

THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA
GRADUATE COLLEGE

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF SCHOOL CLIMATE AND
THE LEADERSHIP STYLE OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

A DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION



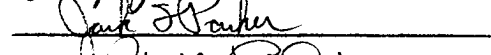

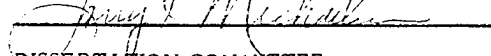
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Norman, Oklahoma

1984

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF SCHOOL CLIMATE AND
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APPROVED BY






DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

ABSTRACT

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF SCHOOL CLIMATE AND THE LEADERSHIP STYLE OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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This study examined the relationship between school climate and the leadership style of school principals as perceived by teachers and principals in one school district. The population for the study was the teachers and principals in a suburban school district in Oklahoma. A randomly selected group of 66 elementary and 66 secondary school teachers, plus the principals of the 17 schools involved, comprised the sample. The Lead instruments (Lead Self and Lead Other) were employed as the measurement device for determining the leadership style of principals. A modified and abbreviated version of the CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile was utilized to measure school climate. A two-tailed t test, Tukey's studentized range (HSD) test for variance, and a Pearson Product Moment Correlation were employed to test the seven hypotheses. The .05 level of significance was the criterion used for accepting or rejecting each of the seven hypotheses. An analysis of the data revealed that: (1) All of the principals viewed themselves as employing a leadership style that was relationship oriented. (2) Principals tended to view themselves as being more effective in their leadership style adaptability than did the teachers. (3) There were significant differences between the way that teachers and principals perceived the climate of a school. (4) There were significant differences between the way that teachers and principals perceived the

leadership style of the principal. (5) There were no significant differences between the leadership style of elementary and secondary school principals. (6) There was a significant difference between the climate of elementary and secondary schools. (7) There was a significant correlation between the leadership style of school principals and school climate.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am deeply indebted to a great number of people who have made significant contributions in the development and completion of this study. The guidance, advice, understanding, and support provided by Dr. John Seaberg, who has served as chairman of my doctoral committee, is gratefully recognized.

Sincere appreciation is also expressed to each member of the doctoral committee--Dr. Robert Bibens, Dr. Lloyd J. Korhonen, Dr. Larry K. Michaelson, and Dr. Jack F. Parker--for the assistance, advice, and encouragement they provided to me throughout my doctoral program.

A special thanks is directed to Dr. Al Schwarzkoph and his staff in the Statistics Consulting Lab for the time and help they afforded me in handling the technical and statistical components of this project.

Finally, I wish to thank my wife, Betty, my sister, Vicki Smith, and my parents, E. J. and Geneve Sellars, for the unlimited supply of love, understanding, encouragement, and support that they have furnished to me throughout the entire course of this study.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In 1903, the British educator Sadler observed that "The American school is radiant with a belief in its mission, and it works among people who believe in the reality of its influence, in the necessity of its labors, and in the grandeur of its task" (cited by Tyack and Hansot, 1982, p. 511). Today it seems that no one even thinks this way about public schools. Some eighty years after Sadler made his observation, the National Commission on Excellence in Education, in a report issued in May, 1983, expressed its concern with the condition of education in the United States with a stirring indictment:

The educational foundations of our society are presently being eroded by a rising tide of mediocrity that threatens our very future as a nation and a people.... If an unfriendly foreign power had attempted to impose on America the mediocre educational performance that exists today, we might well have viewed it as an act of war. (NCEE, 1983, p. 1)

At no other time in recent history, with the possible exception of the aftermath of Sputnik in 1957, has the American public been more concerned about the productivity of its schools. As Howe, (1983) former U.S. Commissioner of Education said: "Education in America has moved to center stage" (p. 167). And the editors of Time, in a feature article in the edition of

October 10, 1983, said that Americans have decided that good public schools are essential for the public good, and they are determined to do whatever is necessary to improve the quality of those schools.

Many recommendations and changes for schools have been proposed, and more will surely be forthcoming within the next one to three years. Given the amount of controversy generated by public schools today, there is no way to tell with any degree of certainty exactly what changes will be implemented. The only thing that does appear certain is that changes in U.S. public education are likely to be made during this decade, and if the changes are in proportion to the controversy--then the changes will be drastic.

In 1957, following the successful launching of Sputnik by the Russians, Americans were determined to improve schools in order to surpass the Russians. In 1984, faced with a sagging economy, reports such as that of the National Commission on Excellence in Education which chronicle a nation of people with declining basic skills, and a growing fear that the U.S. cannot maintain its position in the world market place as the undisputed leader; Americans now seem determined to reform education in order to compete with an economic rival like Japan.

In U.S. public education, as well as the entire society, it seems fair to say that the only constant is change. In the opening pages of his book, Controversy in American Education, Full (1972) said: "Although controversy alone cannot account for all the changes that take place in a society, it can and does set the stage for changes to occur" (p. 3). And, although educators generally welcome the attention now being focused upon public schools, this newfound enthusiasm

for doing something about education is both exhilarating and intimidating to educators.

Terrell Bell, U.S. Secretary of Education, said: "There is currently in progress the greatest, most far-reaching and, I believe, the most promising reform and renewal of education we have seen since the turn of the century" (Time, 1983, p. 58). But as the report of the National Commission on Excellence in Education stated emphatically, leadership in the schools is a key component in implementing the proposed reforms. And, after examining eight major studies of school effectiveness conducted within the past ten years, Sweeney (1983) concluded that the direct responsibility for improving instruction and learning rests in the hands of school principals.

Another major variable in the push for excellence in schools is that of school climate. As Lunenburg (1982) said:

Every aspect of a school district's activities is determined by the attitudes, motivations, perceptions and competencies of the human component. Of all the tasks of administration, managing people is the most important task because everything else depends upon how well it is accomplished. (p. 37)

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this research was to investigate the relationship between school climate and the leadership style of school principals as perceived by teachers and principals in the public schools of Norman, Oklahoma. Specifically, is school climate as measured by the Tunney and Jenkins Modification of the Charles F. Kettering Ltd. (CFK) School Climate

Profile influenced by the leadership style of school principals as measured by the Hersey and Blanchard instruments, Lead Self and Lead Other?

Conceptual Hypotheses

The major area of concern for this study was school climate and whether or not it is influenced by the leadership style of the school principal. The specific questions investigated were as follows:

1. Are there differences among the climates of schools within the same school district?
2. Is there a difference between school climate as perceived by teachers and as perceived by principals?
3. Is there a difference between the climate of an individual school as measured by the perceptions of the principal and as measured by the perceptions of the teachers?
4. Is there a difference between the leadership style of a school principal as measured by the perceptions of the principal and as measured by the perceptions of the teachers?
5. Is there a difference between the leadership style of elementary and secondary school principals?
6. Is there a difference between the climate of elementary and secondary schools?
7. Is there a relationship between the leadership style of school principals and school climate?

Definition of Terms

Conceptual Definitions

Climate - The prevailing temper, outlook, set of attitudes, or environmental conditions (as in regard to a particular activity or concern) characterizing a group or period. (CFK Ltd., 1973)

School Climate - An atmosphere or feeling which is intuitively felt by those who are connected with a school. Climate results from the kinds of programs, processes, and environmental conditions that characterize a school as an institution. (CFK Ltd., 1973)

Management - Working with and through individuals and groups to accomplish organizational goals. (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982)

Leadership - The process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation. (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982)

Operational Definitions

School Climate - The sum of scores on the fifty-item questionnaire, the Modified CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile.

Leadership Style - The leadership profile obtained from the Lead-Self and Lead-Other instruments developed by Hersey and Blanchard.

Operational Hypotheses

HO_1 = There is no statistically significant difference operationally defined at the .05 confidence level among the climates of individual schools within the same district as measured by the responses of teachers on the Modified CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile.

HO_2 = There is no statistically significant difference operationally defined at the .05 confidence level between school climate as measured by the responses of teachers on the Modified CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile and school climate as measured by the responses of principals on the Modified CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile.

HO₃ = There is no statistically significant difference operationally defined at the .05 confidence level between the climate of a school as measured by the responses of the principal on the Modified CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile and as measured by the responses of teachers on the Modified CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile.

HO₄ = There is no statistically significant difference operationally defined at the .05 confidence level between the leadership style of a school principal as measured by the responses of the principal on the Lead Self instrument and the responses of teachers on the Lead Other instrument.

HO₅ = There is no statistically significant difference operationally defined at the .05 confidence level between the leadership style of elementary school principals and secondary school principals as measured by the responses of teachers on the Lead Other instrument.

HO₆ = There is no statistically significant difference operationally defined at the .05 confidence level between the climate of elementary schools and that of secondary schools as measured by the responses of teachers on the Modified CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile.

HO₇ = There is no statistically significant relationship operationally defined at the .05 confidence level between the leadership style of school principals as measured by the responses of teachers on the Lead Other instrument and school climate as measured by the responses of teachers on the Modified CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile.

Limitations of the Study

1. This study involved only teachers and principals in one school system: The public schools of Norman, Oklahoma.

2. Only one instrument was used to measure school climate: The Tunney and Jenkins Modification of the CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile.

3. Only the perceptions of teachers and principals were used in determining school climate.

4. The only instruments used to determine leadership style were the Lead instruments (Lead Self and Lead Other) by Hersey and Blanchard.

5. As with any questionnaire study, the assumption was made that the questionnaires were answered carefully and honestly. It is possible, however, that a number of items may have been answered carelessly.

Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses

The theoretical framework for this study is based upon an integration of situational leadership theory as developed by Hersey and Blanchard, and the concept of school climate as proposed by the Charles F. Kettering Foundation.

Situational Leadership

After doing detailed case studies on 31 key managers, Skinner and Sasser (1977) determined that successful managers were notably inconsistent in their manner of attacking problems. They continually changed their focus, priorities, behavior patterns with superiors and subordinates, and ultimately their management style as the situation dictated. Skinner and Sasser concluded that successful managers were very definitely situationalists.

It was the same types of experiences and observations that prompted Hersey and Blanchard (1969) to develop their situational leadership theory. According to situational leadership theory, there is no one best way to influence people. The leadership style that a person should employ with individuals or groups depends upon the amount of direction (task behavior), and the amount of

socio-emotional support (relationship behavior) a leader provides in a specific situation.

In the situational leadership theory, there are four distinct leadership styles: telling, selling, participating, and delegating. Utilizing the two variables of task and relationship, Hersey and Blanchard (1982) define the four styles as follows:

Style 1 - High task/low relationship behavior is referred to as telling. This style is characterized by one-way communication in which the leader defines the roles of followers and tells them what, how, when and where to do various tasks. It emphasizes directive behavior.

Style 2 - High task/high relationship behavior is referred to as selling. In this style the leader still provides most of the direction, but through two-way communication and explanation the leader attempts to get the followers approval and involvement in the assigned tasks.

Style 3 - High relationship/low task behavior is referred to as participating. The leader and followers share in the decision making and the main role of the leader is facilitating and communicating.

Style 4 - Low relationship/low task behavior is referred to as delegating. Although the leader may still identify the problem, the followers are responsible for deciding the how, when, and where, and for carrying out the plans. The leader delegates responsibility to the followers and provides little direction or support.

Situational leadership theory is illustrated in Figure 1.

School Climate

With the publication of the work by Halpin and Croft (1962), the concept of school organizational climate began to have substance. Prior to this, school

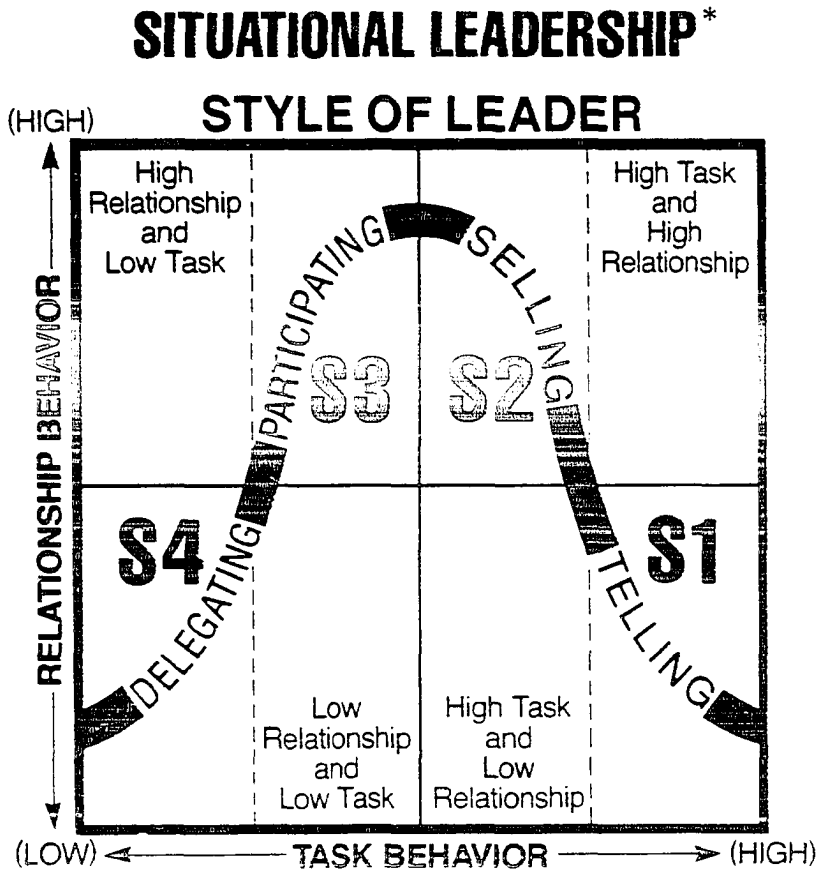


Figure 1. Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, p. 152

climate was a nebulous feeling that people had about the atmosphere of a particular school: Something that was better felt than described or measured. And, during the 1970's, the activities of the Charles F. Kettering Foundation, with its sponsorship of the Annual Gallup Poll on The Public Attitudes Toward the Public Schools, and its emphasis upon improving school climate added new impetus to the recognition of school climate as a factor in school effectiveness. (CFK Ltd., 1973)

The CFK Task Force (1973) attempted to develop a means whereby a community could measure the prevailing climate, and assess the quality of the processes and environmental conditions that characterize the school as an institution. The CFK Task Force suggested that at least eight major factors be examined to determine the quality of a school's climate: (1) respect, (2) trust, (3) high morale, (4) opportunities for input, (5) continuous academic and social growth, (6) cohesiveness, (7) school renewal, and (8) caring.

The Task Force not only developed a comprehensive questionnaire to measure school climate, but also a handbook to assist schools in both the measurement and improvement process.

Significance of the Study

Recent studies regarding school effectiveness have indicated that the principal and school climate were important variables. But just what part does the principal play in determining school climate? And, does the leadership style of the principal have any effect on school climate, or is the climate determined by other variables? This study proposed to address these questions.

The new reports on education have much to say about problems in public schools and make recommendations for improving schools, but these reports are

remarkably silent in regard to how these changes are to be implemented. School climate and the leadership style of school principals may be important variables in implementing the changes in schools that the American public seems to desire. One of the major goals of this study was to investigate the possible effect of the leadership style of the school principal on the climate of the school. The results from this study may provide a potential approach for implementing positive changes in schools.

Information from this study may also be helpful in the training, selection, and placement of school principals. School boards and superintendents need more objective ways of matching schools and principals in order to have optimum effectiveness. This study may stimulate some new approaches in school management that would contribute to improvement of schools and their overall effectiveness.

Organization of the Study

This study is divided into five chapters. Chapter I contains an introduction, statement of the problem, theoretical framework, and hypotheses. Chapter II includes a review of related literature and research. It describes the development of management and leadership theory, research regarding effective principals and effective schools, and the concept of organizational climate as it relates to schools.

Chapter III consists of information related to the population and sample, the instruments utilized, and the collection and analysis of data generated by the study. Chapter IV contains the results of testing the hypotheses, and Chapter V the summary of research findings, conclusions of the study, and recommendations for further study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The word leadership did not appear in the English language until about 1800, and it was almost a century later before social scientists began to seriously study the phenomenon of leadership (Gordon, 1977). Since the beginning of the Twentieth Century, thousands of studies have been conducted in the western world in an attempt to adequately define this phenomenon called leadership. In his book, Handbook of Leadership, Stodgill (1974) surveyed the literature on leadership, and reviewed over 3,000 separate documents concerning the research on leadership. But the concern for finding a formula for successful leadership continues, and especially in the realm of U.S. public education.

Having first been formally postulated during the latter part of the Nineteenth Century, leadership theories and concepts are a relatively new phenomenon. These theories have tended to be consistent with the mood of the management community, and according to Boque and Saunders (1976), prior to 1930 the prevalent management theory was that of scientific management. The scientific management movement has generally been associated with the ideas and writings of Taylor (1911). In essence, scientific management embraced the study of work specialization and wage analysis. Taylor was a recognized efficiency expert, and as such, he proposed that managers dissect jobs in order to find the one most efficient way of doing the job, and then establish a fair wage for this work. The function of the leader in a scientific management

setting was to establish and enforce performance criteria to meet organizational goals. The major focus was on the needs of the organization, not the individual.

Callahan (1962) made an analysis of this movement and its effects upon the U.S. public schools. He was particularly intrigued with the gospel of efficiency as preached by Taylor. He described the Taylor approach as follows:

When Taylor introduced his system into any shop, his first step was to make a careful, detailed, and exhaustive study of the various aspects of the jobs being done. For example, in a machine shop Taylor would observe, time with a stop watch, and record the times of various motions of a group of the most skillful men in the shop. After studying his data, he would then select a worker he regarded as being potentially a first-class man, offer him a bonus for working faster, and experiment. He would combine what he regarded as the best and fastest movements for each phase of the work that he had observed, and eliminate all useless motion. The experimental first-class man would then be taught all the proper motions and Taylor would have him repeat the process until he had satisfied himself that the job was being done in the best and fastest manner. This procedure would then be standardized and one by one the other workers would be taught and required to use this system. His belief was that there was one best way of doing any job and this method could be determined only through the scientific study of that job by experts with proper implements, i.e., a stop watch and recording card. (pp. 28 and 29)

Fayol, a French engineer, and a stalwart in the scientific management movement, determined that if organizations were to operate efficiently, there needed to be a clear understanding of the lines of authority so that every person

in the organization knew where he was in relation to others, and to whom he reported. He also attempted to define the tasks of management and said that managers plan, organize, coordinate, command and control (Fayol, 1916). Gulick later devised an acronym that enlarged upon Fayol's description of managerial duties. Gulick said that the basic functions of administrators were: Planning (P), Organizing (O), Staffing (S), Directing (D), Coordinating (CO), Reporting (R), and Budgeting (B). The famous acronym POSDCORB represented these seven functions and was the result of this outline of managerial duties (Gulick, 1937).

When Mayo (1933) of the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration began to write about his findings at the Western Electric plant in Hawthorne, Illinois, management and leadership theories began to change. Mayo had been asked by Western Electric officials in 1924, to explain an unexpected result of a scientific management experiment. Efficiency experts had conducted a series of experiments in lighting conditions under which employees worked, in an attempt to find the optimum illumination conditions that would bring about optimum production. As lighting power was increased, the output of the test group went up as had been anticipated. Unexpectedly, though, the output of the control group went up--without any increase in light. After months of research, Mayo and his associates concluded that the answers to the dilemma were not to be found in the physical aspects of the experiment, but in the human components. As a result of the attention given them by the experimenters, the workers began to feel that they were important, and as a result they worked more diligently and efficiently than they had previously.

This concern for human relations in management was being espoused almost simultaneously by Follett, in the late 1920's. Ms. Follett (1940) argued

that organizational policies had to be humanized. She felt that conflict among people in any organization was inevitable; but that if properly managed, conflict could be very productive rather than destructive. What Follett felt needed to happen was that employees be involved in the management process. She believed that the fundamental organizational problem of any enterprise--government, business, industry, education, or church administration--was the building and maintenance of dynamic, yet harmonious human relations for a joint effort in the most effective operation of that enterprise. In her papers and lectures she consistently attempted to make this point clear.

The movement that grew out of the writings and lectures of such people as Follett and Mayo has been called the human relations movement in management theory. And, this added dimension of human relations behavior caused leadership theorists to begin to analyze both task oriented and people oriented traits and characteristics. Some theorists began to concentrate on the differences between democratic and autocratic leadership styles.

After World War II, management theories tended to be bimodal, with one school of thought emphasizing task orientation and the other being relationship oriented. The Theory X and Theory Y concepts proposed by McGregor (1960) illustrate this dichotomy.

The following is a list of assumptions about human nature that underlie McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y:

Theory X	Theory Y
1. Work is inherently distasteful to most people.	1. Work is as natural as play, if the conditions are favorable.
2. Most people are not ambitious, have little desire for responsibility and prefer to be directed.	2. Self-control is often indispensable in achieving organizational goals.
3. Most people have little capacity for creativity in solving organizational problems.	3. The capacity for creativity in solving organizational problems is widely distributed in the population.
4. Motivation occurs only at the physiological and safety levels.	4. Motivation occurs at the social, esteem, and self-actualization levels, as well as physiological and security levels.
5. Most people must be closely controlled and often coerced to achieve organizational objectives.	5. People can be self-directed and creative at work if properly motivated.

(Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, p. 49)

As conceptualized by Likert (1961), management approaches could be divided into four categories: System 1, exploitative-authoritative; System 2, benevolent-authoritative; System 3, consultative; and System 4, the participative group. Likert combined a method for measuring the characteristics of an organization with a prescription for the ideal state of the organization, and a formula for moving the organization from its actual state to the ideal state, or System 4.

In the Ohio State Leadership Studies, Shartle (1956) concluded after examination of the role and behavior of many kinds of managers, that there were two fundamental factors emerging: (1) A concern for task; and (2) A concern for persons. These factors were named initiation of structure and consideration. This same theme has been carried on in the writings of theorists since Shartle.

The Presence of Task- and Person-Centered
Variables in Management Scholarship

Author and Reference	Task Variable	Person Variable
C. L. Shartle <u>Executive Performance and Leadership</u> (1956)	Initiating Structure	Consideration
J. W. Getzels and E. G. Guba "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process" (1957)	Nomothetic Dimension	Idiographic Dimension

The Presence of Task- and Person-Centered
Variables in Management Scholarship
(continued)

Author and Reference	Task Variable	Person Variable
Robert R. Blake and Jane Srygley Mouton <u>The Managerial Grid</u> (1964)	Concern for Production	Concern for Persons
F. E. Fiedler <u>A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness</u> (1967)	Task Structure	Leader Member Relations
W. J. Reddin <u>Managerial Effectiveness</u> (1970)	Task Orientation	Relations Orientation

(Bogue & Saunders, 1976, p. 12)

After examining 124 leadership studies, Stodgill (1948) determined that there is a relationship between leader effectiveness and characteristics, activities, and goals of the followers. He concluded by saying that "Leadership must be conceived in terms of the interactions of variables which are in constant flux and change" (p. 64).

Fiedler (1967) argued that either task oriented or relationship oriented leader behavior could be effective depending on situational variables, and the degree of effectiveness was dependent upon the match between the leader and the situation. The approach of Fiedler has been called the Contingency Leadership Theory. Fiedler reported the polarities as follows:

1. Task-oriented leaders perform best in group situations that are either very favorable or very unfavorable to the leader.
2. Relationship-oriented leaders perform best in group situations that are intermediate in favorableness, which is defined by the degree to which the situation enables the leader to exert his influence over the group. (p. 14)

Hersey and Blanchard (1969) first published their situational leadership theory in the Training and Development Journal, May, 1969, and called their approach the Life Cycle Theory of Leadership. Since that time their concepts have been refined until in 1982, they said:

Situational leadership is based on an interplay among (1) the amount of guidance and direction (task behavior) a leader gives; (2) the amount of socioemotional support (relationship behavior) a leader provides; and (3) the readiness (maturity) function or objective. This concept was developed to help people attempting leadership, regardless of their role, to be more effective in their daily interactions with others. (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, p. 150)

Leadership and School Principals

Given the apparent mood of the American public to improve public schools, the role of the school principal in bringing about increased effectiveness is of utmost importance. After examining eight major case studies of school effectiveness, Sweeney (1982) determined:

1. The direct responsibility for improving instruction and learning rests in the hands of school principals.
2. The leadership behavior of principals was positively associated with school outcomes in each of the eight cases. (p. 346)

According to Manasse (1982), the concept that the principal is the key to success in effective schools is a recurring theme in the research literature on effective schools, curriculum change, and program implementation. But, as this and other writers have pointed out, although there is general agreement regarding the principal-principle, the problem that seems to lack consensus is: What are these effective principals effective at doing?

Mazzarella (1982) says that the consistent finding about effective principals, is that they are people oriented. Blumberg and Greenfield (1980), on the other hand, stated that principals who are effective leaders seem to be highly goal oriented and to have a keen sense of goal clarity. Goldhammer (1971) and his research team concluded that the most effective principals had difficulty living within the constraints of a bureaucracy and frequently violated rules, procedures, and the chain of command, seeking solutions to their problems from any available source (cited by Mazzarella, 1982). The picture of the effective principal in the literature is at best a very ambiguous and impressionistic mosaic, composed of what may appear to be many unrelated pieces.

Effective Schools, Leadership, and School Climate

Since the Coleman Report was published (Coleman and Others, 1966), and many people began to question whether the quality of a school actually had a significant impact on the achievement of students, other studies have been published that dispute the Coleman findings. One of the most extensive projects of this nature was conducted in London by Rutter (1979). The major conclusion offered by Rutter was that some schools do appear to exert a positive influence on pupil progress and achievement. The researchers further

concluded that the influence of the head teacher (principal) was considerable, and that of the more than 70 variables examined that the influence of the ethos or climate of the school, and the role of the principal in establishing that climate, was considerable.

In a study of 159 elementary schools in Michigan, Brookover (1975) designed a study to examine the hypothesis that differences in school social systems explain differences in student outcomes among schools. The conclusion reached by the researchers was that "a major portion of the variances in achievement between schools was explained by three components of the school social system: (1) school inputs, (2) school social structure, and (3) school climate" (p. 90).

Weber (1971) conducted a study of reading achievement in four inner city schools in New York, Los Angeles, and Kansas City, and determined that the school appeared to be an important variable in the success of third grade students in reading achievement. Interviews with staff and observations during reading instruction revealed that in successful schools there was a decided *emphasis on reading; careful and frequent evaluation of pupil progress; and a pleasant, orderly, and quiet atmosphere.* Leadership in bringing about these conditions appeared to be a significant factor in the Weber studies.

The New York State Performance Review (cited in Sweeney, 1982), completed in 1974, studied two inner-city schools in New York City that seemed to have very similar school and community environments, but differed widely in student achievement. The analysis revealed that differences in student achievement appeared to be attributable to factors under the control of the school, and many of them related to the leadership of the principal. The

principal in the more effective school had developed and implemented a plan for dealing with reading problems and provided a good balance between administrative and instructional skills. This principal was involved in observing teachers and students, explaining district plans for improvement, establishing educational practices, and developing a stable school atmosphere.

When the State of California conducted its own study of school effectiveness in the mid 70's, they identified 21 pairs of elementary schools that matched on the basis of pupil characteristics, but differed on standardized achievement measures. Madden (1976) and his colleagues identified five factors that seemed to differentiate effective from less effective schools. In more effective schools: (1) Teachers reported receiving significantly more support; (2) there was an atmosphere conducive to learning; (3) the principal had more impact on educational decision making; (4) there was more evidence that pupil progress was being monitored; and (5) there was more emphasis on achievement.

Edmonds, (1978) through his efforts to identify and analyze urban schools that are effective in their efforts to teach poor and minority students has made a major contribution to school effectiveness research. His first efforts were made while he was director of the Harvard project Search for Effective Schools. These studies involved 20 elementary schools in the Model Cities Neighborhood of Detroit, a re-analysis of the 1966 Equal Educational Opportunity survey data, and an analysis of differences in six pairs of elementary schools in Lansing, Michigan.

On the basis of these extensive studies, Edmonds determined that schools and school leadership do make a difference. According to Edmonds, effective schools have principals who:

1. Promote an atmosphere that is orderly without being rigid, quiet without being oppressive, and generally conducive to the business at hand.
2. Frequently monitor pupil progress.
3. Ensure that it is incumbent upon the staff to be instructionally effective for all pupils.
4. Set clearly stated goals and learning objectives.
5. Develop and communicate a plan for dealing with reading and mathematics achievement problems.
6. Demonstrate strong leadership with a mix of management and instructional skills. (Edmonds, 1979, p. 27)

As a continuation of his earlier work, Edmonds (1979) conducted a school effectiveness study in nine elementary schools in New York City. School effectiveness in this project was defined by scores on a city-wide reading achievement test. The resulting rankings were used to differentiate highly effective schools from less effective ones. Schools that showed substantial upward movement in test scores over a four year period were categorized as improvers; those which showed no upward movement over the same period of time were categorized as maintaining/declining. Pairs of improving and maintaining/declining schools from separate communities, matched on environmental variables were then chosen from five districts. Edmonds then isolated five factors that seemed to be associated with school effectiveness: (1) administrative style, (2) school climate, (3) emphasis on basic skills, (4) teacher expectations, and (5) continuous assessment of pupil progress.

In all of these studies done since the Coleman Report came on the scene in 1966, the leadership style of the principal and the school climate were

determined to be important factors which separated effective from ineffective schools. But what leadership style is most effective? Is there a best style, or does it depend upon the situation? And if it does depend upon the situation, can the leader be matched to an organization where his or her leadership style is most effective?

Organizational Climate in Schools

Concern for modifying the climate of organizations has existed in Western Society since at least the publication of The Prince by Machiavelli (1513). The onset of the Industrial Revolution brought about increased interest in improvement of organizational activities. Until Mayo (1933) began to publish his findings concerning the now famous Hawthorne Studies, the emphasis of these activities centered around the changing of the physical environment, and the time and motion studies which were characteristic of the scientific management movement.

Beginning with the human relations movement in management, the focus of efforts to improve organizational climate began to shift to attitudes, morale, and motivation. Following World War II, concern for the psychological environment began to replace earlier mechanistic approaches to modification of the organizational climate. Argyris (1957) calls this psychological environment the "living system" of organizations. Halpin (1962) states that, analogously, personality is to the individual what organizational climate is to the organization.

The study of organizational climate as a function of management was introduced in the business world by McGregor (1960) in his Theory X and Theory Y model. His Theory Y person, inherently curious and capable of growth, of

being trustworthy, and of taking initiative, contrasted sharply with the more traditional Theory X person who was indolent, passive, self-protective, and defensive.

The study of organizational climate in schools was initiated by Halpin and Croft (1962) with the use of their Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire. After administering the questionnaire to 1,151 teachers and principals in 71 schools in six different regions of the United States they devised six profiles of school climates: (1) open, (2) autonomous, (3) controlled, (4) familiar, (5) parental, and (6) closed. Halpin and Croft concluded that school climate is a distinctive and definable entity:

As any teacher or school executive moves from one school to another he is inexorably struck by the differences he encounters in organizational climates. He voices his reaction with such remarks as, 'You don't have to be in a school very long before you feel the atmosphere of a place.' (p. 19)

With the wave of reports and studies that have inundated American educators during the past year, and the sudden interest in improving U.S. schools by Presidential candidates, Congressional leaders, corporate barons, governors, and the American public in general, it is essential that educators realize the significance of school climate in bringing about any of the anticipated changes. In discussing the dynamics of educational change, Henry Brickell (1962) said:

The climate of an organization is the first and most important concern in initiating and sustaining change. People simply do not change in a threatening atmosphere--they become defensive and entrench. They may change surface behaviors--conform--receive and respond at the lowest

level possible and acceptable to the powers that be; but attitudinal change and subsequent behavior change must be preceded by perceptual change. This implies a willingness to accept new information. It is here that the stage for change is set. (p. 81)

Daniel Griffiths (1964) identified several variables that aid or inhibit change, and the first two of those items have great relevance for this study. Griffiths suggested the following:

1. The major impetus for change in organizations is from the outside.
2. The degree and duration of change is directly proportional to the intensity of the stimulus from the suprasystem. (cited by Morphet, Johns, & Relier, 1974, p. 75)

According to Magoon and Linkous (1979), a study by Strosberg into the relationships between quality education and school climate in Florida, indicated a link between student achievement and teacher morale. These authors further state that:

The most important task of any organization is that of creating and maintaining a favorable social and emotional climate which capitalizes on the potential of employees and provides the satisfaction that people want; and in a school setting the principal is the key person in developing, nurturing, and maintaining such a climate. (Magoon and Linkous, 1979, p. 24)

Anderson (cited in Griffiths, 1956) investigated the relationship between student achievement and teacher morale. He used the Iowa Tests of Educational Development to measure student achievement, while interviews were used to determine teacher morale. The students of teachers reporting high morale ranked high in achievement, and vice versa.

Smedley and Willower (1981) indicate that the behavior of the school principal as perceived by teachers is a crucial variable in the organizational climate of schools. And, Stodgill (1974), in his exhaustive survey of the theory and research concerning leadership says in a summary statement: "When teachers and principals are described high in consideration and structure, their pupils tend to make higher scores on tests of school achievement" (p. 140).

Measuring School Climate

By the late 1960's, the most popular instrument used to assess the organizational climate of schools was the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (O.C.D.Q.) developed by Halpin and Croft (1962). The O.C.D.Q. is composed of 64 questions which are divided into eight subtests: Four which deal with the behavior of teachers, and four which deal with the behavior of principals.

Using the O.C.D.Q., Wiggins (1971) found in the schools that he investigated, the presence of a compelling stability of the organizational climate. Climate did not change when principals were replaced. The behavior of principals became more significantly related to the organizational climate as the length of their incumbency increased. He further determined that organizational climate can be operationalized to refer to the resulting condition within the school from the social interaction between the teachers and the principal.

The Charles F. Kettering Foundation, CFK Ltd., a Denver based philanthropic foundation, was established in 1967 with the goal of improving administrative leadership and the learning climate of elementary and secondary schools. This organization assembled a task force of twelve distinguished

educators, led by Dr. Robert Fox, to develop a comprehensive approach for assisting communities in improving the learning climate of their schools. This task force worked with some 200 school administrators from across the United States who were involved in school climate improvement projects to get their ideas and suggestions for the first draft of the CFK Ltd. occasional paper, School Climate Improvement: A Challenge to the School Administrator. (CFK Ltd., 1973) The product of this effort was a 130 question instrument called the School Climate Profile, and a handbook for utilizing this instrument and improving the climate of schools.

The School Climate Profile attempts to take into account the basic human needs of students and educators, school climate goals, and school climate determinants. The respondents rate each of the 130 items as they see them operating in the school (what is). Responses are: (1) almost never, (2) occasionally, (3) frequently, (4) almost always. Each of the items is also marked with the same scale for how the respondent believes the condition should be presented in the school (what should be).

The basic concepts involved in the CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile are illustrated in Figure 2.

THE CLIMATE OF THE SCHOOL

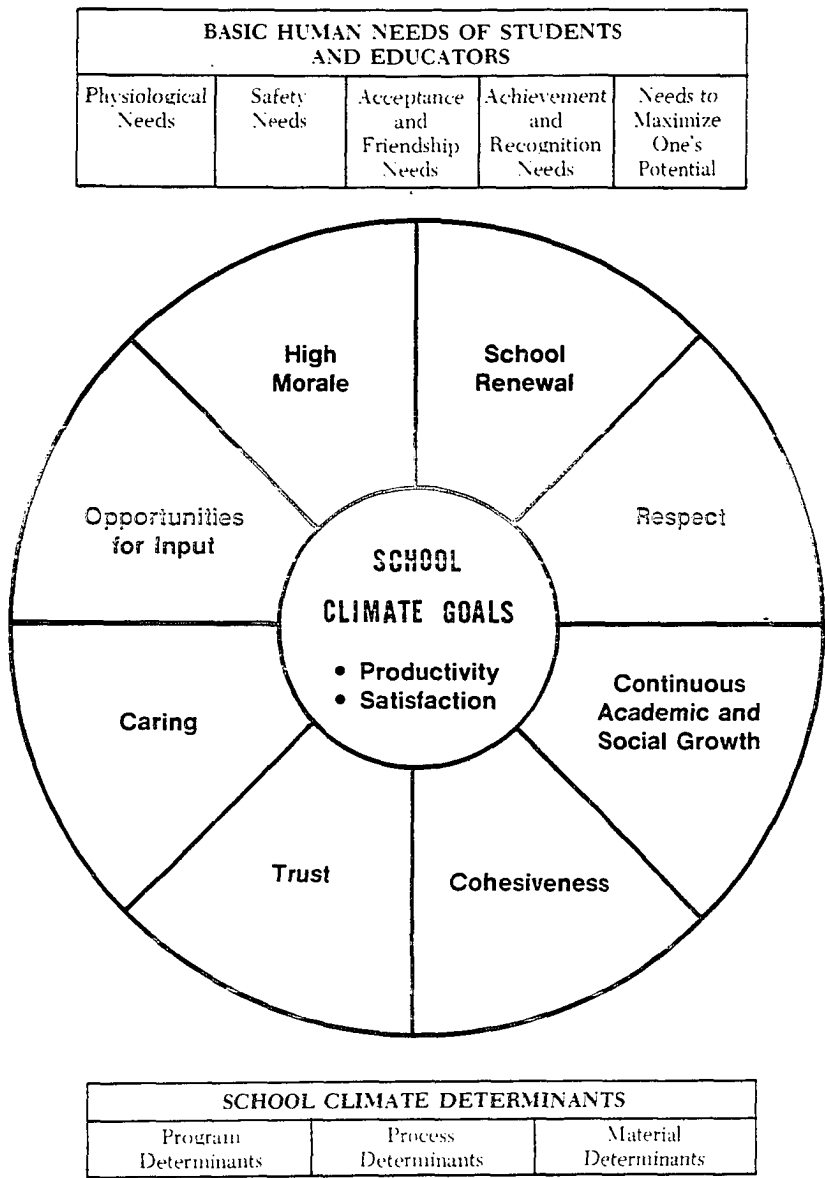


Figure 2. CFK Ltd., 1973, p. 17

CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Selection of Subjects

The population for this study was the principals and teachers in the 11 elementary and 6 secondary schools in the public school system of Norman, Oklahoma. Six teachers from each elementary school and 11 teachers from each secondary school were randomly selected for inclusion in the study, utilizing the procedure recommended by Minium. (1978, p. 243) The principals from each of the 17 schools constituted the principal sample. The teacher sample was divided into two categories: tenured and non-tenured. Tenure was determined by the official school personnel report. For this study, teachers with more than three years service in Norman Public Schools were considered to be tenured. The ratio of tenured to non-tenured teachers was calculated for each of the 17 schools, and that same ratio was maintained in the sample.

Instrumentation

The Lead instruments (Lead Self and Lead Other) were developed by Hersey and Blanchard at the Center for Leadership Studies, Escondido, California. Green (1980) has done extensive research on the Lead instruments and published a manual to provide information regarding their usage. According to the Lead Manual, in a test-retest reliability study over a six-week interval, the correlation coefficient was .71 and was significant at the .01 level. A significant correlation of .67 was found between the adaptability scores of the

managers and the independent ratings of their supervisors. Based upon his research, Green determined that the Lead instrument was empirically sound. Permission to use the Lead instruments in this study was granted by the Center for Leadership Studies in Escondido, California. (Appendix B)

Tunney and Jenkins (1975) utilized the CFK School Climate Profile in a dissertation study involving more than 1,100 students, teachers, administrators, and support personnel in nine selected high schools in California. The use of factor analysis revealed that the School Climate Profile was measuring some of the same things over and over again.

As a result, the instrument was reduced to 50 items grouped into seven areas: (1) humane teachers; (2) opportunity for input; (3) caring; (4) individualization; (5) supportiveness; (6) innovativeness; and (7) suitability of school plant. In addition, the subtitles of each grouping were obviated so as not to prejudice the respondent with a preconceived idea relative to any of the questions.

In the Tunney and Jenkins study (1975), the instrument designed by the CFK Task Force was subjected to a factor analysis to demonstrate its validity not only in terms of its entirety but also in the use of the 26 subareas (determinants). The factor analysis showed new groupings of these question items into seven factors. The validity of the instrument was approached through a factor analytical methodology, and the instrument was validated in terms of which items went together (groupings).

The reliability of the questionnaire was also approached through factor analysis. There was an internal consistency reliability that the items measured the same thing. Similar to the Kuder-Richardson, the items were dealt with by

the items measuring a similar concept (statistical factor analytical reliability of internal consistency).

The statistical treatment of factor analysis of the original questionnaire reorganized the 130 items into new groupings. While the original groupings were designed and formed into what appeared to be a logical grouping by subtitle, there was never a statistical treatment of these groupings by members of the original CFK Ltd. Task Force. As a result of factor analysis of the questionnaire, factor scales were obtained. These factor scales represented the mean response across items within these scales and were selected because the loadings were greater than the other areas. The revised groupings and the percent of variance revealed in the Tunney and Jenkins study were as follows:

<u>Factor</u>	<u>Percent of Variance</u>
I. Humane Teachers	66.8
II. Opportunity for Input	8.9
III. Caring	6.1
IV. Individualization	71.7
V. Supportiveness	10.7
VI. Innovativeness	10.1
VII. Suitability of School Plant	62.6

Tunney and Jenkins (1975) concluded that the remaining 80 statements in the original CFK questionnaire had no significance in the perception of school climate as far as their study was concerned. Permission to use the CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile was granted by the Cadre Publications Center at the University of Tulsa. (Appendix B)

Procedure for Collecting Data

The researcher met with the 17 school principals in a group meeting at the board of education building to familiarize them with the goals of the study and the two questionnaires being employed. Each principal was then asked to complete the Lead Self and the Modified CFK School Climate Profile. A list of the teachers randomly selected in each school and copies of the School Climate Profile and the Lead Other instrument were distributed to the principals and instructions for completion discussed. Two additional teachers were randomly selected from each elementary school and three from each secondary school in order to provide substitutes for teachers that were ill, on leave, or who completed the questionnaires improperly. Each of the teachers selected was assigned a coded number to provide anonymity, and all instruments were marked with the appropriate code. Upon completion, the teachers put the questionnaires in individual envelopes that were then sealed and returned to the office of the building principal. Each envelope was marked with a four-digit code number that designated the school, the name of the teacher, and whether they were tenured or non-tenured. All materials were collected by the principals and returned to the office of the superintendent one week following the meeting with the researcher.

Procedure for Analysis of Data

After the questionnaires had been retrieved by the researcher, they were compiled by school and teacher codes. The Lead Self and Lead Other questionnaires were scored using the Lead Direction package, and a profile was calculated for each of the 149 questionnaires. Each of the School Climate Profile questionnaires was scored using the four-point rating scale designed for the instrument.

Data cards for each of the 17 schools were prepared listing the school and teacher codes, the individual scores for Leadership Styles 1 - 4, the Leadership Style Adaptability score, and the School Climate score. These cards were verified before the data were entered into the computer, and again before the statistical analysis was done. All data processing was done on the IBM-370 Computer at the University of Oklahoma using the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) program package. (SAS Institute Incorporated, 1982) For statistical treatment, the .05 level of confidence was utilized as the criterion of significance for accepting or rejecting each hypothesis.

The statistical procedures used for testing each of the seven hypotheses are listed below:

1. To determine whether or not there were statistically significant differences ($\alpha=0.05$) among the climates of the individual schools as measured by the responses of teachers on the Modified CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile, Tukey's Studentized Range (HSD) test for variance was utilized. (SAS Institute, Incorporated, 1982, p. 497)

2. To determine whether or not there were statistically significant differences ($\alpha=0.05$) between climate scores as measured by the responses of teachers and the responses of principals on the Modified CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile, a two-tailed t test was utilized. (SAS Institute, Incorporated, 1982, p. 494)

3. To determine whether or not there were statistically significant differences ($\alpha=0.05$) between climate scores of the principal and teachers in individual schools as measured by the responses of the principal and teachers on the modified CFK School Climate Profile, a two-tailed t test was utilized. (SAS Institute, Incorporated, 1982, p. 494)

4. To determine whether or not there were statistically significant differences ($\alpha=0.05$) between the leadership style of a school principal as measured by the responses of the principal on the Lead Self instrument and the responses of teachers on the Lead Other instrument, a two-tailed t test was utilized. (SAS Institute, Incorporated, 1982, p. 494)

5. To determine whether or not there were statistically significant differences ($\alpha=0.05$) between the leadership style of elementary school principals and secondary school principals as measured by the responses of teachers on the Lead Other instrument, a two-tailed t test was utilized. (SAS Institute, Incorporated, 1982, p. 494)

6. To determine whether or not there were statistically significant differences ($\alpha=0.05$) between the climate of elementary schools and that of secondary schools as measured by the responses of teachers on the Modified CFK School Climate Profile, a two-tailed t test was utilized. (SAS Institute, Incorporated, 1982, p. 494)

7. To determine whether or not there was a statistically significant relationship ($\alpha=0.05$) between the leadership style of school principals as measured by the responses of teachers on the Lead Other instrument and school climate as measured by the responses of teachers on the Modified CFK School Climate Profile, a correlation study utilizing the Pearson formula was utilized. (SAS Institute, Incorporated, 1982, p. 501)

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

This study was designed to investigate the role that school principals play in determining school climate. Specifically, the study was designed to analyze the relationship between the leadership style of school principals and the climate of the schools. Contained within this chapter are the presentation and analysis of the data generated by this investigation, and the results of testing the hypotheses which were stated in Chapter I.

The Lead Self instrument and the Modified CFK School Climate Profile were distributed to each of the building principals in the Norman Public Schools. Table I contains the responses of the principals regarding their dominant leadership style, leadership style adaptability, and school climate scores.

The Lead Other instrument and the Modified CFK School Climate Profile were distributed to a random sample of 66 elementary and 66 secondary teachers. The teacher sample was stratified on the basis of tenure so that the sample would maintain the ratio of tenured to non-tenured teachers that existed in each of the 17 schools. See Table II for the mean responses of the teachers in each school relative to the dominant leadership style of the principal, the leadership style adaptability of the principal, and the school climate score.

Table I
Perceptions of Principals

School	Dominant Leadership Style	Leadership Style Adaptability	School Climate
21	2	13	147
22	2	5	141
23	3	10	138
24	3	15	160
25	2	10	169
26	2-3	16	156
31	2	11	188
32	2	9	158
33	2-3	12	166
34	2	13	176
35	2	14	185
36	2	14	163
41	3	9	161
42	2-3	20	163
43	2-3	11	172
44	3	7	175
45	3	12	149

Note - The schools numbered 21-26 are secondary, and those numbered 31-45 are elementary schools.

Table II
Teacher Perceptions - Mean Scores

School	Dominant Leadership Style	Leadership Style Adaptability	School Climate
21	2	2.9	141.4
22	3	6.2	136.6
23	2	10.4	155.6
24	2	11.5	162.1
25	2	10.5	150.9
26	1-2	3.7	149.0
31	4	.17	136.2
32	2-3	10.0	173.2
33	1	-.5	164.8
34	1-2	-1.0	144.2
35	2	7.5	151.7
36	1-4	4.0	153.0
41	2	8.7	137.7
42	2	7.8	172.7
43	2	10.8	172.5
44	2-3	10.7	163.7
45	2-3	11.5	164.2

Note - The schools numbered 21-26 are secondary, and those numbered 31-45 are elementary schools.

A preliminary analysis of the data revealed that all principals in the study saw themselves as employing a high relationship leadership style. The only styles chosen by principals as their dominant style were Style 2, and Style 3. In the Hersey and Blanchard model, Style 2 is characterized as a high task and high relationship leadership style, while Style 3 is a high relationship and low task leadership style. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982):

People who are perceived as using predominantly Styles 2 and 3 tend to do well working with people of average levels of maturity but find it difficult handling discipline problems and immature work groups, as well as delegating with competent people to maximize their development. This style tends to be the most frequently identified style in the United States and other countries that have a high level of education and extensive industrial experience. (p. 251)

Teachers at 70% of the schools involved in the study also felt that their principals were leaders who predominantly employed a high relationship leadership style. There were three schools (18% of the sample) where the teachers said that the dominant leadership style of the principal was more task than relationship oriented, and at the remaining two schools (12%), the teachers said that the dominant leadership style of the principal was Style 1-2.

Results of Testing the Hypotheses

Seven hypotheses were tested in this study, each contributing to the analysis of the research problem. The presentation of the findings include a statement of the hypothesis followed by the results of the tests relevant to the hypothesis.

HO_1 = There is no statistically significant difference operationally defined at the .05 confidence level among the climates of individual schools within the same district as measured by the responses of teachers on the Modified CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile.

An analysis of variance was performed to determine if there were significant differences in the climate scores of the 17 schools involved. The computed F value was significant at the .05 confidence level (Table III), and Tukey's Studentized Range (HSD) test for variance was employed to determine which schools differed significantly from each other. The results of this analysis showed that differences significant at the .05 confidence level existed in comparisons of mean climate scores between 6 of the 17 schools. (Table III) The null hypothesis was therefore rejected and the alternate hypothesis that a significant difference does exist among the climates of individual schools within the same district was accepted.

HO_2 = There is no statistically significant difference operationally defined at the .05 confidence level between school climate as measured by the responses of teachers on the Modified CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile and school climate as measured by the responses of principals on the Modified CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile.

Results of the two-tailed t tests indicated that there was a difference between school climate as perceived by principals and as perceived by teachers in the 17 schools involved in this study. (Table IV) The null hypothesis was therefore rejected and the alternate hypothesis that a significant difference does exist between school climate as perceived by principals and as perceived by teachers was accepted.

Table III
Climate Comparisons Among Schools

<u>Source of Variance</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>F Value</u>	<u>Probabality</u>
School Climate	16	3.66	0.0001

School Comparisons Significant at .05 Confidence Level

<u>Schools</u>	<u>Difference Between Means</u>	<u>Minimum Significant Difference</u>
32-41	35.50	
32-22	36.53	
32-31	37.00	
42-41	35.00	
42-22	36.03	<u>33.29</u>
42-31	36.50	
43-41	34.83	
43-22	35.86	
43-31	36.33	

Note - The schools numbered 21-26 are secondary and those numbered 31-45 are elementary schools.

Table IV
t Test Comparing Climate Scores of Principals
and Teachers for all 17 Schools

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	Value	Probability
Principals	17	162.76	14.13	2.41	0.0232
Teachers	132	153.44	20.47		

Results indicate a significant difference at the .05 confidence level.

HO_3 = There is no statistically significant difference operationally defined at the .05 confidence level between the climate of a school as measured by the responses of the principal on the Modified CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile and as measured by the responses of teachers on the Modified CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile.

Results of the two-tailed t tests (Table V) indicated that the perceptions of the principal regarding school climate differed significantly from the perceptions of the teachers in 9 of the 17 schools. The null hypothesis was therefore rejected and the alternate hypothesis that there is a significant difference in the school climate of individual schools as measured by the perceptions of the principal and as measured by the perceptions of the teachers was accepted.

HO_4 = There is no statistically significant difference operationally defined at the .05 confidence level between the leadership style of a school principal as measured by the responses of the principal on the Lead Self instrument and the responses of teachers on the Lead Other instrument.

Table V
t Tests By School Comparing the Climate
Scores of the Teachers and the Principal

School	N	Mean Difference	S.D.	T	Probability
21	11	-5.64	17.30	-1.08	0.3052
22	11	-4.36	24.18	-0.60	0.5627
23	11	17.64	18.37	3.18	0.0097 *
24	11	2.09	15.32	0.45	0.6604
25	11	-18.09	17.86	-3.36	0.0072 *
26	11	-7.00	16.24	-1.43	0.1834
31	6	-51.83	17.03	-7.45	0.0007 *
32	6	15.17	7.28	5.10	0.0038 *
33	6	-1.17	23.92	-0.12	0.9096
34	6	-31.83	14.45	-5.39	0.0030 *
35	6	-33.33	29.99	-2.72	0.0417 *
36	6	-10.00	10.84	-2.26	0.0735
41	6	-23.33	12.47	-4.58	0.0059 *
42	6	9.67	5.54	4.28	0.0079 *
43	6	0.50	10.67	0.11	0.9131
44	6	-11.33	8.71	-3.19	0.0243 *
45	6	15.17	26.14	1.42	0.2145

Note - * indicates scores significant at the .05 confidence level.

Results of the two-tailed t tests (Table VI) indicated that the perceptions of the teachers regarding the leadership style of the principal differed significantly from the perceptions of the principal in 9 of the 17 schools. The null hypothesis was therefore rejected and the alternate hypothesis that there is a significant difference between the leadership style of a school as measured by the responses of the principal and as measured by the responses of teachers was accepted.

HO_5 = There is no statistically significant difference operationally defined at the .05 confidence level between the leadership style of elementary school principals and secondary school principals as measured by the responses of teachers on the Lead Other instrument.

Results of the two-tailed t tests indicated that there was no significant difference at the .05 confidence level between the leadership style of elementary and secondary school principals. (Table VII) The null hypothesis was therefore accepted.

HO_6 = There is no statistically significant difference operationally defined at the .05 confidence level between the climate of elementary schools and that of secondary schools as measured by the responses of teachers on the Modified CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile.

Results of the two-tailed t tests indicated that there was a significant difference between the school climate of elementary and secondary schools. (Table VIII) The null hypothesis was therefore rejected and the alternate hypothesis that a significant difference does exist between the climate of elementary and secondary schools as measured by the perceptions of teachers was accepted.

Table VI
t Tests by School Comparing the Leadership Style
Adaptability Scores on the Lead Self and the
Lead Other For the 17 Principals

School	N	Mean Difference	S.D.	T	Probability
21	11	-10.09	6.36	-5.26	0.0004 *
22	11	1.18	6.31	0.62	0.5481
23	11	0.36	2.80	0.43	0.6761
24	11	-3.55	7.37	-1.60	0.1415
25	11	0.45	3.98	0.38	0.7130
26	11	-12.27	7.64	-5.33	0.0003 *
31	6	-10.83	5.74	-4.62	0.0057 *
32	6	1.00	4.20	0.58	0.5847
33	6	-12.50	6.06	-5.05	0.0039 *
34	6	-14.00	5.10	-6.73	0.0011 *
35	6	-6.50	5.01	-3.18	0.0246 *
36	6	-10.00	7.69	-3.18	0.0244 *
41	6	-0.33	7.76	-0.11	0.9203
42	6	-12.17	3.37	-8.84	0.0003 *
43	6	-0.17	2.79	-0.15	0.8893
44	6	3.67	2.07	4.35	0.0074 *
45	6	-0.50	5.92	-0.21	0.8444

Note - * indicates scores significant at the .05 confidence level.

Table VII
t Test Comparing Leadership Style Adaptability
Scores For Elementary and Secondary
School Principals

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	Value	Probability
Elementary Principals	66	6.33	6.76		
				-1.0071	0.3157
Secondary Principals	66	7.52	6.72		

Results indicate no significant difference at the .05 confidence level.

Table VIII
t Test Comparing Climate Scores of Elementary
and Secondary Schools

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	Value	Probability
Elementary Schools	66	157.61	20.57		
				2.38	0.0188
Secondary Schools	66	149.27	19.66		

Results indicate a significant difference at the .05 confidence level.

HO₇ = There is no statistically significant relationship operationally defined at the .05 confidence level between the leadership style of school principals as measured by the responses of teachers on the Lead Other instrument and school climate as measured by the responses of teachers on the Modified CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile.

Results of the Pearson Product Moment Correlation study indicated that there was a significant relationship between the leadership style of school principals and school climate. (Table IX and Figure 3) The null hypothesis was therefore rejected and the alternate hypothesis that a significant relationship does exist between school climate and the leadership style of school principals was accepted.

Table IX
Correlation Coefficient for the Variables
of Leadership Style Adaptability and
School Climate

Variable	N	Mean	S.D.	R	Probability
Leadership Style	132	6.92	6.74		0.0001
				0.37839	
School Climate	132	153.44	20.47		

Results indicate a correlation significant at the .05 confidence level.

Summary of Data Analysis

In the analysis of data, seven hypotheses postulated in the study were tested. Six of the seven null hypotheses were rejected.

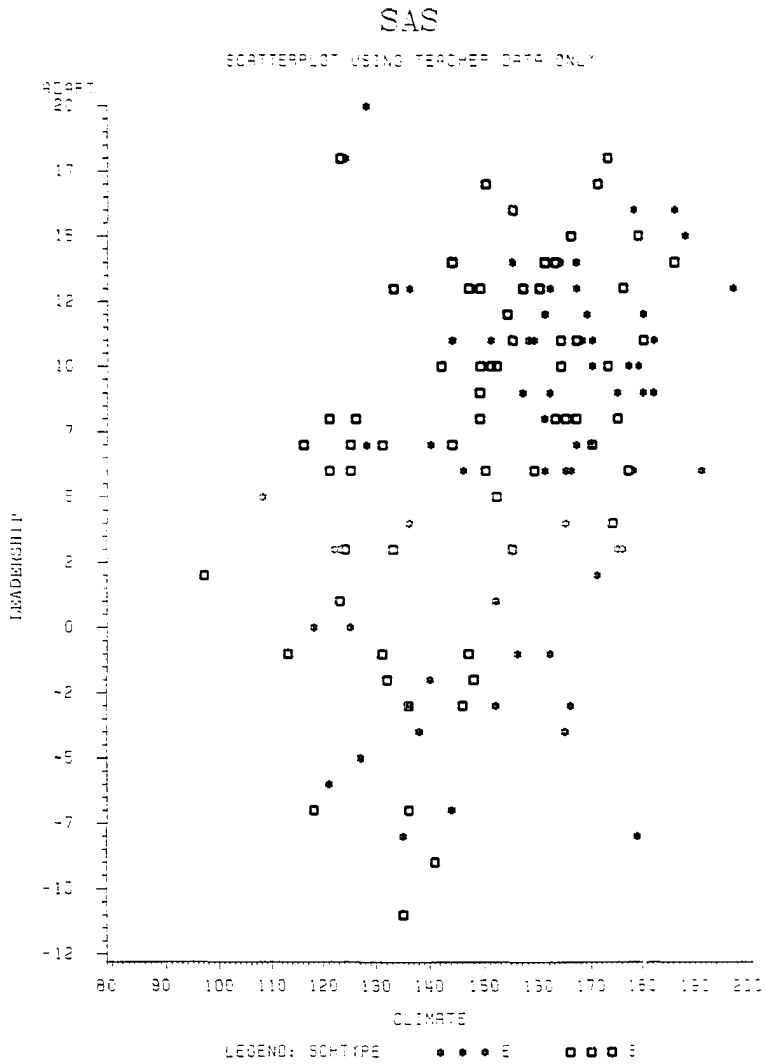


Figure 3. SAS Scatterplot Using Teacher Data Only

HO_1 = There is no statistically significant difference operationally defined at the .05 confidence level among the climates of individual schools within the same district as measured by the responses of teachers on the Modified CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile. Rejected.

HO_2 = There is no statistically significant difference operationally defined at the .05 confidence level between school climate as measured by the responses of teachers on the Modified CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile and school climate as measured by the responses of principals on the Modified CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile. Rejected.

HO_3 = There is no statistically significant difference operationally defined at the .05 confidence level between the climate of a school as measured by the responses of the principal on the Modified CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile and as measured by the responses of teachers on the Modified CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile. Rejected.

HO_4 = There is no statistically significant difference operationally defined at the .05 confidence level between the leadership style of a school principal as measured by the responses of the principal on the Lead Self instrument and the responses of teachers on the Lead Other instrument. Rejected.

HO_5 = There is no statistically significant difference operationally defined at the .05 confidence level between the leadership style of elementary school principals and secondary school principals as measured by the responses of teachers on the Lead Other instrument. Accepted.

HO_6 = There is no statistically significant difference operationally defined at the .05 confidence level between the climate of elementary

schools and that of secondary schools as measured by the responses of teachers on the Modified CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile. Rejected.

H_{O7} = There is no statistically significant relationship operationally defined at the .05 confidence level between the leadership style of school principals as measured by the responses of teachers on the Lead Other instrument and school climate as measured by the responses of teachers on the Modified CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile. Rejected.

Significant differences were found in the climates of individual schools when the climate scores obtained from the teachers randomly sampled at each school were compared with the same scores of teachers at each of the other schools.

Significant differences were found between the perceptions of principals and teachers regarding school climate when the differences were analyzed between the two groups, and when the differences between the perceptions of the principal and teachers were analyzed at each individual school.

Significant differences were found between the perceptions of the principal and the teachers regarding the leadership style of the principal when the leadership style scores were analyzed by school.

Significant differences were found between the climate of elementary and secondary schools, but the same type of analysis revealed that no significant differences existed between the leadership style of elementary and secondary school principals.

A significant relationship was found to exist between the leadership style of school principals and the climate of those schools when the perceptions of the teachers were measured and compared.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between school climate and the leadership style of school principals as they were perceived by teachers and principals in the public schools of Norman, Oklahoma.

The data for the study were collected from the Lead instruments (Lead Self and Lead Other), and the Modified CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile. These questionnaires were administered to all of the principals and a random sample of teachers from each of the 17 public schools in Norman.

Seven questions were investigated by this study:

1. Are there differences among the climates of schools within the same school district?
2. Is there a difference between school climate as perceived by teachers and as perceived by principals?
3. Is there a difference between the climate of an individual school as measured by the perceptions of the principal and as measured by the perceptions of the teachers?
4. Is there a difference between the leadership style of a school principal as measured by the perceptions of the principal and as measured by the perceptions of the teachers?
5. Is there a difference between the leadership style of elementary and secondary school principals?

6. Is there a difference between the climate of elementary and secondary schools?

7. Is there a relationship between the leadership style of school principals and school climate?

The statistical treatments applied to the 298 questionnaires included percentages, means, and frequencies to describe the data. A two-tailed t test, Tukey's Studentized Range (HSD) Test for Variance, and a Pearson Product Moment Correlation were employed to test the seven hypotheses. The .05 level of significance was the criterion used for accepting or rejecting each of the seven hypotheses.

Findings

An analysis of the data revealed the following:

1. All of the principals perceived themselves as employing a leadership style that was relationship oriented.
2. All of the principals viewed themselves as effective in adapting their leadership style to meet the situation. The style adaptability scores ranged from +5 to +20.
3. In 71% of the schools involved in the study, the principals perceived themselves as being more effective in their leadership style adaptability than did the teachers.
4. In only one school, or 6% of the sample, did the principal and the teachers evaluate the school climate the same. In 65% of the schools the principals perceived the school climate as being more positive than did the teachers, while in only 29% of the schools did the teachers view the school climate more positively than the principal.

5. School climate scores varied significantly in comparisons between 6 of the 17 schools studied.
6. There were significant differences between the way that teachers and principals perceived the climate of a school. In 9 of the 17 schools involved in this study (53%) there was a significant difference between the perceptions of the teachers and the principal regarding the climate of their school. In 6 of the 9 schools where there was a significant difference between the perceptions of the principal and teachers, the difference was negative, meaning that the principal felt that the school climate was more positive than did the teachers.
7. There were significant differences between the way that teachers and principals perceived the leadership style of the principal. In 9 of the 17 schools involved in this study (53%), there was a significant difference between the perceptions of the teachers and the principal regarding the effectiveness of the principal in adapting his or her leadership style to fit the situation. In eight of the nine schools where there was a significant difference between the perceptions of the teachers and the principal, the difference was a negative one, meaning that the principals viewed themselves as being more effective in their leadership style adaptability than did the teachers.
8. An analysis of the data showed that there were no significant differences between the leadership style of elementary and secondary school principals.
9. An analysis of the data showed a significant difference between the climate of elementary and secondary schools according to the perceptions of the teachers involved in the study.

10. An analysis of the data showed a significant relationship to exist between the leadership style of school principals and the school climate scores.

Conclusions

An analysis of the data generated in this study revealed that the perceptions of teachers and principals differed significantly on both the variables of school climate and the leadership style of the principal. The principals viewed their leadership style, their ability to adapt their leadership style to fit the situation, and the school climate in a more positive way than did the teachers. The researcher has therefore concluded that the principals involved in this study were apparently unaware of the views of the teachers and the teachers apparently unaware of the views of the principals regarding school climate, the leadership style, and the leadership style adaptability of the principal. The researcher feels that a simple evaluation exercise such as that conducted in this study might assist teachers and principals in understanding the factors that affect the quality of their school life. If self-evaluation is the first step toward improvement, then the process utilized in this study, and these or similar instruments, may have validity in assisting teachers and principals in improving schools.

The data further revealed that the climate of elementary schools differed significantly from the climate of secondary schools when the perceptions of the teachers involved were analyzed and compared. The researcher has therefore concluded that elementary teachers view their schools in a more positive way than do secondary teachers.

This study found that the leadership style and leadership style adaptability of elementary school principals did not differ significantly from that of

secondary school principals when the perceptions of the teachers involved were analyzed and compared. Therefore, the researcher has concluded that elementary teachers do not view the leadership style or leadership style adaptability of their principals differently than do secondary teachers.

An interesting and unexpected finding of this study was that all of the principals perceived themselves as employing a leadership style that was relationship oriented. Therefore, the researcher has concluded that it is uncertain whether the principals felt that they should respond to the questionnaire in such a way as to appear relationship oriented, or if the responses actually represented the way they viewed their leadership style.

Finally, in the schools involved in this study, there was a significant relationship between the climate of the school and the leadership style adaptability of the school principal. The researcher has concluded that if school climate is related to the leadership style of the school principal, then either of these variables may be influenced by the other. Therefore, a more complete understanding of the interaction of school climate and the leadership style of school principals should prove valuable in establishing new directions in the training, selection, and placement of school principals, as well as assisting educators in improving the climate of schools.

Recommendations for Further Study

1. Additional research should be conducted with different instruments to confirm the results of this study.
2. A follow-up research project using the same schools and instruments should be conducted in two to five years to see what changes have taken place in these schools relative to school climate and the leadership style of school principals.

3. Additional research should be done involving students and parents in order to determine their perceptions of school climate and the leadership style of school principals.

4. Additional research should be conducted with schools matched on the basis of pupil characteristics to see what relationship exists between the academic performance of students and the leadership style of school principals.

5. Additional research should be conducted with schools matched on the basis of pupil characteristics to see what relationship exists between the academic performance of students and school climate.

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APPENDIX A
INSTRUMENTS UTILIZED IN THE STUDY

(Name of Teacher)

Your assistance is needed to complete a study that is now being conducted in Norman Public Schools. The purpose of this study is to assess the climate of schools, and to determine the relationship, if any, between school climate and the leadership style of school principals.

A small number of faculty members at each of the 17 schools in Norman have been asked to participate in this study. You were selected for inclusion in this survey by utilizing a table of random numbers in conjunction with the personnel directory for Norman Public Schools.

Please complete the two attached questionnaires without consulting anyone regarding your answers. After completing the questionnaires, place them in the attached envelope, seal, and return them to the principal's office.

PLEASE NOTE:

Copyrighted materials in this document have not been filmed at the request of the author. They are available for consultation, however, in the author's university library.

These consist of pages:

65-68, SCHOOL CLIMATE QUESTIONNAIRE

70 , LEADER EFFECTIVENESS AND ADAPTABILITY DESCRIPTION

72-73, LEADER EFFECTIVENESS AND ADAPTABILITY DESCRIPTION

75-76, LEADER EFFECTIVENESS AND ADAPTABILITY DESCRIPTION

82-89, THE DFK LTD. SCHOOL CLIMATE PROFILE

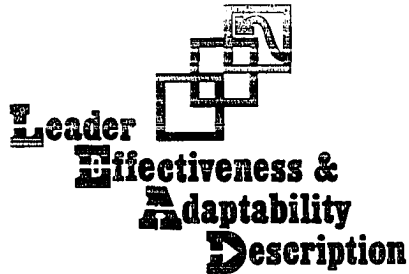
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LEAD

Developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard

DIRECTIONS FOR SELF SCORING AND ANALYSIS



LEAD Self

Developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard

Directions:

Assume YOU are involved in each of the following twelve situations. Each situation has four alternative actions you might initiate. READ each item carefully. THINK about what YOU would do in each circumstance. Then CIRCLE the letter of the alternative action choice which you think would most closely describe YOUR behavior in the situation presented. Circle only *one choice*.



LEADER'S SUPERIOR ☐
 ASSOCIATE ☐
 SUBORDINATE ☐

LEAD ▶ Other

PERCEPTIONS BY OTHERS (LEADERSHIP STYLE)

Developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard

Directions:

Assume _____
name of leader

is involved in each of the following twelve situations. Each situation has four alternative actions this leader might initiate. READ each item carefully. THINK about what this PERSON would do in each circumstance. Then CIRCLE the letter of the alternative action choice which you think would most closely describe the behavior of THIS LEADER in the situation presented, based upon your experience with him. Circle only *one* choice.

Leader 
Effectiveness &
Adaptability
Description

APPENDIX B
CORRESPONDENCE RELATED TO THE STUDY

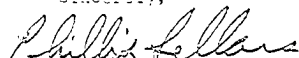
March 15, 1984

Dr. Bruce Howell
Deane Publications Center
600 South College
Tulsa, Oklahoma 74104

Dear Dr. Howell:

This letter will confirm our telephone conversation of March 8, 1984, regarding usage of the CFM Instrument. I appreciate your willingness to grant permission for use of the CFM Ltd. School Climate Profile in my dissertation study. It will be my pleasure to share the results of this study with you and your colleagues at the University of Tulsa.

Sincerely,


Phillip Sellers

CENTER FOR LEADERSHIP STUDIES

P.O. Box 1536, Escondido, California 92025-0312
230 West Third Avenue Escondido, California 92025-1180
(619) 741-6595 (619) 741-9504

March 22, 1984

Mr. Phillip Sellers
1027 Leslie Lane
Norman, Oklahoma 73069

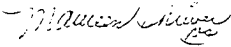
Dear Mr. Sellers:

Ms. Karen Mishler of Univeristy Associates, Incorporated sent your letter to the Center for Leadership Studies, as the Center holds the copyrights on the LEAD instrumentation.

We are happy to grant permission for you to use the LEAD in your research study for your Doctoral degree. It would be very interesting to us to see the results of your study.

Thank you for your interest in the LEAD instruments. Our best wishes for successful completion of your Doctorate degree.

Sincerely,



Maureen Shriver
Director of Administrative Services

MS/jes

NORMAN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

NORMAN, OKLAHOMA

73069

Office of the Superintendent

March 30, 1984

Mr. Phillip Sellars
1027 Leslie Lane
Norman, OK 73069

Dear Mr. Sellars:

I am pleased to inform you that your research proposal has been approved. We believe that the data generated from this study may be useful to Norman Schools.

You will be permitted to make a presentation regarding the details of this project at a meeting of all the school principals scheduled for April 12, at 9:00 A.M., in the Board of Education Conference Room.

Sincerely,


William D. Anderson, Jr.
Superintendent

WDA/la

APPENDIX C

THE ORIGINAL CFK LTD. SCHOOL CLIMATE PROFILE