where requested.

1. Sex: Male___ Female___

2. Age: 20-29___ 30-39___ 40-49___ 50-59___ 60-69___

3. Education: Baccalaureate___

   Graduate work beyond BA or BS___

   Master's degree___

   Graduate work beyond Master's___

   Specialist degree___

   Doctorate___

4. Years of teaching experience (including this year):

	With Present Principal	In District	Total Experience
1-5			
6-10			
11-15			
16-20			
21-25			
26-30			
31-35			
36+			

APPENDIX G

READABILITY MEASUREMENTS FOR EBSI-EPBI

Dale-Chall Readability Formula

Article: EBSI-EPBI
Author: Dobson, et al.
Publisher: OSU
Date: 1978

	1 # of Words in Sample	2 # of Sen-tences in Sample	3 # Words Not on Dale List	4 Ave. Sen-tence Length (÷1by2)	5 Dale Score (÷3by1, xby100)	6 Ave. Sen-tence Length x.0496	7 Dale Score x.1579	8 Contant: 3.6365	9 Formula Raw Score Add 6, 7, 8
Nature of Man	168	16	42	10.5	25.0	.5208	3.9475	3.6365	8.1048
-motivation	187	12	62	15.583	33.1551	.7729	5.2352	3.6365	9.6446
-conditions learning	225	16	67	14.0625	29.777	.6975	4.7019	3.6365	9.0359
-conditions social learning	163	14	47	11.6429	28.8344	.5775	4.5529	3.6365	8.7669
-intellectual development	112	9	36	12.444	32.1429	.6172	5.0754	3.6365	9.3291
-knowledge	82	7	26	11.7143	31.7073	.5810	5.0066	3.6365	9.2241
-society	64	7	16	9.1429	25.0	.4535	3.9475	3.6365	8.0375
-instruction	224	16	76	14.0	33.9286	.6944	5.3573	3.6365	9.6882

Dale-Chall Readability Formula (Continued)

	1 # of Words in Sample	2 # of Sentences in Sample	3 # Words Not on Dale List	4 Ave. Sentence Length (÷1by2)	5 Dale Score (÷3by1, xby100)	6 Ave. Sentence Length x.0496	7 Dale Score x.1579	8 Contant: 3.6365	9 Formula Raw Score Add 6, 7, 8
-curriculum	250	16	78	15.625	31.2	.775	4.9265	3.6365	9.3380
-organization	298	16	83	18.625	27.8523	.9238	4.3979	3.6365	8.9582
-content	91	8	36	11.375	39.5604	.5642	6.2466	3.6365	10.4473
-materials and resources	92	7	30	13.1429	32.6087	.6519	5.1489	3.6365	9.4373
-evaluation	186	14	60	13.2857	32.2581	.6590	5.0935	3.6365	9.3890

Ave. Raw Score of 13 Samples . . . 9.1847

Ave. Corrected Grade Level . . . . 13-15 (college)

Flesch Reading Ease Formula

From "What do you believe about man?" items 1-10 (in part)

100 words
9 sentences
164 syllables

From "What do you believe about instructions?" items 71-77 (in part)

100 words
7 sentences
178 syllables

From "What do you believe about evaluation?" items 132-138

100 words
8 sentences
180 syllables

Average sentence length: 12.5

Average word length in syllables (per 100 words): 174

Reading ease score:

206.835 - (ave. sentence length x 1.015) +

(number of syllables per 100 words x .846)

12.6875 + 147.204 = 159.8915
206.835 - 159.8915 = 46.9435 = RES

RES	Description of Style	Typical Magazine	Syll. per 100 words	Ave. Sen. Length	Grade Completed	% U.S. Adults*
30-50	Difficult	Academic, Scholarly	167	25	High School or Some College	33

*According to 1950 U.S. census figures.

Forbes-Cottle Readability Formula

From "What do you believe about man?" items 1-10

100 words
weight of words above most common 4,000 - 158*

From "What do you believe about instruction?" items 71-77

100 words
weight of words - 151

From "What do you believe about evaluation?" items 132-138

100 words
weight of words - 174

Index of Vocabulary Difficulty:

add weights of three samples and divide by total number of words

483/300 = 1.61

Grade level of reading difficulty is determined by the index of vocabulary difficulty.

Index of Vocabulary Difficulty	Grade Level
1.4510 and above	college

*Weights are found in the Thorndike Junior Century Dictionary. New York: Scott Foresman and Company, 1942.

Fry's Readability Graph PP-College

From "What do you believe about knowledge?"
items 58-63

total number of words - 80
number of syllables - 131
number of sentences - 6

Multiply syllables (163.75) and sentences (7.5) by 1.25 = Grade Level: 11th grade

From "What do you believe about society?"
items 64-69

total number of words - 60
number of syllables - 112
number of sentences - 6

Multiply syllables (187.04) and sentences (10.02) by 1.67 = college level (off chart)

From "What do you believe about content?"
items 115-120

total number of words - 90
number of syllables - 165
number of sentences - 7

Multiply syllables (181.5) and sentences (7.7) by 1.1 = college level (off chart)

From "What do you believe about materials and resources?"
items 121-126

total number of words - 90
number of syllables - 161
number of sentences - 6

Multiply syllables (177.1) and sentences (6.6) by 1.1 = college level (off chart)

VITA

Helen Louise Hummelke

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHERS' BELIEF SYSTEMS AND PERCEPTIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE IN HIGH AND LOW CHANGE-ORIENTED ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Major Field: Curriculum and Instruction

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Wichita, Kansas, October 12, 1943, the daughter of Frederick E. and Helen E. Hummelke.

Education: Graduated from Wichita West High School, Wichita, Kansas, in May, 1961; attended Elmhurst College, Elmhurst, Illinois, 1961-62; received Bachelor of Arts in Education degree from Wichita State University in June, 1965; received Master of Education degree from Wichita State University in June, 1969; completed requirements for Doctor of Education degree at Oklahoma State University in December, 1980.

Professional Experience: Elementary classroom teacher, Wichita Public Schools, 1965-73; Remedial Reading and Reading Resource teacher, Wichita Public Schools, 1973-79; full time graduate student on sabbatical leave, Oklahoma State University, 1979-80.

Professional Organizations: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, International Reading Association, National Education Association, American Association of University Women, Phi Kappa Phi, Phi Delta Kappa.