A STUDY OF THE ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATES IN

PERIPHERAL AND INNER-CITY SCHOOLS

IN A METROPOLITAN AREA

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND ITS SETTING

The climate felt in organizations has been described in various

terms by theorists concerned with phenomena observed in complex organi-

zations. Such terms as morale and esprit are frequently used. Regard-

less of the terminology, this phenomena is usually explained in terms of

the interaction among various role participants in the organization. In

other words, the distinctive climate in a particular school is described

as the pattern of interactions among role participants in the

organization.

Commenting on school organizational climate, Halpin states:

> Anyone who visits more than a few schools notes quickly
> how schools differ from each other in their 'feel.' In one
> school the teachers and the principal are zestful and exude
> confidence in what they are doing. They find pleasure in
> working with each other; this pleasure is transmitted to the
> students.... In a second school the brooding discontent of
> the teacher is palpable; the principal tries to hide his
> incompetence and his lack of a sense of direction behind a
> cloak of authority, and yet he wears this cloak poorly because
> the attitude he displays to others vacillates randomly between
> the obsequious and the officious. A third school is marked by
> neither joy nor despair, but by hollow ritual. Here one gets
> the feeling of watching an elaborate charade in which teachers,
> principal, and students alike are acting out parts. And so,
> too as one moves to other schools, one finds that each appears
> to have a 'personality' of its own. It is this 'personality'
> that we describe here as the 'Organizational Climate' of the
> school. Analogously, personality is to the individual what
> Organizational Climate is to the organization.[1]

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[1] Andrew W. Halpin, *Theory and Research in Administration* (New York, 1966), p. 131.

The impetus for this research came from the recognition that schools vary considerably in their organizational climates. When a teacher remarks upon visiting a school for the first time, "This feels like a nice place to work," or declares conversely, "In this school, I get the feeling the principal and teachers are something less than congenial," he is describing the "personality" or climate of the school.

Halpin and Croft, commenting on the number of factors which could be conceived as improving upon the climate of a school, state:

> The following, at the very least, would need to be taken into account: the socio-economic status of the school's patrons; the biographical and personality characteristics of the principal and the teachers; the 'quality' of the students; the school's physical plant; the location of the school; and, of prime importance, the social interactions that occur between the teachers and the principal.[2]

Havighurst views school climate as a name for a complexity of factors including the expectations on the part of the teachers, the examples of study habits set by the leaders among the pupils, the training of teachers, the equipment of the school, and the attitudes toward education of the people who live in the community served by the school. He continues:

> There is an impressive amount of evidence from studies of schools in the big cities to show that: (1) children in slum schools do more poorly in school work than children in the schools of the 'better' neighborhoods: (1) children in slum schools drop out of school earlier than children of the 'better' neighborhoods; (2) the teachers in slum schools are less well prepared for teaching and are, on the average, inferior to teachers in the 'better' neighborhoods; (3) schools in the slum areas are poorer in their physical equipment than schools in 'better' neighborhoods.[3]

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[2]Andrew W. Halpin and Don B. Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools, Research Report, U. S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

[3]Robert J. Havighurst, "Schools in Urban Centers," Today's Education, Vol. LVI, No. 2 (January, 1968), p. 53.

Granting social interaction between principal and teachers to be a prime ingredient in determining the organizational climate of a given school, one might inquire if a portion of the social interaction between the teachers and principal is influenced by such "external" factors as location of the schools and the socio-economic level of the children attending these schools.

Significance of the Study

One of the significant developments in the study of administration in recent years has been the apparent shift of focus from the theory of administration to organization theory. This shift in the strategy of inquiry involves first a study of the whole organization, then an application of this knowledge in a purpose-oriented context.[4]

Organizational climate is recognized as an important aspect of organizational theory.

If, on examination, significant difference is found between the climates of inner-city and peripheral schools, school officials of the metropolitan area studied could conceivably use this knowledge as a basis for instituting in-service training for teachers who are to be assigned to inner-city schools. Further, teacher training institutions might, based on results of this study, further investigate the impact made by such external factors as socio-economic setting and racial make-up of school population or school climate.

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[4]John H. M. Andrews, "School Organizational Climate: Some Validity Studies," Canadian Education and Research Digest, Vol. V (December, 1965), p. 317.

Definition of Terms

Terms Related to Organizational Climate[5]

Organizational Climate. Organizational climate is construed as the organizational "personality" of a school. Figuratively, "personality" is to the individual what "climate" is to the school. School climate is conceptualized along a continuum ranging from "open" at one extreme through autonomous, controlled, familiar, paternal, to "closed" at the other.

The Open Climate. The prototype of the open climate describes an energetic, lively school which is moving toward its goals, and which provides satisfaction for the group members' social needs. Leadership acts emerge easily and appropriately from both the group and the leader. Group members are preoccupied disproportionately with neither task achievement nor social needs satisfaction; satisfaction on both counts seems to be obtained easily and almost effortlessly. The main characteristic of this climate is the "authenticity" of the behavior that occurs among all the group members.

The Autonomous Climate. The prototype of the autonomous climate is the school in which leadership acts emerge primarily from the group. The leader exerts little control over the group members; high esprit results primarily from social-needs satisfaction. Satisfaction from task achievement is also present, but to a lesser degree.

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[5]Definitions related to organizational climate are taken from: Andrew W. Halpin and Don B. Croft, "The Organizational Climate of Schools," Administrator's Notebook, Vol. XI, No. 7 (March, 1963).

The Controlled Climate. The prototype of the controlled climate is the school where group's behavior is directed primarily toward task accomplishment, while relatively little attention is given to behavior oriented to social-needs satisfaction. Esprit is fairly high, but it reflects achievement at some expense to social-needs satisfaction. This climate lacks openness, or "authenticity" of behavior, because the group is disproportionately preoccupied with task achievement.

The Familiar Climate. The prototype of the familiar climate describes a school where the members of the organization satisfy their social needs, but pay relatively little attention to social control in respect to task accomplishment. Accordingly, esprit is not extremely high simply because the group members secure little satisfaction from task achievement. Hence, much of the behavior within this climate can be construed as "inauthentic."

The Paternal Climate. The prototype of the paternal climate describes a school in which the principal constrains the emergency of leadership acts from the group and attempts to initiate most of these acts himself. The leadership skills within the group are not used to supplement the principal's own ability to initiate leadership acts. Accordingly, some leadership acts are not even attempted. In short, little satisfaction is obtained in respect to either achievement or social needs; hence, esprit among the members is low.

The Closed Climate. The prototype of the closed climate is the school characterized by a high degree of apathy on the part of all members. The school is not "moving"; esprit is low because the group members secure neither social-needs satisfaction nor the satisfaction

that comes from task achievement. The members' behavior can be construed as "inauthentic"; indeed, the organization seems to be stagnant.

Relatively Open. For purposes of this study, the term relatively open is used to classify those schools having profile-similarity scores conjunct with the prototypic profiles characterizing open, autonomous and controlled climates.[6]

Relatively Closed. For purposes of this study, the term relatively closed is used to classify those schools having profile-similarity scores conjunct with the prototypic profiles characterizing familiar, paternal, and closed climates.[7]

Terms Related to Demographic Factors

Central City Schools. In this study, urban-core schools are located in areas of high population density near the center and less "desirable" areas of the city, and associated with a clientele of low socio-economic status. All schools in this area have been designated Title I Project Schools.[8] This designation is made based on the fact that the students attending these schools are from homes where the incidence of poverty (family income $2,000 or less) is equal to or greater than the average incidence of poverty for the metropolitan school system

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[6]Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration, p. 131.

[7]Ibid., p. 186.

[8]United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, United States Office of Education Publication (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1967), p. 3.

used in the study.[9] Children attending these schools can be said, in

most instances, to be members of poor families. Poor families are

defined as those falling below "economic level of Social Security Admin-

istration Poverty Index" based on an annual income of $2,000 in 1964 for

a family of four.[10]

Statement of the Problem

Havighurst and Neugarten advance the idea that the schools, as a

social institution, teach the child a middle class set of goals and be-

haviors. Accordingly, they teach a version of the culture which, while

it is the dominant version in America, is nevertheless at variance with

that learned in the family by a large number of its students.[11]

Central city schools used in this study have pupil populations

which are predominantly Negro.[12] Generally, these children do not

readily subscribe to the middle class goals of the school. In many

instances they are in school only because the law requires them to be

there. Their background has frequently not prepared them to launch upon

the learning enterprise with enthusiasm.[13]

Peripheral schools used in this study have pupil populations which

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[9]Established by the Research Department of the Metropolitan School System used in the study, based on the Office of Economic Opportunity Guidelines.

[10]House Document Number 31, 90th Congress, First Session, U. S. House of Representatives (Washington, 1967), p. 193.

[11]Havighurst and Neugarten, p. 117.

[12]Established by Department of Research and Statistics of the Metropolitan School System.

[13]Havighurst and Neugarten, p. 337.

are predominantly whie.[14] Generally, children attending these schools

are members of the upper-middle or lower-middle class. It is thought

that the values held by these children more nearly coincide with the

goals and behaviors fostered by the school. Consequently, these chil-

dren tend to find their school experience more rewarding than do chil-

dren attending central city schools and who, in most instances, are

members of a lower class.[15]

Halpin found that data from schools located in the urban-core areas

show that a preponderant number of these schools are marked by "closed"

climate. Ordinarily, such schools are large, located in areas of high

population density, and associated with a clientele of low socio-

economic status.[16]

The basic concern of this research was to examine the organiza-

tional climate in central city and peripheral schools in a metropolitan

setting. In urban centers today most members of minority races live in

the central city; this results in neighborhood schools composed pri-

marily of children from minority races.

Elementary schools in metropolitan centers have prescribed attend-

ance areas determined by administrative policy. Because of housing

patterns, decreed by agencies other than the local school authorities,

some of the schools tend to have predominantly white or predominantly

Negro school populations. Havighurst and Neugarten, commenting on

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[14]Established by the Department of Research and Statistics Metro-
politan School System.

[15]Kenneth B. Clark, "Clash of Cultures in the Classroom," Learning
Together a Book on Integrated Education (October, 1968), p. 18.

[16]Andrew W. Halpin, "Change and Organizational Climate," Journal of
Educational Administration, Vol. 7, No. 1 (May, 1967), pp. 6-9.

housing patterns and their effect on schools, state:

> In northern cities Negro 'ghettos' come into being and the
> schools reflect this fact. For instance, the 1958 report of
> New York City's Superintendent of Schools showed a net loss of
> 15,000 white pupils per year for the preceding five years,
> people who had moved out to the New York suburbs. In 1958, of
> 704 public schools, 455 had 90 percent or more of their pupils
> of one group, either Negro or white or Puerto Rican. Only one
> in five schools could be said to be 'integrated' in the sense
> that it had more than 10 percent of pupils who did not belong
> to the majority group of that particular school.[17]

Middle class standards of refinement and ambition mean more to

teachers than many would care to admit, and viewing students through a

middle class perspective, teachers see the world through their own value

system. Rich, in a dsicussion of social class values and teacher-pupil

relations, points out that middle class values held by most teachers

place a premium on thrift, and cleanliness along with sharply-defined

standards of respectability, morality, and sexual behavior. However,

many elementary school pupils, coming from a markedly different socio-

economic background, adhere to a different set of standards.[18]

The climate of the school as measured by the OCDQ considers only

the interaction between teachers and between teachers and the principal.

Andrews states that organizational climate as measured by the OCDQ does

not deal with the social component of climate generally, but with only

a portion of the total social interaction, that between the teachers and

the principal. This leaves out a significant component of interaction

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[17]Robert J. Havighurst and Bernice L. Neugarten, Society and
Education (Boston, 1962), p. 329.

[18]John Martin Rich, "How Social Class Values Affect Teacher-Pupil
Relations," The Journal of Educational Sociology, Vol. 33, No. 9 (May,
1960), pp. 356-358.

that of teachers and pupils.[19]

Research by Nicholas, Virjo, and Wattenberg indicates that there might be a direct relationship between pupil problems, as they are school related, and the teacher's and principal's perception of the organizational climate of the school. Further, there appeared to be close similarity between the effects of "high" socio-economic setting and an open organizational climate.[20]

The problem which this study explores is this: Do elementary schools, located in the inner-city of a metropolitan setting, differ significantly in organizational climate from elementary schools located in the peripheral area of the same city?

Limitations of the Study

This study was done in one large metropolitan setting in the southwestern part of the United States; generalizations beyond the specific schools studied cannot be made in clearly precise terms.

The instrument used to gather data was administered by the researcher to teachers and administrators present at morning and afternoon staff meetings. No attempt was made to get the reaction of staff members who were absent at the time the instrument was administered.

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[19]John H. M. Andrews, "School Organizational Climate: Some Validity Studies," Canadian Education and Research Digest, Vol. V (December, 1965), p. 317.

[20]Lynn V. Nicholas, Helen E. Virjo, and William W. Wattenberg, "Effects of Socio-economic Setting and Organizational Climate on Problems Brought to Elementary School Offices," Unpublished Manuscript of the Final Report (Detroit, 1965).

Summary

Chapter I has provided an explanation of the phenomena of the cli-
mate felt in organizations. The distinctive climate in a particular
school is described as the pattern of interactions among role partici-
pants in the organization. The sum total of these patterns of interac-
tion among role participants produces an apparent organizational
"personality." It is this "personality" that is described in Chapter I
as the "Organizational Climate" of the school.

Organizational Climate is construed as the organizational "person-
ality" of a school. Figuratively, "personality" is to the individual
what "climate" is to the school. School climate is conceptualized along
a continuum from "open" at one extreme through autonomous, controlled,
familiar, paternal to "closed" at the other. The prototype of each of
these climates has been presented in Chapter I.

The basic concern of this research - to examine the organizational
climate in inner-city and peripheral schools in a metropolitan setting -
was presented. The point is presented in Chapter I that, if significant
difference is found between the climates of inner-city and peripheral
schools, school officials of the metropolitan area studied could con-
ceivably use this knowlege as a basis for instituting in-service train-
ing for teachers who are to be assigned to inner-city schools. The
chapter concludes with a statement of the problem and an explanation of
limitations of the study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Introduction

One way to study an organization is to view the organization as a small society. As such, the society develops observable regularities in the behavior of the people that are due to the social conditions in which they find themselves. Two main social conditions that influence the conduct of people in an organization are (1) the structure of the social relations and (2) the shared beliefs and orientations that unite the members into a collectivity and, thus, guide their behavior.[1]

The development of the concept of "climate" is presented on the following pages, with particular emphasis on its application in the public schools. The chapter concludes with a statement of the major hypotheses guiding the study.

Organizational Climate

March and Simons, in a provocative book about the theory of formal organizations, used assumptions about human beings as a basis for grouping propositions about organizational behavior in three broad classes. The model of the organization member as a passive instrument was

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[1]Peter M. Blau and W. Richard Scott, Formal Organizations (San Francisco, 1962), p. 2.

prominent in the writings of the scientific management period. In more
recent years, a second model which assumes that individuals bring atti-
tudes and values to their organization and which emphasizes the need for
motivation gained prominence. A third model has now gained prominence.
It assumes that organization members are decision makers and problem
solvers, and stresses the rational aspect of organizational behavior.[2]

Carlson maintains that organizations can best be viewed as social
systems. The crucial elements of the social system of an organization
are discovered by examining the controls on behavior in the organiza-
tional meeting. In the presence of these controls, internal interest
groups develop and become significant forces in organizations.[3]

Many people observe that a unique climate, atmosphere, or person-
ality is felt whenever they spend even a small amount of time with the
personnel in a particular building. A similar feeling is experienced
when visiting in school buildings, business establishments, factories,
office buildings, hospitals, and in other types of structures. However,
they find it extremely difficult to identify the source of this feeling
or to describe it in words. This feeling which results from the inter-
action of role participations of the organization housed in a particular
building is often referred to now as the organizational climate.[4]

Brown, commenting on the use of the concept of climate in the study

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[2]James G. March and Herbert A. Simons, <u>Organizations</u> (New York,
1958), pp. 12-20.

[3]Richard O. Carlson, "Research and the School System as an
Organization," <u>School Review</u>, Vol. LXVI, No. 4 (Winter, 1958), p. 10.

[4]Eldon J. Null, "Organizational Climate of Elementary Schools," of
the Twin Cities Metropolitan Area, Inc. (Minneapolis, 1967).

of organization, states:

> Considerable use can be made of the concept of climate
> if one think of the nature of relationships obtaining between
> persons and sub-groups in a school. If the relationship be-
> tween principal and teacher is formal and impersonal, this
> condition is described as aloofness and is a part of the
> 'climate.' Climate is a convenient label for the over-all
> configuration of these kinds of relationships, or forces,
> that may range from intensely positive through neutral to
> intensely negative.[5]

The term "organizational climate" was used as early as 1959 by

Cornell to describe the delicate blending of interpretations (or per-

ceptions as social psychologist would call it) by persons in the organi-

zation of their jobs or roles in relationships to others and their

interpretations of the roles of others in the organization.[6]

In 1958, Argyris used the term "organizational climate" in a dis-

cussion of research concerned with the behavior of role participants in

a bank. He explained that a person who conducts research on human be-

havior in organizations is faced with the problem of ordering and con-

ceptualizing a confusion of simultaneously existing, multi-level,

mutually interacting variables. These variables were conceptualized by

Argyris as: (1) formal organization variables such as policies, prac-

tices, and job descriptions inducing members of the organization to

behave as it desires in order that it might achieve its objectives,

adapt to its external environment, and maintain itself internally; (2)

personality variables such as needs, abilities, values, self-concept,

and defense, inducing participants to behave in such way that they may

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[5]Allan Brown, "Two Strategies for Changing Climate," The CSA
Bulletin, Vol. IV, No. 5 (May, 1965), pp. 65-66.

[6]Francis G. Cornell, "Socially Perceptive Administration," Phi
Delta Kappan, Vol. XXXVI, No. 6 (March, 1955), p. 222.

express their personalities; and (3) a whole host of informal variables that have arisen out of the participants' continuing struggle to adapt to the formal organization so that the latter achieves its objectives while simultaneously the individuals obtain at least a minimal amount of self-expression. He continues by explaining that, in reality, these variables are mixed beyond classification into compartments, forming a pattern in which each plays a functional role feeding back and upon the others to maintain itself and the pattern. This living complexity he defines as "the climate of the organization."[7]

Cornell and Argyris explain organizational climate in terms of the interaction among persons in the organization, and they isolate and discuss the variables which they believe have an effect on this interaction. Other theorists in the years following 1958 pointed out the relationship between the interaction among individuals in the organization and the climate of the organization and identified variables which have an influence on this interaction among role participants. However, a major breakthrough resulting from investigations in the area of organizational climate in public schools was not achieved until 1963.

Halpin and Croft, through research enhanced by the application of sophisticated statistical techniques, identified and described eight dimensions of school climate by using the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) which can measure these dimensions.[8]

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[7]Chris Argyris, "Some Problems in Conceptualizing Organizational Climate: A Case Study of a Bank," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. II, No. 4 (March, 1958), p. 501.

[8]Andrew W. Halpin and Don B. Croft, The Organizational Climate of Elementary Schools (Chicago, 1963).

A description of the six organizational climates is presented in Chapter
I.

Four of the dimensions of climate are associated with the collec-
tive behavior of the teaching staff in any particular elementary school,
while the other four dimensions are related to the behavior of the
principal of the school.

Halpin and Croft define the eight variables of the organizational
climate of elementary schools in the following manner.

Teachers' Behavior

1. DISENGAGEMENT refers to the teachers' tendency to be 'not
    with it.' This deminsion describes a group which is
    'going through the motion,' a group that is 'not in gear'
    with respect to the task at hand. It corresponds to the
    more general concept of anomie as first described by
    Durkheim. In short, this subtest focuses upon the
    teachers' behavior in a task-oriented situation.

2. HINDRANCE refers to the teachers' feeling that the prin-
    cipal burdens them with routine duties, committee demands,
    and other requirements which the teachers construe as un-
    necessary busywork. The teachers perceive that the prin-
    cipal is hindering rather than facilitating their work.

3. ESPRIT refers to 'morale.' The teachers feel that their
    social needs are being satisfied, and that they are, at
    the same time, enjoying a sense of accomplishment in
    their job.

4. INTIMACY refers to the teachers' enjoyment of friendly
    social relationship with each other. This dimension
    describes a social-need satisfaction which is not neces-
    sarily associated with the task-accomplishment.

Principal's Behavior

5. ALOOFNESS refers to behavior by the principal which is
    characterized as formal and impersonal. He 'goes by
    the book' and prefers to be guided by rules and policies
    rather than to deal with the teachers in an informal,
    face-to-face situation. His behavior, in brief, is
    universalistic rather than particularistic; nomothetic
    rather than idosyncratic. To maintain this style, he
    keeps himself at least, 'emotionally'--at a distance
    from his staff.

6. PRODUCTION EMPHASIS refers to behavior by the principal which is characterized by close supervision of the staff. He is highly directive, and plays the role of a 'straw boss.' His communication tends to go in only one direction, and he is not sensitive to feedback from the staff.

7. THRUST refers to behavior by the principal which is characterized by his evident effort in trying to 'move the organization.' 'Thrust' behavior is marked not by close supervision, but by the principal's attempt to motivate the teachers through the example which he personally sets. Apparently, because he does not ask the teachers to give of themselves any more than he willingly gives of himself, his behavior, though starkly task-oriented, is nonetheless viewed favorably by the teacher.

8. CONSIDERATION refers to behavior by the principal which is characterized by an inclination to treat the teachers 'humanly,' to try to do a little something extra for them in human terms.[9]

In early decades, management in industry and administration of schools were looked upon in mechanistic terms as the manipulation of operations and things (the technological aspect of an organization) for the achievement of some goal. Administration is now coming to be viewed as one of the specialized functions of human organizations.

Following is a sketch of some of the ideas which this implies and which have implications for organizational climate:

1. Administration is not an external coordinating function separated from the teaching and learning operation of the school system. It is a part of the school system.

2. Since the function of administration is coordination of parts (activities, operations, products) so that they add up to what they should, a feature of administrative behavior should be continuous assessment of the entire school program in view of the purposes and goals of the school system.

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[9]Andrew W. Halpin and Don B. Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools, U. S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (July, 1962), pp. 40-41.

3. What makes the school system an organization is not what is taught and how it is taught (or what is learned and how it is learned), but the interactions of administrators, teachers, and other employees in it in relationship to one another in their cooperative efforts toward a common goal.

4. Of primary importance in the functioning of the school system are the thoughts and feelings as well as the actions of members of it and the uncharted, informal, relationships which are created by them.[10]

Demographic Factors

The school expresses the philosophy of the society it serves. The philosophy may be that of a dominant group, which has imposed it on the rest of the population, or it may be explicit, as in the case of the United States, where, by common consent, it is agreed that the schools' function is to pass on the values and traditions of democracy. The school, according to this view, cannot operate as from a lofty pinnacle from which the scene below is surveyed. The school is of society, not merely in it; and most certainly it is not apart from society.[11]

Organizational climate, as used in this study, is concerned with teacher-teacher and teacher-principal interactions. But, inasmuch as the school cannot operate "as from a lofty pinnacle," there could possibly be other factors in the social pattern which might affect school climate.

Halpin and Croft, commenting on the restricted nature of their study of organizational climate, state:

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[10]Cornell, pp. 219-220.

[11]Patricia Sexton, "Measuring a School's Personality," Catholic School Journal, Vol. LXVI, p. 65.

We surmise that the organizational climate that we find
in elementary schools may be related to such demographic fac-
tors as, for example, whether the school is located in a
wealthy suburb or a deteriorated slum, the 'quality' for the
students, and the socio-economic status of the school's
patrons.[12]

Havighurst, commenting on schools in the central city, states:

Central city schools suffer from a syndrome of problems.
Covert and overt hostility to teachers, lack of self-control
on the part of pupils; lack of experience and background
needed for success in schools; an outer society which hardens,
alienates, and produces a negative type of maturation; and
intellectual apathy in the student all combine to produce in
many instances an unrewarding and impossible teaching
climate.[13]

Nicholas, Virgo, and Wattenberg, in a study of the effect of socio-

economic setting and organizational climate on problems brought to

elementary school offices, concluded:

The most striking difference between schools in the 'high'
and 'low' socio-economic setting was the 'quality' of the
impact upon principals made by the pupil-behavior problems
brought to the office. Urgency, crisis, and harrassment
characterized the challenges confronting principals in 'low'
setting schools, whereas, businesslike routine operations were
the nature of the challenges presented to principals in 'high'
area schools. The most serious results were that much of the
principal's freedom to initiate action was usurped from them
by these challenges in the 'low' socio-economic settings.
Whereas, principals in the 'high' area schools retained more
controls over choice of activities to be initiated.[14]

The values which are held by a social class as a whole generally

effect attitudes of teachers and students who belong to this class.

Research indicates that the teaching profession draws heavily from the

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[12]Halpin and Croft, p. 120.

[13]Robert J. Havighurst, Education in Metropolitan Areas (Boston,
1965), p. 108.

[14]Lynn N. Nicholas, Helen E. Virgo, and William W. Wattenberg,
"Effects of Socioeconomic Setting and Organizational Climate on Problems
Brought to Elementary School Offices," (unpublished manuscript of the
final report, Wayne State University, Detroit, 1965), p. 10.

middle class; hence, as might be expected, many teachers hold middle

class values. Teachers failing to recognize the characteristics and

social patterns of the lower class child may find that the lower class

child is a disciplinary problem, lacking in motivation and is generally

unfit to cope with the school environment.[15]

Commenting on the job of teaching in the central city, McGeoch

states:

> Teaching in the core school is hard work. Children who
> have learned to distrust adults, to expect failure in school,
> and to settle most problems with their fists are not easy to
> handle. Many of these schools are old and crowded; classes
> are often large; supplies and materials are inadequate or
> inappropriate.[16]

Pounds and Bryner suggest that the demand made by the school, with

its middle class orientation, on children of a lower class is a pressing

one.

> The middle class influences demand some measure of
> conformity in matters of education, success-striving, moral
> behavior, social adjustment, economic self-sufficiency, and
> belief and participation in the democratic way of living.[17]

Two cultures, though they may actually have a fundamental sharing

of a basic democratic faith, cannot exist side by side without one

assuming a position of leadership, or prominence, over the other. To a

degree, the minor culture will have to be assimilated into the larger

culture if a healthy society is to be maintained. When a subculture

becomes insulated against the standards and norms that perpetuate the

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[15]Daniel Selakovich, The School and American Society (Waltham, Massachusetts, 1967), p. 66.

[16]Dorothy M. McGeoch, Learning to Teach in Urban Schools (New York, 1965), p. 1.

[17]Ralph L. Pounds and James R. Bryner, The School in American Society (New York, 1967), p. 364.

healthy survival of its offspring, and when it becomes enslaved in a

downward spiraling cycle of poverty, then the whole society is jeopard-

ized. Those of the lower socio-economic level are those in American

society who lack the resources - economically, educationally, and

socially - to maintain norms acceptable in the middle class culture.[18]

Becker, discussing social class variations in the pupil-teacher

relationship, states:

> ... School teachers experience problems in working with
> their students to the degree that those students fail to
> exhibit in reality the qualities of the image of the ideal
> pupil which teachers hold.[19]

It is the child coming from the lower socio-economic home who

generally offends the teacher's moral sensibilities. These children,

by word, action, or appearance, manage to give teachers the feeling that

they are immoral and not respectable. The terms of physical appearance

and condition they depress the middle class teacher.[20]

Waller, suggest that there is an original conflict of desires be-

tween teacher and pupils in the core schools. He states:

> Teachers and students confront each other in the school
> with an original conflict of desires, and however much that
> conflict may be reduced in amount, or however much of it may
> be hidden, it still remains. We must recognize that conflict,
> either actual or potential, is ever present in the teacher-
> pupil relationship, the teacher attempting to maintain her
> control against the children's efforts to break it.[21]

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[18]Ibid., p. 365.

[19]Howard S. Becker, "Social Class Variations in the Teacher-Pupil
Relationship," _Journal of Educational Sociology_, Vol. XXV, No. 8
(April, 1952), p. 457.

[20]Ibid., p. 465.

[21]Willard Waller, _Sociology of Teaching_ (New York, 1942), p. 197.

Harap, discussing factors which affect teacher morale, concludes

that the leader's perception of staff morale differ decidedly from the

staff's perception of morale.[22]

This conclusion by Harp is confirmed by Anderson who found from his

study that principals as a group perceive the organizational climate of

their schools more favorably than do their staff members.[23]

The research by Nicholas, Virjo, and Wattenberg indicated that

there might be a direct relationship between pupil control problems and

the teachers' perception of the organizational climate of the school.

They report:

> ... any speculation about a possible cause and effect associa-
> tion in the relationship shown between a 'closed' climate and
> the pupil behavior problems raised the question of whether the
> climate affects the problems, or the problems affected the
> climate. A cyclical effect of the pupil-problems bombardment
> on the staff, rather than the administrative behavior of the
> principal may have accounted for the teachers' perception of
> the climate as 'closed.'[24]

In summary, there can be little doubt that organizational climate

is established as a relevant concept in the study of organizations.

Many authors have claimed that the climate is to the organization what

personality is to the individual. This analogy is weakened, however, by

restricting the OCDQ to social interaction between the principal and

teachers. With this limitation, correlates of the OCDQ indicate that it

does have some similarity to a personality test. With an open climate

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[22]Henry Harap, "Many Factors Affect Teacher Morale," <u>Nations
Schools</u>, Vol. LXIII (June, 1959), p. 57.

[23]Donald P. Anderson, "Relationship Between Organizational Climate
of Elementary Schools and Personnel" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation,
University of Minnesota, 1964), p. 149.

[24]Nicholas, Virjo, and Wattenberg, p. 10.

comes a general state of well-being, climate is relatively stable over time, and it is sensitive to cultural and socio-economic impairment. In these respects, climate as measured by the OCDQ seems closely allied to organizational "personality."[25]

A Rationale

A shift in population has occurred in the United States since the latter part of the nineteenth century; from 1880 to 1960, the proportion of Americans living in towns and cities of 2,500 or more population increased from 30 per cent to over 70 per cent.[26]

By 1950, a "standard metropolitan area" had been defined in the United States census and had become a significant unit of population. A metropolitan area includes a central city or cluster of cities and the surrounding area that is functionally related to the central city. In the census, a city of 50,000 or more is counted as a central city of a standard metropolitan area.[27]

With the shift in population from a predominantly rural to an urban setting has come a more pronounced stratification of population. The area near the center of the city becomes industrialized, dwellings deteriorate, and former owners move away from the center of the city. Thus, slum areas develop in the inner-city while choice residential

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[25] Allen F. Brown and John H. House, "The Organizational Component in Education," Review of Educational Research, Vol. XXXVII, No. 4 (October, 1967), p. 401.

[26] Robert J. Havighurst and Bernice L. Neugarten, Society and Education (Boston, 1962), p. 323.

[27] Ibid., p. 324.

areas appear farther out.[28]

Schools tend to take on the quality of the areas in which they are located. Some elementary schools become entirely lower class in character; others, middle class.[29]

Shaw, commenting on social class differentiation in urban areas, states:

> According to their cultural and economic status, our citizenry can be classified roughly as priviledged, average (often referred to as middle class), and disadvantaged. Cultural deprivation can be found in all parts of our country but tends to be concentrated in urban areas where one finds a wide range of social class differentiation.
>
> In 1960, about 62 percent of all Americans were concentrated in 212 'standard metropolitan areas.' Such a region is defined by the Bureau of Census as 'one or more contiguous counties containing at least one central city of over 50,000 population as the core of an economically and socially integrated cluster of people.' The combined population of these metropolitan areas now exceed 108 million inhabitants, and almost one-third of the nation now lives in urban areas.[30]

The difference in rate of population growth in the peripheral and central area of the United States' cities points out that suburb and central city have not grown at the same pace. Between 1950 and 1960, the outskirts of the great cities grew by more than seventeen million, an increase of 47.2 per cent. At the same time, the central core gained scarcely four million, only 8.2 per cent. Millions have deserted the central areas for the suburbs.[31]

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[28]Havighurst and Neugarten, p. 324.

[29]Ibid., p. 325.

[30]Frederick Shaw, "Educating Culturally Deprived Youth in Urban Centers," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. XLV, No. 2 (November, 1963), p. 91.

[31]Ibid.

Who replaced suburban-bound citizens in the core area of the city?

Between 1950 and 1960, New York lost about 1,300,000 middle class

whites. They were replaced by 800,000 Negroes and Puerto Ricans - an

underpriviledged group larger in size than Washington, D. C.[32]

Some authorities believe that the "very nature of the community

determines what goes on in the school." On this point, Olsen makes an

observation.

> The child brings the reality of his own life into the
> classroom, and to be effective the school must admit that
> reality. The central challenge that the slum child pre-
> sents to the school is not only the disadvantaged that he
> brings with him. His challenge is much more than that. His
> ambitions, his desires, his attitudes toward authority, edu-
> cation, success, and school, his fears, his habits, his
> hates, - in short, his basic orientation toward life - are
> in many instances, a major aspect of his lower income
> culture.[33]

The school is a middle class institution, not only in its attitude

and value orientations, but also in its controls and rewards, its teach-

ing materials, its personnel, and in its administrative practices. The

classroom then becomes the battle ground of the culture conflict between

the child and the teacher.[34]

The lower class child differs considerably from his peers in the

middle class. First, his basic psychological responses of anger and sex

are expressed very directly. Fighting, for example, is part of his

life. He fights with his brothers and sisters. He fights with his

enemies. He fights with "outsiders" from the next block. Since

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[32]Ibid., p. 92.

[33]James Olson, "The Challenge of Poor to the School," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. XLVIII (October, 1965), p. 79.

[34]Allison Davis, "Society, School, and the Culturally Deprived Student," Improving English Skills of Culturally Deprived Youth (Washington, D. C., 1964).

physical aggression is part of his everyday life, he is not physically

intimidated very easily.[35]

Further, the lower-class child grows up very quickly. This is

partly because he is on his own early in life and partly because he

comes in direct contact with the fruits of unemployment, desertion, and

crime. While he may have a negative image of himself as a learner in

school, on the streets he develops a sense of rugged independence that

he needs for survival.[36]

Frank Riessman, commenting on the difference to be found between

the lower-class child, and his counterpart, the middle-class child,

states:

> The lower-class child has a different idea of social
> advancement - and this point is crucial for him in school.
> Since lower-class social organization is characterized by
> the extended family and reciprocity, there is a very strong
> emphasis on cooperation and mutual aid. If there is compe-
> tition, it is physical in nature. But there is little
> competition in the sense the middle-class child knows it.[37]

Vontress suggests that the position of the student in the typical

inner-city school is not a comfortable one. He states that:

> The typical central city school, although located in a
> low socio-economic area, is still middle class oriented.
> Its goals are therefore antithetical to the focal concerns
> of the youth it serves. Having to meet the expectations of
> this educational institution for over one-half of their
> waking hours is frequently intolerable. Their own poverty,
> their lack of privacy at home, and the remoteness of school-
> set goals prevent them from concentrating on study.[38]

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[35]Ibid.

[36]August Hollinghead, Elm Town Youth (New York, 1949), p. 43.

[37]Frank Riessman, "Cultural Styles of the Disadvantaged," Learning Together a Book on Integrated Education (October, 1968), p. 25.

[38]Clemmont E. Vontress, "Our Demoralizing Slum Schools," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. XLV, No. 2 (November, 1963), p. 80.

Halpin, stressing the point that the student could conceivably be an added factor in school climate, states:

> We have stressed the point that the group members must be able to enjoy social-needs satisfaction and satisfaction from task accomplishment. We must assume that the principle source of social-needs satisfaction lies in the teacher's interactions with fellow teachers and the principal. But this is an over simplification. A school is not an assembly line; the teachers are working with children. Consequently, a teacher, especially in the elementary school, can achieve a major source of social-needs satisfaction through her close personal relationship with the children themselves.[39]

The neighborhood school is characteristic of the organization of elementary schools in many urban areas. The basic concept of the neighborhood school is that, for younger children, schools should be easily accessible and along safe walking routes that avoid traffic hazards. As a result, the neighborhood school tends to reflect the social, economic, and cultural characteristics of the area it serves.

School boards in the metropolitan areas of the United States, in an attempt to implement the 1954 ruling of the Supreme Court and its subsequent orders, have deemed it necessary to transfer principals, teachers, and pupils in order to bring about better racial balance. This transfer policy, which necessitates a two-way movement of principals and teachers between peripheral and inner-city schools, is quite pronounced. Havighurst and Neugarten, writing on the growth of Megalopis and its schools, state:

> The United States is rapidly becoming a metropolitan country, and by far the greatest proportion of its school children and school teachers are located within metropolitan schools. As these areas grow, geographical stratification occurs giving rise to differentiation among elementary schools

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[39]Halpin, p. 202.

along socio-economic lines. 'Slum.' schools appear, where educational motivation and educational achievement are inferior as compared with schools in the peripheral area of the city. People who can afford it and who are concerned about the education of their children try to avoid living in the district of the 'poorer' schools.[40]

For example, it is assumed that a stimulating work environment is essential in a complex social organization such as a school in order that individual and group talent may be released and that creativity, growth, and change may be encouraged. A matter of concern to school boards and school superintendents might be that of existing organizational school climates and the contrast in climates between central city and peripheral schools.

Educators have long since recognized that schools which serve middle-class youngsters are likely to differ in important ways from schools which serve lower-class youth.

Herriott and St. John, commenting on how schools in the inner-city and peripheral area affect educators, state:

> Teachers in low socio-economic schools are younger and less experienced than their counterparts in more economically advantaged areas. Teachers and principals in low socio-economic schools are less satisfied with their situation and less willing to remain in their present assignments than are teachers in high status schools. Thus, their career patterns are away from low socio-economic schools and toward higher ones.[41]

As local school boards and superintendents grapple with the problems of how best to utilize staff in order to build and maintain a stimulating work environment, it might be well that they understand

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[40]Harighurst and Neugarten, pp. 324-325.

[41]Robert E. Herriott and Nancy St. John, "How Pupil Socioeconomic Class Affects Educators," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. XVI, No. 8 (November, 1968), p. 367.

those "external" factors which could conceivably affect the climate of their schools. On these groups ultimately rest the decision of proper staff utilization in the school districts.

From the foregoing rationale, the following hypotheses were deducted.

Hypotheses

H. 1. Schools located in the inner-city will be relatively more closed in climate than schools located in the peripheral area of the city.

H. 2. Teachers serving in relatively open schools will perceive, in a significantly different manner, the eight subtests of the OCDQ, compared with teachers serving in relatively closed schools.

H. 3. Principals, serving in both relatively open and relatively closed schools, will perceive the eight subtests of the OCDQ in a significantly different manner than do members of their staff.

H. 4. Teachers serving in relatively open schools will differ significantly from teachers serving in relatively closed schools when compared on the basis of educational attainment, age, size of classes taught, years taught, and years taught under present principal.

Summary

The development of the concept of "climate", with particular

emphasis on its application in the public schools was presented in Chapter II. A review of the literature used in Chapter II on the subject of Organizational Climate conveyed the following ideas:

1. Assumptions about human beings as a basis for grouping propositions about organizational behavior can be viewed in three broad classes.

   a. The model of the organization member as a passive instrument, prominent in the writings of the scientific management period.

   b. The model which assumes that individuals bring attitudes and values to their organization and, therefore, need to be motivated.

   c. The model which assumes that organization members are decision makers and problem solvers.

2. Organizations can best be viewed as social systems. The crucial elements of the social system of an organization are discovered by examining the controls on behavior in the organizational meeting.

3. The term "Organizational Climate" has been used to describe the delicate blending of interpretations 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.

Eight dimensions of organizational climate are presented in Chapter II. Four of these dimensions of climate - Disengagement, Hindrance, Esprit, and Intimacy - are associated with the collective behavior of the teaching staff in any particular elementary school, with the

remaining dimensions - Aloofness, Production Emphasis, Thrust, and

Consideration - being related to the behavior of the principal of the

school.

Organizational climate as used in this study is concerned with

teacher-teacher and teacher-principal interactions. But, inasmuch as

the school cannot operate "as from a lofty pinnacle," Chapter II pre-

sented demographic factors in the social pattern which could conceivably

affect school climate. These "external" factors are examined as a part

of the rationale for hypothesis deduction. Four hypotheses were deduced

as a guide for the study.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES

Identification of Sample

Thirty elementary schools in a metropolitan setting in central
Oklahoma were used in the study. Fifteen of these schools were desig-
nated central city schools because they were designated as Title I
Project Schools. The other fifteen schools used in the sample were
randomly selected from the remaining schools in the city system, and
were designated as peripheral schools.

The inner-city schools are located in the older area of the city
and have school populations which are predominately Negro. More than
ninety per cent of the teachers staffing these schools are Negro. Many
of the children attending these schools are from impoverished homes.
The Elementary and Secondary Act of 1965, Public Law, 89-10, enables
local educational agencies to receive Federal grants to meet the needs
of children in impoverished areas. Under provisions of this act,
schools in the central area, because of the high incidence of poverty
among students, are designed Title I Schools.[1] Schools composing this
part of the sample were selected on the basis of their location in the
core area of the city and the common designation of Title I School.

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[1]United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare,
United States Office of Education Publication (Washington, 1967), p. 3.

Peripheral schools, for purposes of this study, are those remaining schools in the metropolitan school system that were not designated as Title I Schools. These schools have student populations which are predominately white. More than ninety per cent of the teachers staffing these schools are white. Schools making up this part of the sample were randomly selected from seventy-six elementary schools which, because of their location, are outside the central or core area of the selected city.

The administrative and teaching personnel of the schools used in the study ranged in size from six in the smallest school to thirty-five in the largest school. The total number of teachers and principals in the sample was 565. The thirty schools used in the study were numbered as a means of identification in keeping with an announced promise that no individual or school would be identified in the study.

<center>Instrumentation</center>

The instrument used in the present study to identify the organizational climate in thirty elementary schools was the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire.[2] The instrument, composed of sixty-four Likert-type items, is subdivided into eight subtests. Each subtest measures one of the eight dimensions of organizational climate. Four of the dimensions pertain to the principal as a leader, the other four pertain to the characteristics of the teachers as a group. The behavior measured by each of the subtest is described below:

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[2]Andrew W. Halpin and Don B. Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools (Chicago, 1963).

Teachers' Behavior

1. DISENGAGEMENT refers to the teachers' tendency to be 'not with it.' This dimension describes a group which is 'going through the motions,' a group that is 'not in gear' with respect to the task at hand. It corresponds to the more general concept of anomie as first described by Durkhelm. In short, this subtest focuses, upon the teachers' behavior in a task-oriented situation.

2. HINDRANCE refers to the teachers' feeling that the principal burdens them with routine duties, committee demands, and other requirements which the teacher construe as unnecessary busy work. The teachers perceive that the principal is hindering rather than facilitating their work.

3. EXPRIT refers to 'morale.' The teachers feel that their social needs are being satisfied, and that they are, at the same time, enjoying a sense of accomplishment in their job.

4. INTIMACY refers to the teachers' enjoyment of friendly social relations with each other. This dimension describes a social-need satisfaction which is not necessarily associated with task-accomplishment.

Principal's Behavior

5. ALOOFNESS refers to behavior by the principal which is characterized as formal and impersonal. He 'goes by the book' and prefers to be guided by rules and policies rather than to deal with the teachers in an informal, face-to-face situation. His behavior, in brief, is universalistic rather than particularistic; nomothetic rather than idiosyncratic. To maintain this style, he keeps himself--at least, 'emotionally'--at a distance from his staff.

6. PRODUCTION EMPHASIS refers to behavior by the principal which is characterized by close supervision of the staff. He is highly directive, and plays the role of a 'straw boss.' His communication tends to go in only one direction, and he is not sensitive to feedback from the staff.

7. THRUST refers to behavior by the principal which is the organization. 'Thrust' behavior is marked not by close supervision, but by the principal's attempt to motivate the teachers through the example which he personally sets. Apparently, because he does not ask the teachers to give of themselves any more than he willingly gives of himself, his behavior, though starkly task-oriented, is nonetheless viewed favorably by the teachers.

8. CONSIDERATION refers to behavior by the principal which is
   characterized by an inclination to treat the teachers
   'humanly,' to try to do a little something extra for them
   in human terms.[3]

Validity Studies

Garrett has suggested that validity is the fidelity with which an
instrument measures whatever it purports to measure. The Organizational
Climate Description Questionnaire is used as an instrument for assessing
the climate of a school. The fidelity with which the OCDQ measures what
it purports to measure has been the basis for a number of
investigations.[4]

Roseveare, in a study of the validity of the subtests Esprit and
Thrust of the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire found
both variables to have high degree of reliability when compared with
six other variables making up the subtests of the OCDQ. From his find-
ings, he concluded:

1. The Subtests Esprit and Thrust (OCDQ) were found to have
   the highest reliability coefficient of the eight sub-
   tests, .77 and .81, respectively.

2. Item analysis showed each item to be adequately corre-
   lated to the subtest scores for the subtests Esprit
   and Thrust (OCDQ).

3. Item factor analysis showed that the items from the sub-
   tests Esprit and Thrust (OCDQ) obtained their highest
   positive loadings on factors III (Social Control) and I
   (Social Needs), respectively.

4. The subtests Intimacy, Aloofness, and Production

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[3]Andrew W. Halpin and Don B. Croft, The Organizational Climate of
Schools, (Washington, 1962).

[4]Henry E. Garrett, Statistics in Psychology and Education,
(New York, 1955), p. 334.

Emphasis obtained low Kuder-Richardson reliability
coefficients of .42, -.07, and .28, respectively.[5]

Brown, investigating the validity of the OCDQ, found the instrument

to be well constructed and recommends its continued use in research in

administrative theory and in the theory of social organization.

Specifically, he states:

> The OCDQ is a well constructed instrument which can and
> should continue to be used in research in administrative
> theory of social organizations. The evidence produced in
> this investigation verified the pattern of factor weights
> in an analysis of OCDQ items. The appropriateness of the
> grouping of specific items into particular subtests was
> substantiated by the rotational solution of the item fac-
> tor matrix. The pattern of subtest intercorrelations
> indicated that, as might be expected in a battery of
> related tests, there was some intercorrelation but not so
> much as to violate the integrity of individual subtests.

> Questions have been raised about the length of the
> OCDQ - the feeling was that the instrument might be
> improved by adding items to the subtests. On the basis of
> this investigation, it is concluded that an increase in the
> length of the OCDQ is a practical, useful instrument as it
> is now constructed. Any attempts to manipulate scales by
> adding, deleting, or switching items would necessitate
> large quantities of further research just to bring a longer
> or modified instrument up to the level of acceptability
> already achieved by the 64 item questionnaire. It is easy
> for critics to point out that the instrument is short; it
> is much more difficult to lengthen the instrument without
> destroying its value.[6]

Brown has a word of caution for the researcher concerning the

practicality and utility of discrete climates. In an investigation con-

ducted on a randomly selected sample of 81 elementary schools in school

districts which are members of the Educational Research and Development

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[5]C. G. Roseveare, "The Validity of Selected Subtests of the Organi-
zational Climate Description Questionnaire," (unpublished Ed.D. disser-
tation, University of Arizona, 1965).

[6]Robert John Brown, Organizational Climate of Elementary Schools,
Research Monogram No. 2 (Minneapolis: Educational Research and Develop-
ment Council of the Twin Cities Metropolitan Area, Inc., 1955), p. 9.

Council of the Twin Cities Metropolitan Area, Inc., Brown identified

eight types of organizational climates instead of the six identified by

Halpin and Croft. Since identical procedures were used in the two

cases, it is impossible to say that one set of climates is correct and

the other is not.[7] In reference to the above statement, Brown makes the

following comments:

> Types of organizational climates can be identified
> through the use of the OCDQ, but it is not possible to
> generalize about the exact nature of the specific cli-
> mates. Halpin and Croft, on the basis of some factor
> analytic results, determined that there were six types
> of organizational climates. On the basis of the Minnesota
> sample, eight climates were identified. Which is correct?
> Since identical procedures were used in the two cases, it
> is impossible to say that one set of climates is correct
> and the other is not. However, it is possible to rank or
> order the climates along a continuum for general compari-
> sons. While the results of this investigation (with
> respect to the identification of climate) were as similar
> to Halpin and Croft's results as one might reasonably
> hope for in a factor analytic replication, a conservative
> conclusion at this time would be that it is possible to
> identify a climate continuum, but that the dividing of that
> continuum into discrete climate (although useful for devel-
> oping research hypotheses) may be refining the results fur-
> ther than the data warrants.

One of the more significant validity studies was conducted by

Andrews.[8] Construct validity was the approach used in this study.[9] The

results indicated that the subtests of the OCDQ provided reasonable

valid measures of important aspects of the principals' leadership in the

perspective of interaction with his staff.[10] However, the vagueness of

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[7]Ibid., pp. 9-10.

[8]John H. M. Andrews, "School Organizational Climate: Some Validity Studies," Canadian Education and Research Digest, Vol. V (December, 1965), p. 318.

[9]Ibid.

[10]Ibid., p. 333.

the six climate types was regarded by Andrews as a detraction from the validity of the instrument. The only valid meaning to be attached to the climate types, according to Andrews, is that they are commonly occurring patterns of scores on the subtests.[11]

Andrews, reporting on a study conducted in 165 Alberta Schools, states evidence indicating that the subtest scores are good measures of the concepts they purport to measure. He found that the same did not appear to be the case for the climate categories. The study found no meaning which could be attached to the name "climate categories" that added anything to the meaning already present in the subtest scores.

> If organizational climate is defined as the overall character of social interaction within the organization then clearly the breadth of the concept exceeds the limits of what is measured by the OCDQ. The instrument is restricted to concern with interaction between the principal and the teachers. No attempt is made to get at interaction between teachers and pupils or between the school staff and parents or any of the many other kinds of social interaction that characterize the school organization. In short, it is concluded that the OCDQ does not deal with organizational climate broadly but with the more restricted sphere of teacher-principal interaction.[12]

Watkins, discussing the degree of participation necessary for valid results in the administration of the OCDQ states:

> The voluntary basis for participation in the study by staff members in individual schools raises some questions for consideration. It is necessary that the responses to the OCDQ be obtained from all or nearly all of the teachers in a given school situation. Due to the nature of the effort to establish a profile of a school's organizational climate with the OCDQ, a very high degree of participation, preferably 100 percent, seems essential for valid results.

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[11]Ibid.

[12]J. H. M. Andrews, "What School Climate Conditions are Desirable," The Council on School Administration Bulletin, Vol. IV, No. 5 (July, 1965), p. 9.

The climate profiles are developed through an arithmetic mean process and the absence of response from any staff members would mathematically affect the averaging process. Every staff member in some way contributes to the organizational climate of his school situation and his response should be considered in an effort to 'map this climate.'[13]

Prichard conducted a study to estimate the concurrent validity of the OCDQ using perceptions of non-faculty school personnel. He concluded that:

The Halpin and Croft method of classifying schools based on the similarity of school profile to one of six prototypic profiles has questionable validity if the climate descriptions represent valid descriptions of characteristic teacher-principal interactions. Any school identified within a climate designation may deviate from subtests dimensions. The inability of the OCDQ to consistently assign schools to six discrete prototypic profiles does not, however, destroy the validity of the organizational climate concept or the eight subtests of the OCDQ.[14]

McFadden, in a study designed to contribute information regarding the validity of the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire, compared the results of three non-participants (raters) with the evaluations given by respondents to the OCDQ.[15] The three observers who participated in the study were advanced graduate students in education specializing in general administration. All observers were thoroughly familiar with the concept of organizational climate and the rationale of

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[13] J. Foster Watkins, "The OCDQ - An Application and Some Implications," Educational Administration Quarterly, Vol. IV, No. 2 (Spring, 1968), p. 48.

[14] James Leon Prichard, "Validation of the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire Against Perceptions of Non-Faculty School Personnel," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Stanford University, 1966).

[15] Edward Clayton McFadden, "The Non-Participant Observer and Organizational Climate," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Stanford University, 1966).

Halpin and Croft's work in constructing the OCDQ.

To provide uniformity, the eight subtests categories were rated in the same way that responses to the eight subtests making up the OCDQ were rated. Thus, Rarely Occurs = 1, Sometimes Occurs = 2, Often Occurs = 3, and Very Frequently Occurs = 4 provided the observer-rater a means of quantifying his perceptions.

Findings indicate that none of the raters achieved significant agreement with the OCDQ subtest results in more than one area in any school group. The median correlation coefficient for subtest ratings were as follows: for Disengagement, r = .17; for Hindrance, r = .27; for Esprit, r = .09; Intimacy, r = .03; Aloofness, r = .27; Production Emphasis, r = .19; Thrust, r = .03; and Consideration, r = .38.

The data would seem to reject the idea of significant correlation between the global climate evaluation of the non-participant observers and mean scores on global climate obtained from the faculty of the school, as measured by the OCDQ. From the studies cited above, it would appear that the OCDQ is a valid instrument for measuring the climate of schools.

Data Collection

As stated in Chapter I, the problem which this study explores is this: Do elementary schools located in the central area of a large metropolitan area differ significantly in organizational climate from peripheral elementary schools?

Halpin and Croft refer to a method for determining organizational climate. They state:

> We have constructed an Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) that permits us to portray the

'Organizational Climate' of an elementary school. The OCDQ
can be given in a group situation: it requires no more
than thirty minutes for administration.[16]

The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ), an

instrument developed by Halpin and Croft and which measures eight dimen-

sions of organizational climate, was used to gather data for this study.

Permission was secured from the research department of the metro-

politan school system used in this study to permit the researcher to

administer the OCDQ to staffs of selected elementary schools.

Building princiapls in the thirty elementary schools used in the

study were contacted personally to determine the most appropriate time

for administration of the OCDQ. From the time schedule developed at

each school, the researcher developed a master schedule which was fol-

lowed throughout the data gathering period.

Principals of the schools visited during the data collecting proc-

ess had their staffs assemble in a room appropriate for administering

the instrument. Following introductory remarks by the principal, the

researcher called attention to the instrument and to the necessity for

candid response to all statements.

The following instructions were read prior to the response by mem-

bers of the staff:

> Following are some statements about the school setting.
> Please indicate the extent to which each statement charac-
> terizes your school by circling the appropriate response at
> the right of each statement. Your response will remain con-
> fidential, and no individual or school will be named in the
> report of this study.

The appropriate response to the sixty-four Likert-type items could

be responded to in the following manner:

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[16]Halpin and Croft, 1962, p. 23.

1. Rarely Occurs = RO; 2. Sometimes Occurs = SO;
3. Often Occurs = OO; and 4. Very Frequently Occurs =
VFO.

Respondents were asked to complete a personal data sheet attached to the

questionnaire from which certain demographic information could be

obtained.

Treatment of Data

Scoring the Instruments

Responses to the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire

were punched on IBM cards and were scored on an IBM 7040 computer, using

a program adapted from one written by Don B. Croft while he was at the

University of Utah.

Summary

A description of the procedure used in the identification of the

thirty elementary schools utilized in the study was presented in Chapter

III. The basis on which these thirty elementary schools were designated

inner-city and peripheral was also presented here. The Organizational

Climate Description Questionnaire, the instrument used in the study to

identify the organizational climate, was described and the behavior

measured by each subtest presented. A goodly number of validity studies

were cited to show that the OCDQ does, in fact, measure what it purports

to measure; that it is a valid instrument. The chapter concludes with a

description of the procedure used by the writer in collecting the data

and a statement of how the data were treated.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

The instrument used to gather the data to test the hypotheses of
the study was administered to a sample of thirty elementary schools in
thirty elementary attendance areas in a metropolitan school district.
Presentation and analysis of the data are presented in this chapter.
The first section contains the rationale for using the climate simi-
larity scores to determine schools with open and closed climates. The
hypotheses and the analyses of the findings are presented in the second
section. Demographic data of the sample are also presented and the
chapter concludes with a summary.

Designation of the Organizational Climate

During the development of the OCDQ, Halpin and Croft computed a
three factor rotational solution for the school scores on the eight
OCDQ subtests. The factor analyses resulted in the identification of
six sets of school profiles. For each of the six sets of schools, pro-
totypic profiles were computed, named, and ranked from open to closed.[1]

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[1]Andrew W. Halpin, _Theory and Research in Administration_ (New
York, 1966), pp. 166-167.

The climate of a school was defined by the pattern of scores on the eight OCDQ subtests for that school. Classification of a school's climate with respect to the six prototypic profiles was determined by computing a similarity score between the school's profile and each of the six prototypic profiles. The similarity score was obtained by computing the absolute difference between each subtest score in the school's profile and the corresponding score in the prototypic profile. After summing the results for each prototypic profile, the lowest similarity score indicated the climate classification.[2]

The ranking of the climates on openness roughly parallels the scores which the schools receive on Esprit, the best single indicator of morale. As the loading on Esprit is traced through the six climates, it can be noted that these loadings become increasingly smaller moving from the more open to the more closed climates. Esprit is regarded as the key subtest for describing a school's Organizational Climate. High Esprit reflects an "effective" balance between task accomplishment and social - needs satisfaction.[3]

Each of the thirty schools used in the study was assigned to the set defined by that prototypic profile for which its profile similarity score was lowest. Those schools having the lowest similarity score in the open, autonomous, or controlled climate classification categories were classified as Relatively Open, while those having the lowest similarity score in the Paternal, Familiar, or Closed Climate classification categories were classified as Relatively Closed.

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[2]Ibid., pp. 181-186.

[3]Ibid., p. 170.

A graphic presentation of the climate classification of schools used in this study is presented in Table I.

TABLE I

CLIMATE IDENTIFICATION OF SCHOOLS IN THE INNER CITY
AND PERIPHERAL AREA OF A METROPOLITAN CITY

Location	Classification	Number of Schools
Inner-City	Relatively Closed	13
Inner-City	Relatively Open	2
Peripheral	Relatively Closed	3
Peripheral	Relatively Open	12

It will be recalled that each of the thirty schools used in the study was assigned to the set defined by that prototypic profile for which its profile similarity score was lowest. Using this method of classification, thirteen of the inner-city schools were classified as Relatively Closed schools, with two being classified as Relatively Open schools. Twelve of the peripheral schools were classified as Relatively Open schools, with three being classified as Relatively Closed schools.

Testing the Hypotheses

Various statistical procedures were used to test the hypotheses in this study. Adhering to common practice, the writer accepted hypotheses which were supported at the .05 level of significance.

H. 1. Schools located in the inner-city will be relatively

more closed in climate than schools located in the

peripheral area of the city.

For this hypothesis the computation of Chi-Square yielded a χ^2 value of 13.39 with 1 and 28 degree of freedom, the χ^2 value was significant beyond the .01 level. Therefore, according to the level of significance previously established, the hypothesis must be accepted.

A summary of the relevant data in the testing of the hypothesis is presented in Table II.

TABLE II

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF CHI-SQUARE DATA FOR
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SCHOOL LOCATION
AND ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

	Inner-City	Peripheral	Total
Relatively Open	2	12	14
Relatively Closed	13	3	16
Total	15	15	30

χ^2 1 df = 13.39 P .001

In a study conducted by Randle, the results suggested that Relatively Open schools seem to influence favorable attitudes of teachers as measured by the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory when compared to Relatively Closed schools.[4]

H.2. Teachers serving in Relatively Open schools will perceive, in a significantly different manner, the subtests of the OCDQ, compared with teachers serving in Relatively Closed schools.

To test the hypothesis it was necessary to sub-divide the major hypotheses into eight related hypotheses.

H.2.a. Teachers serving in Relatively Open schools will perceive fewer occurrences of behavior indicative of Disengagement, as measured by the OCDQ, than will teachers serving in Relatively Closed schools.

H.2.b. Teachers serving in Relatively Open schools will perceive fewer occurrences of behavior indicative of Hindrances, as measured by the OCDQ, than will teachers serving in Relatively Closed schools.

H.2.c. Teachers serving in Relatively Open schools will perceive more occurrences of behavior indicative of Esprit, as measured by the OCDQ, than will teachers serving in Relatively Closed schools.

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[4]Harry Edward Randle, "The Effects of Organizational Climate on Beginning Elementary Teachers," (unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Ohio State University, Columbus, 1964), p. 133.

H.2.d.   Teachers serving in Relatively Open schools will perceive
more occurrences of behavior indicative of Intimacy, as
measured by the OCDQ, than will teachers serving in
Relatively Closed schools.

H.2.e.   Teachers serving Relatively Open schools will perceive
fewer occurrences of behavior indicative of Aloofness, as
measured by the OCDQ, than will teachers serving in
Relatively Closed schools.

H.2.f.   Teachers serving in Relatively Open schools will perceive
fewer occurrences of behavior indicative of Production
Emphasis, as measured by the OCDQ, than will teachers
serving in Relatively Closed schools.

H.2.g.   Teachers serving in Relatively Open schools will perceive
more occurrences of behavior indicative of Thrust, as
measured by the OCDQ, than will teachers serving in
Relatively Closed schools.

H.2.h.   Teachers serving in Relatively Open schools will perceive
more occurrences of behavior indicative of Consideration,
as measured by the OCDQ, than will teachers serving in
Relatively Closed schools.

The Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test was used to test these hypotheses.
Summary data and analysis of results are shown in Table III. In addition to ascertaining if a significant difference existed, an attempt
was made to determine the direction of the difference where such
difference was shown.

TABLE III

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF THE WILCOXON RANK SUM TEST FOR
COMPARISON OF TEACHER PERCEPTION OF THE EIGHT SUBTESTS
OF THE OCDQ FOR DIFFERENT SCHOOL LOCATIONS

Subtests	Total Rank of Open	No. of Schools	Total Rank of Closed	No. of Schools	Sig. Dif.	Dir. of Dif.
Disengagement	123.0	14	342.0	16	Yes	*
Hindrance	176.5	14	188.5	16	No	
Esprit	352.5	14	112.5	16	Yes	**
Intimacy	280.5	14	184.5	16	Yes	**
Aloofness	143.5	14	321.5	16	Yes	*
Prod. Emphasis	135.0	14	330.0	16	Yes	**
Thrust	287.5	14	117.5	16	Yes	**
Consideration	282.0	14	183.0	16	Yes	**

*Significantly fewer occurrences in the Relatively Open schools
as compared with the Relatively Closed schools.

**Significantly more occurrences in the Relatively Open schools
as compared with the Relatively Closed schools.

An examination of Table III shows teachers serving in Relatively
Open schools differing significantly in their perception of seven of
the eight subtests of the OCDQ compared with teachers serving in Rela-
tively Closed schools. The basic hypothesis (H.2.) predicted that
teachers serving in Relatively Open schools would perceive, in a sig-
nificantly different manner, the eight subtests of the OCDQ, compared
with teachers serving in Relatively Closed schools. Therefore, based

on the prediction that there would be significant difference in all eight subtests, this basic hypothesis is rejected.

It will be recalled from a review of literature that leaders' perception of staff morale differs decidedly from the staff's perception of morale.[5]

H.3. Principals, in each group, will perceive the eight subtests of the OCDQ in a significantly different manner than do members of their staffs.

To test the hypothesis, it was necessary to sub-divide the major hypothesis into eight related hypotheses.

H.3.a. Principals, in each group, will perceive the subtests Disengagement in a significantly different manner than do members of their staffs.

H.3.b. Principals, in each group, will perceive the subtests Hindrance in a significantly different manner than do members of their staffs.

H.3.c. Principals, in each group, will perceive the subtests Esprit in a significantly different manner than do members of their staffs.

H.3.d. Principals, in each group, will perceive the subtests Intimacy in a significantly different manner than do members of their staffs.

H.3.e. Principals, in each group, will perceive the subtests Aloofness in a significantly different manner than do members of their staffs.

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[5]Henry Harap, "Many Factors Affecting Teachers Morale," _Nations Schools_, Vol. OVIII 9June, 1959), p. 57.

H.3.f. Principals, in each group, will perceive the subtests

Production Emphasis in a significantly different manner

than do members of their staffs.

H.3.g. Principals, in each group, will perceive the subtests

Thrust in a significantly different manner than do

members of their staffs.

H.3.h. Principals, in each group, will perceive the subtests

Consideration in a significantly different manner than do

members of their staffs.

The related hypotheses were tested using the Wilcoxon Matched

Pairs Signed - Ranks Test. A summary of relevant data in testing H.3.

is presented in Table IV.

An examination of Table IV shows no significant difference in ob-

tained T-Values where teachers and principals were matched on the basis

of the manner in which they perceived the eight subtests in Relatively

Open schools. Where teachers and principals were matched similarly in

Relatively Closed schools (Table IV), significant differences were

shown in the manner in which the two groups perceived the subtests

Hindrance, Esprit, Aloofness, and Consideration. No significant dif-

ferences were shown where the same matched pairs were compared on the

basis of the perception of the subtests Disengagement, Intimacy,

Production Emphasis, and Thrust.

It was hypothesized (H.3.) that principals in each group, would

perceive the eight subtests of the OCDQ in a significantly different

manner than do members of their staffs. Based on the prediction that

significant differences would exist when principals in each group were

TABLE IV

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF T VALUES FOR RANK OF DIFFERENCES
BETWEEN PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS IN RELATIVELY OPEN
AND RELATIVELY CLOSED CLIMATE SCHOOLS

	Relatively Open			Relatively Closed		
	Sum of Rank			Sum of Rank		
Subtests	Less Freq.	More Freq.	T-Value[a]	Less Freq.	More Freq.	T-Value
Disengagement	18.0	56.0	18.0	42.5	90.5	52.5
Hindrance	38.0	67.0	38.0	24.5	110.0	24.5 *
Esprit	34.5	65.0	34.5	21.5	124.5	21.5 *
Intimacy	34.0	55.5	34.0	67.5	69.0	67.5
Aloofness	25.0	66.0	25.0	14.0	101.5	14.0**
Prod. Emphasis	35.5	67.0	35.5	44.5	64.0	44.5
Thrust	51.0	51.0	51.0	66.5	68.0	66.5
Consideration	58.5	58.5	46.5	3.0	134.5	3.0**

[a]T = The smaller sum of like - signed ranks

*P $<$ .05

**P $<$ .01

H.4. Teachers serving in Relatively Open schools will differ

significantly from teachers serving in Relatively Closed

schools compared on the basis of educational attainment,

age, class size, years taught, and years taught under

present principal.

The Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test was used to test this hypothesis.

compared with their staffs based on their perception of the eight

subtests, H.3. is rejected.

It was predicted, (H.4.) that teachers serving in Relatively Open

schools would differ significantly from teachers serving in Relatively

Closed schools compared on the basis of educational attainment, age,

class size, years taught, and years taught under the present principal.

An examination of Table V shows teachers in Relatively Open Schools

differing significantly from teachers serving in Relatively Closed

schools when compared on the basis of given demographic factors.

Therefore, according to the level of significance previously estab-

lished, the hypothesis must be accepted.

TABLE V

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF THE WILCOXON TEST FOR COMPARISON
OF TEACHERS IN RELATIVELY OPEN AND RELATIVELY CLOSED
SCHOOLS BASED ON CERTAIN DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS

Categories	Rank Sum for Open	No. of Schools	Rank Sum for Closed	No. of Schools	Significant
Education	223	14	241	16	*
Age	173	14	292	16	*
Class Size	149	14	316	16	*
Years Taught	211	14	254	16	*
Years Under Present Principal	197	14	268	16	*

*P .05

Summary

The instrument used to gather data to test the hypotheses of the study and the procedure used to obtain the sample of thirty elementary schools in thirty elementary attendance areas has been presented in Chapter IV. The rationale for using the climate similarity scores to determine schools with relatively open and relatively closed climates was also presented in this chapter. The hypotheses and the analysis of the findings followed by a presentation of demographic data of the sample was presented in the concluding section of the chapter.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

Introduction

The presentation and analysis of data in the proceeding chapter was
reported in a conservative manner befitting a research report. The con-
clusions and implications listed in the ensuing paragraphs may not seem
so conservative, but hopefully it will remain within the bounds of rea-
son and logic.

Summary of Findings

The findings of the present study are listed below:

1. Schools located in the inner-city differed significantly
   in climate from schools located in the peripheral area
   of the city.

2. Teachers serving in relatively open schools perceived, in
   a significantly different manner, seven of the eight sub-
   tests of the OCDQ, compared with teachers serving in
   relatively closed schools. Teachers serving in both
   relatively open and relatively closed schools perceived
   the subtest Hindrance similarly.

3. The hypothesis that principals in each group would per-
   ceive the eight subtests of the OCDQ in a significantly

different manner compared with members of their staffs
was rejected in this study.

    a. No significant difference was found in the manner in
which principals and teachers serving in relatively
open schools perceived the eight subtests of the
OCDQ.

    b. Principals and members of their staffs serving in
relatively closed schools differed significantly in
their perception of the subtests Hindrance, Esprit,
Aloofness, and Consideration.

    c. No significant difference was found in the manner in
which principals and teachers serving in relatively
closed schools perceived the subtests Disengagement,
Intimacy, Production Emphasis, and Thrust.

4. Teachers serving in relatively open schools differed sig-
nificantly from teachers serving in relatively closed
schools when compared on the basis of educational attain-
ment, age, class size, years taught, and years taught
under present principal.

<center>Implications</center>

The confirmation of the hypothesis that schools located in the
inner-city would differ significantly in climate from schools in the
peripheral area of the city lends credence to Halpin's observation when
he notes that the preponderance of evidence indicates significant

numbers of urban-core schools are marked by closed climate.[1] Fifteen

inner-city schools were used in this study. Of this fifteen, thirteen

were found to have relatively closed climates. Conversely, of the

fifteen schools located in the peripheral area of the city, twelve were

found to have relatively open climates.

It has been suggested that open schools seemed to influence favorable attitudes of teachers as measured by the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory when compared to closed schools.[2] Failure to confirm the hypothesis that teachers serving in relatively open schools would differ significantly in the manner in which they perceived the eight subtests of the OCDQ compared with teachers serving in relatively closed schools, was based on lack of significant difference in the manner in which the two groups perceived the subtest Hindrance. Significant difference was found in the manner in which the two groups perceived each of the remaining seven subtests of the OCDQ. If this difference in perception of seven of the eight subtests can be correlated with favorable and unfavorable attitudes, what things then, other than teacher-teacher and teacher-principal interaction, might impinge upon the scene as added variables?

Nicholas, Virgo, and Wattenberg advance the proposition that socioeconomic factors may be related to school climate. They state:

> ... The effects of large concentrations of children in
> 'low' setting schools may need to be evaluated in terms

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[1] Andrew W. Halpin, "Change and Organizational Climate," The Journal of Educational Administration, Vol. V, No. 1 (May, 1967), p. 8.

[2] Harry Edward Randles, "The Effects of Organizational Climate on Beginning Elementary Teachers," (unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Ohio State University, Columbus, 1964), p. 133.

of the climate they create for the school organization
and for pupil adjustment.[3]

Added weight is given to the proposition that socio-economic factors might, in some way, affect school climate. Relationship between the social class of the community in which the school was located and the subtests Hindrance and Consideration was reported by Feldvebel.[4]

An old maxim says, "As the principal, so goes the school." Research concerning the personality of the principal and the climate of the school has indicated that there might be some truth to the saying. Plaxton reports from his study that while there was no over-all relationship between climate categories and personality types, relationships were found between personality variables and four of the eight subtests: Production Emphasis, Aloofness, Thrust, and Hindrance.[5]

Anderson has listed characteristics of principals based on the school's high or low score on each of the OCDQ subtests.[6] An interpretation of the listings shows that:

> ... open climate schools tend to have confident, self-
> secure, cheerful, sociable, and resourceful principals,
> while closed climate schools principals tend to be
> evasive, worrying, submissive, conventional and
> frustration prone.

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[3]Lynn N. Nicholas, Helen E. Virjo, and William W. Wattenberg, "Effects of Socioeconomic Setting and Organizational Climate on Problems Brought to Elementary School Offices," Unpublished manuscript of the Final Report (Detroit, Wayne State University, 1965), p. 7.

[4]Alexander M. Feldvebel, "Organizational Climate, Social Class, and Educational Output," Administrator's Notebook, Vol. XII, No. 8 (April, 1964), p. 1.

[5]Robert Plaxton, "Principal Personality and School Organizational Climate," The CSA Bulletin, Vol. IV, No. 5 (July, 1965), p. 34.

[6]Donald P. Anderson, Organizational Climate of Elementary Schools, Research Monograph No. 1 (Minneapolis: Educational Research and Development Council of the Twin Cities Metropolitan Area, Inc., 1964), p. 5.

In the present study, principals and teachers serving in relatively open schools showed no significant difference in their perception of the eight subtest of the OCDQ. If, as the literature suggests, principals serving in open schools tend to be confident, resourceful, self-secure, and cheerful, then conceivably, the principals serving in the relatively open schools might well have influenced the climate of their schools. Reasoning further, based on the literature, if principals in relatively closed climate schools tend to be evasive, give to worrying, submissive, conventional, and frustration prone, these traits, exhibited by principals in relatively closed schools, might well have influenced the climate of their schools.

Emphasis has been placed here on the impact of the behavior of the principal upon the climate which obtains in his school. The writer accepts the premise that such influence does operate and that it must be taken into account when seeking to understand the climate of a school. But this is not a one-way street. The principal influences the behavior of the teachers, but the teachers also influences the behavior of the principal. In the present study, it will be recalled that principals and teachers serving in relatively open schools perceived the eight subtests of the OCDQ similarily. Could a reciprocal sort of influence be operable? No attempt is made here to make any inference about the direction of such influence.

The research by Nicholas, Virjo, and Wattenberg indicated that there might be a direct relationship between pupil control problems and the teacher's perception of the organizational climate of the school.[7]

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[7]Nicholas, Virjo, and Wallenberg, p. 12.

Herriott and St. John, commenting on how schools in the inner-city affect educators, state:

> Teachers in low socioeconomic schools are younger and less experienced than their counterparts in more economically advantaged areas. Teachers in low socioeconomic schools are less satisfied with their situations and less willing to remain in their present assignments than are teachers in high status schools. Thus, their career patterns are away from low socioeconomic schools and toward higher ones.[8]

The confirmation of the hypothesis that teachers serving in relatively open schools would differ significantly from teachers serving in relatively closed schools when compared on the basis of educational attainment, age, class size, years taught, and years under same principal, provides some support for the proposition that socio-economic factors might well be considered as in some way affecting school climate. Significant difference was found between teachers serving in relatively open and relatively closed climate schools when compared on the basis of each of the five categories.

In each of the five categories, the greater difference was shown in the rank sum scores for teachers serving in relatively closed schools. As mentioned elsewhere in this study, teachers and pupils making up the school population of the inner-city schools, most of which were closed, were Negro. Teachers serving in the inner-city have apparently felt that teaching gives more status than their counterparts who served in the relatively open schools, most of whom were white. In the years prior to the Supreme Court decision of 1954, teaching as a profession was viewed as the ultimate occupation by a large segment of

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[8]Robert E. Herriott, and Nancy Hoyt St. John, "How Pupils Socio-economic Class Affect Educators," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. IV, No. 8 (November, 1968), p. 131.

the Negro community. Further, compared with the remunerative returns of other Negroes in the community, salaries paid teachers were perceived to be munificent. Teaching in the white community, in the opinion of the writer, is not so perceived. From the standpoint of income, there are many residents in the white community - merchants, doctors, attorneys, etc. - whose remunerative rewards far exceed the income from teaching. This, in the opinion of the writer, could conceivably account for the apparent emphasis on additional educational attainment reached by teachers serving in relatively closed climate schools. Similarity, the fact that teachers serving in relatively closed schools were found to be significantly older than their counterparts who served in relatively open schools, can, again in the opinion of the writer, be attributed to the apparent reason that by and large teachers serving in relatively closed climate schools tend to view teaching as an end rather than a means to an end as many of the teachers serving in open schools apparently do. Thus, teachers in closed climate schools used in this study apparently were significantly older and had taught longer than teachers serving in open schools. Classes taught by inner-city teachers were found to be larger than those taught by teachers serving in the peripheral area of the city. This can be attributed, at least in part, to the apparent tendency of inner-city parents to produce large families and, in the metropolitan area in which this study was made, the apparent policy of public officials to construct public housing in the inner-city. Teachers serving in closed schools had apparently served significantly longer under the present principal than teachers serving in open schools. The reason, in the opinion of the writer, is quite apparent. At the time data for this study were collected, movement of teachers

between schools was not as fluid as it is presently. Teachers and principals in the inner-city schools were "boxed in", thus contributing to the significant difference in years taught under present principal.

The writer, with frequent reference to the literature, has attempted to point up the possibility that certain socio-economic factors might well impinge on the intangible process of "climate setting." Then too, an attempt has been made to show that principal orientation might well influence the climate of the school. What influence, if any, does each of these variables, socio-economic factors and principal orientation, have on each other? The answer to this question is beyond the scope of this study.

Suggestions for Further Study

The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire has been a useful tool in the study of public schools. Through the use of the OCDQ the writer was able to determine that schools located in the inner-city were significantly different in climate from schools in the peripheral area of the city.

If climate is thought of strictly in terms of the interaction between teachers and between principals and teachers, it seems that a number of questions might be posed for further study.

1. To what extent is the climate in an elementary school determined by the social matrix of the school system of which it is a part?

2. What is the relationship between authenticity, or lack of it, found in elementary schools, and the essential

nature of the teacher training process in American
education?

3. Considering the behavior of the principal and teacher
as having influence on each other, what is the direc-
tion of this influence?

4. What is the relationship between the organizational
climate which characterized a school and personality
measures of both teachers and principals?

5. What is the relationship between teacher attitude
toward the school setting and the socio-economic
level of pupil attending the school?

The preceding questions represent some of the inquiries which
might be made. They indicate the fruitfulness of the concept of organi-
zational climate in the investigation of the school as a social system.

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APPENDIX A

INSTRUMENT

INFORMATION

On the following pages a number of statements about the school
setting are presented. Our purpose is to gather information regarding
the actual attitudes of educators concerning these statements.

You will recognize that the statements are of such a nature that
there are no correct or incorrect answers. We are interested only in
your frank opinion of them.

Your responses will remain confidential, and no individual or
school will be named in the report of this study. Your cooperation is
greatly appreciated.

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 faculty 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. Custodian service is available when needed ..... RO SO OO VFO

24. Routine duties interfer 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
    criticism 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 adminis-
    trative 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

Information Sheet

Instructions:

Please complete this form by checking the appropriate boxes and filling in blanks where indicated.

1. Sex
   ( ) Male   ( ) Female

2. Present grade level assignment
   .

   ( ) K   ( ) 5
   ( ) 1   ( ) 6
   ( ) 2   ( ) 7
   ( ) 3   ( ) 8
   ( ) 4   ( ) Principal
   ( ) Secondary _____   ( ) Other _____
                                      (If special area or level,
                                      please specify.)

3. Marital status

   ( ) Single   ( ) Widowed
   ( ) Married   ( ) Divorced

4. Education

   ( ) Less than Baccalaureate
   ( ) Baccalaureate Degree
   ( ) Graduate work (no advanced degree)
   ( ) Master's Degree (or equivalent)
   ( ) Graduate work beyond Master's (no advanced degree)
   ( ) Sixth Year Degree
   ( ) Graduate work beyond Sixth Year Degree (no advanced degree)
   ( ) Doctorate

5. What is your average class size
   ( ) less than 15; ( ) 16-20; ( ) 21-25; ( ) 26-30; ( ) 30 -

6. Age (Nearest birthday): _____.

7. Number years teaching experience in this district (including this year): _____.

8. Total number years teaching experience (including this year): ____.

9. Number of children (your own): _____.

10. How many years have you taught under the present principal (including this year): _____.

APPENDIX B

OCDQ SIMILARITY SCORES FOR THIRTY SCHOOLS

School Number	Open	Autonomous	Controlled	Familiar	Paternal	Closed
55	34	72	79	63	75	107
56	43	75	85	70	74	108
57	33	57	73	51	63	80
58	45	61	92	46	61	93
59	43	57	83	52	92	107
60	46	59	81	58	43	105
61	60	70	72	52	49	54
62	56	75	66	66	49	57
63	41	65	72	46	61	78
64	55	79	80	40	32	59
65	66	86	58	70	63	64
66	32	67	89	68	78	99
67	38	62	77	66	87	105
68	41	54	77	51	64	90
69	28	52	77	51	64	90
70	56	90	66	72	48	88
71	33	72	76	53	43	88
72	53	73	71	43	51	67
73	74	83	60	66	46	50
74	90	101	65	77	49	44
75	41	80	75	58	49	75
76	74	75	68	59	59	48
77	50	78	61	60	39	72
78	87	99	64	76	47	46
79	57	77	71	52	42	57
80	47	78	76	47	39	68
81	76	76	74	61	66	53
82	82	96	73	60	34	43
83	59	74	65	48	52	63
84	65	82	76	51	32	49

VITA

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