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An investigation of the relationship between participation and organizational climate : an empirical study of the perceptions of high school senior students, teachers, principals and district superintendents in innovative versus noninnovative schools.

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AN INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARTICIPATION AND
ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF THE PERCEPTIONS OF
HIGH SCHOOL SENIOR STUDENTS, TEACHERS, PRINCIPALS AND DISTRICT
SUPERINTENDENTS IN INNOVATIVE VERSUS NONINNOVATIVE SCHOOLS

A Dissertation Presented

By

THEODORE HERBERT GEHRMAN

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in
partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

May 1970

Major Subject: Administration

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Doctor Ray Budde
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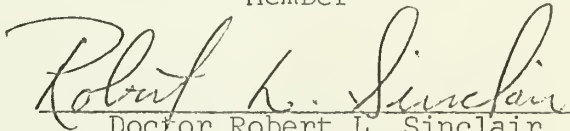

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Educational organizations vary greatly in the climates they provide for the teaching-learning processes. There is considerable evidence that many school systems and institutions of higher learning have been quite slow in adopting important innovations in education.¹ Because of the rapidly increasing rate of change which is taking place in education, it is imperative that school administrators become cognizant of these innovations and attempt to apply them to their organizations wherever and whenever possible. It is impossible to study schools or innovations without studying the people interacting within these organizations and their perceptions of the climates these institutions provide for the teaching-learning processes. Gardner has pointed out, "It is necessary to discuss not only the vitality of societies but the vitality of institutions and individuals. They are the same subject. A society decays when its institutions lose their vitality."² The vitality of an "organizational system"³ reflects the vitalities of the interacting personnel of its subsystems.

If professional pedagogues are to contribute significantly to the progress and vitality of students and of society,

¹D. H. Ross (ed.), Administration for Adaptability (New York: Metropolitan School Study Council, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1958).

²John W. Gardner, Self Renewal: The Individual and the Innovative Society (New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1964), p.2.

³See page 10 for operational definition.

the organizations with which they are associated must provide favorable climates. This favorable climate is least likely to be found in educational organizations in which substantial numbers of students, teachers and administrators are enveloped in fear.

According to Lazarsfeld one of the major tasks of any administrator is to provide the people interacting within his organization with favorable working conditions. Lazarsfeld lists four major tasks faced by all administrators:

1. The administrator must fulfill the goals of the organization.
2. The administrator must make use of other people in fulfilling these goals, not as if they were machines, but rather in such a way to release their initiative and creativity.
3. The administrator must also face the humanitarian aspects of the job. He wants people who work for him to be happy. This is morale--the idea that under suitable conditions people will do better work than they will under unsuitable conditions.
4. The administrator must try to build into his organization provisions for innovations, for change and development. In a changing world, people must adapt to changing conditions.⁴

Those who are currently practicing educational administration, as well as those practicing administration in general, are utilizing and putting into practice scientific knowledge uncovered

⁴Paul F. Lazarsfeld, "The Social Sciences and Administration: A Rationale," The Social Sciences and Educational Administration, eds. Lorne Downey and Frederick Enns (Edmonton: University of Alberta, 1963), pp. 3-4.

through scientific research done by psychologists, social psychologists, anthropologists, sociologists, political scientists and economists. Many advocates of these sciences believe the behavior of man can be described on the basis of three concepts: "(1) goals (end states or conditions), (2) functions (activities by which men achieve goals) and (3) arrangements (structures and mechanisms for arranging activities)."⁵

Within the parameters of these concepts, the researcher drew from many of the above listed disciplines and used the knowledge gleaned from behavioral science research to investigate and compare students', teachers', principals' and superintendents' perceptions of organizational climates and control in ten high schools. Five of these schools were classified as innovative and five were classified as noninnovative. To determine if there were any significant differences between the ways the people functioning within these two sets of organizations perceived their organizational climates, the researcher proposed this study.

⁵Edgar J. Morphet, Rae L. Johns, and Theodore L. Reller, Educational Organization and Administration: Concepts, Practices and Issues (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1967), p. 15.

Problem Statement

Goodlad and Anderson⁶, Brown⁷, and Eldred and Hillson⁸, infer the climate for mental health and individual self-actualization is improved through organizational innovations such as, "nongrading", "team teaching", "differentiated staffing", "phasing", "independent study and testing out"⁹. Do these organizational innovations require greater participation? Brown, while explaining the procedures to follow in establishing a nongraded high school, states: "The function, then, of the individuals who are considered the school's 'creative islands' is to make the proposal fit the resources of their particular school, and then bring the entire staff into the planning."¹⁰ Later he mentions that students and parents should have an opportunity to participate in the planning and operation of the nongraded high school.¹¹

Team teaching, by definition, infers joint effort is involved in planning the learning activities for a group of students.

⁶John I. Goodlad and Robert H. Anderson, The Nongraded Elementary School (2nd ed. rev.) New York: Harcourt Brace and World, Inc., 1963), pp. 186-187.

⁷B. Frank Brown, The Nongraded High School (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1963), p. 36.

⁸Donald M. Eldred and Maurie Hillson, "The Nongraded School and Mental Health," Elementary School Journal, LXIII (January, 1963), 218-222.

⁹See page 10 for definitions of these terms.

¹⁰Brown, op. cit., p. 205.

¹¹Ibid. p. 206.

Blair and Woodward indicate this: "Pupil needs are recognized and satisfied by many kinds of people within the team teaching organization. The administrative cabinet, consisting of the team leaders and the principal, is primarily concerned with policy decisions of the school. The instructional cabinet, is made up of the team leaders, the senior teacher specialists, and the principal, is involved in matters dealing with the curriculum."¹²

Differentiated staffing is related to the team teaching concept and, accordingly, lends itself to participation of teachers in resolving curriculum and policy problems facing the school.

Independent study and testing out, by definition, assures the student an opportunity to plan with the teacher his course of study. Obviously, this promotes greater participation on the part of the student in planning his course of study than the student would find in a school with only fixed curriculum.

Cooperation and participation in joint decision making by administrators, teachers and students should lead to mutual trust.¹³ Mutual trust should lead to more favorable organizational climate

¹²Medell Blair and Richard G. Woodward, Team Teaching in Action (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1964), p. 192.

¹³Many have advanced the theory that participation in decision making leads to mutual trust, e.g.: Herbert A. Shephard, "Changing Interpersonal and Intergroup Relationships in Organizations," Handbook of Organizations, "ed." James G. March (Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1965), pp. 1115-1143. Arnold S. Tannenbaum, Control in Organizations (New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1968). Rensis Likert, The Human Organization its Management and Value (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967). Alfred J. Marrow, David G. Bowers, and Stanley E. Seashore, Management by Participation (New York: Harper & Row, 1967).

which, hopefully, can be measured.

The purpose of this study was to examine and compare the organizational climates of five innovative and five non-innovative high schools in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, as perceived by senior class students, teachers, and administrators interacting within these organizations. Two instruments¹⁴ were used to answer the questions: (1) Do students and teachers in innovative high schools perceive their high schools to have more favorable climates than students and teachers in high schools without innovations? (2) Do students and teachers in innovative high schools perceive their organizations to have more control¹⁵ at their levels in the organizational hierarchy than do their counterparts in noninnovative high schools? (3) Do students and teachers in innovative high schools perceive their organizations to have a larger total amount of control than do their counterparts in noninnovative high schools?

Significance of the Problem

Even if John Holt¹⁶ is not entirely accurate in his accusation of American schools, "Even in the kindest schools children are afraid"¹⁷ it is obvious to laymen and educators

¹⁴See Appendix for instrument samples.

¹⁵See page 10 for definition of control.

¹⁶John Holt, How Children Fail (New York: Dell Publishing Co., Inc., 1964), p. 98.

¹⁷Ibid., p. 239.

alike, the learning climate of our schools demands improvement. Only through extensive study of functioning viable schools can we determine and classify these environments to understand what elements comprise a healthy teaching-learning climate. Little has been done thus far in this area. If innovations in organizational structure create more democratic environments, freer from fear and hostility than schools without these innovations, educators must learn why and how these phenomena occur. This cannot be accomplished without considerably more research and empirical means of measuring organizational climate. Hopefully, the results of this study will provide valuable information to prospective and active educational administrators as to what variables seem the most significant in determining a healthy organizational climate for high schools.

Dr. Rensis Likert, Director of the Foundation for Research on Human Behavior, Institute for Social Research, at the University of Michigan, is currently engaged in a national study to establish organizational climate norms for high schools in the United States. The instrument used by Dr. Likert to measure organizational climates of high schools is the same as the one used in this study. Dr. Likert has requested that the results of this study be forwarded to him so that the data can be used as part of a national study.

Hopefully, this study will also cause greater interest in school climates and act as a catalyst in generating further study of organizational systems in the academic preparation of school admin-

istrators.

Definitions of Important Terms

Unfortunately, whenever one uses terms common to any field of study his terminology can be easily misunderstood or misinterpreted. In order to side-step as many language pitfalls as possible in advance, the following definitions are used for the purposes of this study.

1. Organizational Climate - As defined by Likert,¹⁸ it is the interrelated functioning of leadership, processes, motivational forces, communication processes, interaction influence processes, decision-making and goal setting processes. Organizational climate is in a sense the "personality" of the organization. (See pages 54-55 in Chapter III.)
2. Nongrading - A vertical school organization arrangement in which grade levels (i.e. 9th, 10th, 11th, 12th) are not used and one which allows students to elect courses commensurate to his academic ability and achievement.
3. Team Teaching - A horizontal school organization arrangement where a hierarchy of teaching personnel which included a team leader, a master teacher, a

¹⁸Likert, op. cit., p. 6.

teacher aid and/or an intern and a clerk, plans the learning activities for a group of students based upon a deliniation of staff functions depending upon differences in the teachers' preparation, experience and interest.

4. Differentiated Staffing - A hierarchy of personnel composed of certified teachers in which teachers may move vertically on the salary schedule depending upon where they fit in the team teaching organization.
5. Phasing - An organizational structure used in high schools designed to group students in relation to their knowledge and skills which is comprised of five phases or levels such as: low, minimal, medium, high and superior.
6. Independent Study and Testing Out - A procedure whereby a student with a teacher's assistance designs a contract outlining an area of study he wishes to pursue on his own. After fulfilling his contract, the student takes an examination prepared by his supervising teacher and is given credit for the course.
7. Group - A collection of people who satisfy their needs consciously and unconsciously as they accept a common task.

8. Control - Any process in which a person or group of persons or an organization of persons determines, or intentionally affects, the behavior of another person, group or organization.
9. Innovative High School - A high school which has introduced the following organizational structural innovations: nongrading, team teaching, differentiated staffing, phasing and independent study and testing out.
10. Noninnovative High School - A high school which has not introduced the following organizational structural innovations: nongrading, team teaching, differentiated staffing, phasing and independent study and testing out.
11. Organizational System - "a philosophy of management - a set of guiding assumptions, values, and principles that are intended to form the basis for managerial behavior and activities within the organization. Secondly, . . . the patterns of activities, and role relationships, derived from the philosophy, that bears upon the decisions made by the organization and upon the communicating, coordinating, controlling and related functions at all levels and in all parts of the organization."¹⁹

¹⁹Alfred J. Marrow, David G. Bowers, and Stanley E. Seashore, Management by Participation (New York: Harper & Row, 1967), p. 202.

12. Favorable Organizational Climate - A score on Likert's Profile of Organizational Characteristics towards the upper end of the climate continuum of one through twenty.
13. Unfavorable Organizational Climate - A score on Likert's Profile of Organizational Characteristics towards the lower end of the climate continuum of one through twenty.

Assumptions and Limitations

This study uses two instruments to collect data which indicates how people functioning within an organization perceive the organizational climate and the organizational control of that organization. Are people's perceptions of these factors valid? Henry A. Murray's²⁰ "need-press" theory advances the concept that a person's behavior is in part determined by his perception of his organization. Pace and Stern²¹ used Murray's theory as basis for the instrument they designed to measure college environments. Collective perceptions of students, teachers, principals, and superintendents were used in this study. The perceptions of these groups of people functioning within these

²⁰Henry A. Murray, Explorations in Personality (New York: Oxford University, Press, 1938).

²¹C. R. Pace and G. C. Stern, "An Approach to the Measurement of Psychological Characteristics of College Environments," Journal of Educational Psychology, 49: 269-277.

innovative and noninnovative schools are, for the purposes of this study, assumed to be valid descriptions of these two sets or organizational environments.

Hypotheses

The overall objective of this study is to examine and compare senior class students', teachers', principals', and superintendents' perceptions of organizational climate and control in five innovative and five noninnovative high schools. The logic underlying this study proceeds as follows: There is a substantial amount of research which explores the relationships between participation and organizational climate. This body of research indicates that individuals who actively participate in the decision making processes of an organization perceive that organization to have a favorable climate. Theory and logic would indicate that the structural organizational innovations, described previously, should foster participation on the part of the members of high school organizations. Thus, individuals in high schools which have implemented these structural organizational innovations, everything else being equal, should have more favorable perceptions of their organization's climate than their counterparts in high schools without these innovations.

A corollary of this line of reasoning deals with perceptions of control by members of organizations. It is logical to assume that individuals who actively participate in decision making processes which have a direct impact on their functioning in the organization would perceive that they have more control over significant aspects of that organization. Thus, individuals who are members of innovative high schools (as they have been defined for purposes of this study) should perceive that they have more control than their counterparts in noninnovative high schools.

The following hypotheses have been constructed to test the relationships above.

Hypothesis I. Students in high schools with innovative organizational practices will perceive their schools as having more favorable organizational climates than students in high schools without innovative organizational practices.

Hypothesis II. Teachers in high schools with innovative organizational practices will perceive their schools as having more favorable organizational climates than teachers in high schools without innovative organizational practices.

Rationale. Although research is limited in this area, these predictions are based on the writings of several leaders in the field of innovations in education. Goodlad and Anderson state, ". . . it is our belief that the well-being of teachers

and children alike is jeopardized by the continued use of grade labels. In the few "right wing" communities where their use is as straightforward and unequivocal now as a half century ago, the frustrations for the majority of teachers may be few, but the impact on the children must be literally devastating. In the few communities at the opposite end of the continuum, the teachers may have many problems but they are spared at least the embarrassment of professional double-jointedness; the children, presumably, have significant advantages in their search for healthy ego satisfaction and in the development of their potential."²²

In their book, Team Teaching in Action, Blair and Woodward discount the "Hawthorne Effect" as the only reason for improved morale exemplified by a group of teachers involved in a team teaching project, by what Dr. Robert H. Anderson, director of the project, termed the "Hazard Effect". They describe the "Hazard Effect" as follows:

It was soon realized that the strains upon the teachers were rather great and that the program required all participants to establish a number of unfamiliar behavior patterns and new processes of communication. It tended to separate the teachers in the team teaching school and subject them to certain forms of criticism and attack. It exposed the team teaching

²²Goodlad and Anderson, op. cit., pp. 26-28.

staff then, and continues to expose them today, to a large number of visitors and observers, some of whom are hostile At any rate, the 'Hazard Effect' tended to minimize or offset the 'Hawthorne Effect'.²³

Hypothesis III. Students in high schools with innovative organizational practices will perceive they have more control over determining policies and practices of their high school than will students in high schools without innovative organizational practices.

Hypothesis IV. Teachers in high schools with innovative organizational practices will perceive they have more control over determining policies and practices of their high school than will teachers in high schools without innovative organizational practices.

Rationale. If the members of an organization perceive the organization as one which allows them to participate in decisions which affect them, it is plausible, therefore, that they would perceive themselves as having more control over their working environment than individuals who are in an authoritarian bureaucracy. Since an innovative technique such as team teaching, by definition, requires team work in planning the total educational program for a group of students, which requires close association and participation

²³Medell Blair and Richard G. Woodward, Team Teaching in Action (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1964), pp. 192-193.

with other members of the organization including the principal, and students, it does not appear illogical to assume there would evolve a spirit of cooperation which would probably not occur in a noninnovative school.

Hypothesis V. Students in high schools with innovative organizational practices will perceive their organizations as having a greater total amount of control than will students in high schools without innovative organizational practices.

Hypothesis VI. Teachers in high schools with innovative organizational practices will perceive their organizations as having a greater total amount of control than will teachers in high schools without innovative organizational practices.

Rationale. The exercise of control by individuals at the lower echelons of an organizational hierarchy is apt to bring with it greater acceptance of jointly made decisions as well as an increased sense of responsibility and motivation to further the goals of the organization. It may also provide, according to Likert,²⁴ the means for effective coordination of the person's activity through the process of mutual influence. This hypothesis, therefore, is a logical corollary of the preceding one. When students and teachers have a voice in curriculum and policy matters affecting them, there would be an increase in the control they have in the organization without decreasing that of upper echelon personnel, i.e. the principal, superintendent and school

²⁴Likert, op. cit.

board. Since the increase in the amount of control by students and teachers would not decrease the control of the upper echelons, but would supplement it, there would be a greater total amount of control in the organization.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of this study is to explore the relationships between participation and organizational climate. It has been suggested that structural organizational innovations, as defined in this study, require participation by those interacting within an organization. It has also been suggested that such participation would result in an increase in the amount of control that participants perceive themselves to have within the organization. It is the purpose of this chapter to examine the theory and the research which support these relationships. This chapter will also deal with the research which pertains to these variables within the context of other organizational environments.

Participation and Organizational Climate

The first studies of psychological climate were done by Kurt Lewin in the 1930's. In attempting to describe the basic dynamics which linked human behavior to generalized environmental stimuli, he states:

To characterize properly the psychological field, one has to take into account such specific items as particular goals, stimuli, needs, social relations, as well as more general characteristics of the field as the atmosphere (for instance, the friendly, tense, or hostile atmosphere) or the amount of freedom. These characteristics of the field as a whole are as important in psychology as, for instance, the field of gravity for the explanation of events in classical physics. Psychological atmospheres are empirical

realities and are scientifically describable facts.²⁵

Lewin, Lippit and White attempted to study climate as an "empirical reality" in an experiment involving the behavior effects of three different leader-induced atmospheres in boys' clubs.

These leadership roles were authoritarian, democratic and laissez-faire. They reported:

The adult-leader role was found to be a very strong determiner of the pattern of social interaction and emotional development of the group. Four clear-cut types of social atmosphere emerged, in spite of great member differences in social expectation and reaction tendency due to previous adult-leader (parent, teacher) relationships.²⁶

Therefore, the climate itself proved to be more influential than previously acquired behavior tendencies. The climate was able to change the behavior patterns of the group members.

Lewin and his associates reviewed the individual differences of the various boys' clubs studied and concluded:

It can be reported that in nearly all cases differences in club behavior can be attributed to differences in the induced social climate than to constant characteristics of the club personnel.²⁷

The three different leadership styles definitely had an impact on the ways the boys perceived the climate of their organi-

²⁵Kurt Lewin, Field Theory in Social Science (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951), p. 241.

²⁶R. Lippit and R. K. White, "An Experimental Study of Leadership and Group Life," in E. E. Maccoby, T. M. Newcomb, and E. L. Hartley, eds., Readings in Social Psychology (New York: Henry Holt, 1958), p. 510.

²⁷Ibid., p. 510-511.

zations. The laissez-faire leadership resulted in chaos, confusion and frustration. White and Lippit found that laissez-faire leadership resulted in much lower volume and lower quality of work than under democratic leadership. Furthermore, there was a great deal of discouragement, frustration and waste motion. A study by Baumgartel found that laissez-faire leadership resulted in less satisfaction than did participatory (democratic) leadership. However, laissez-faire leadership seemed to produce more favorable attitudes than directive (autocratic) leadership.²⁸ White and Lippit also found that autocratic leadership resulted in less peer cooperation and higher submissiveness and apathy than in the democratic organization. Autocratic leadership resulted in "scapegoating" behavior in which group members expressed their frustrations by turning on members of their group.

Behavior patterns usually associated with democratic leadership, i.e. a high degree of participation, have been found in general to be related to more favorable organizational climate. The research cited above and below suggests that democratic behavior on the part of the leader, in contrast to laissez-faire and authoritarian behavior will result in more positive attitudes toward the leader, a higher degree of acceptance of change, lower absentee rates and higher production.

²⁸Howard Baumgartel, "Leadership Style as a Variable in Research Administration," Administrative Science Quarterly, 2:344-60, (December 1957).

The classic study by a group of investigators at the Hawthorne Works of the Western Electric Company demonstrated the powerful effects of participation and recognition on production. By consulting with the workers, through being concerned with their well being, the researchers produced such cooperative attitudes that regardless of what they did to the environment and work schedule the production increased.²⁹

The studies cited above by White and Lippit and Baumgartel suggest that the democratic approach tends to result in more favorable attitudes toward the leader than is the case under laizzes-faire and autocratic leadership. A further report on boys' clubs concluded that, in contrast to autocratic leadership, democratic behavior by the leader led to more cooperative behavior, more friendliness, more suggestions, more mutually accepted exchange of objective criticism, and higher production of higher quality.³⁰ Similarly, research by Morse and Reimer found that satisfaction in a work situation increased as participation increased and decreased with decreasing participation.³¹

Coch's and French's study at the Harwood Manufacturing Corporation found that employee participation in planning and putting into effect changes, resulted in sustained or increased

²⁹F. J. Roethlisberger, Management and Morale (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1946), pp. 9-15.

³⁰Lippit and White, op. cit., pp. 521-23.

³¹Nancy C. Morse and Everett Reimer, "The Experimental Change of a Major Organizational Variable," Journal of Abnormal Psychiatry, LIII (January, 1956), 120-129.

productivity. The study consisted of introducing changes in production methods and piece rates in four groups. These groups of employees were carefully matched. One group was not allowed to participate; a second group participated slightly by being permitted to choose representatives who would receive training in the new methods and who were allowed to make suggestions regarding the changes. All workers in the third and fourth groups were allowed to participate fully in the designing of the new jobs and in making suggestions. The "non-participation" group had the lowest productivity over a forty day period, had the highest grievance and resignation rates, and showed deliberate signs of restricting production. The second group of workers, "the representation group" had a high relearning rate, was cooperative, and achieved fairly high production over the forty days. The third and fourth groups, "the total participation group" had the highest relearning rate, were cooperative, had no resignations, showed no hostility and achieved the highest production rates over the forty day period.³²

Democratic leadership's most important ingredient is participation. Participation allows the members of an organization to share in decisions affecting them. They may decide on goals and on methods to reach those goals. Democratic leadership implies a climate where employees have a chance to grow and develop and

³²Lester Coch and John R. P. French, Jr., "Overcoming Resistance to Change," Human Relations, I (1948), 512-532.

where employee attitudes are sincerely respected and solicited. Individual self-awareness can only come from a work environment to which an individual can feel he has some commitment and involvement. The realization of greater personal potential comes from an organizational climate which allows its participants freedom to decide and to act. If this freedom is restricted, both the individual and the organization will suffer.

The widely held view that participative leadership elicits the highest morale and productivity situation is championed by Likert.³³ Much of his research supports the basic premise that participation leads to better organizational climate. In fact, of his four systems of management, ("Exploitive Authoritative," "Benevolent Authoritative," "Consultative") the last is called "Participative." These systems are also referred to as "System I, System II, System III, and System IV,"³⁴ with I being based on extreme authoritarianism and IV being based on the greatest degree of participation. Likert's books³⁵ report the results of the studies conducted at the Harwood Manufacturing Company. These studies explain in detail how participation on the part of the membership improved the perceptions of those interacting within the company. Marrow, Bowers, and Seashore

³³Likert, op. cit.

³⁴Rensis Likert, New Patterns of Management (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961).

³⁵Rensis Likert, The Human Organization: Its Management and Value (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967).

explain in detail how a failing company used participative methods of management to turn it into a highly profitable, efficiently operated organization in their book, Management by Participation.³⁶

Participation and Organizational Control

In today's society almost everyone spends a large portion of his time participating in an organization. Usually he must spend time in at least one, and usually several, social organizations. His motivation, his aspirations, and his way of life are in part controlled by these social systems. Tannenbaum states:

That man derives a great deal from organizational membership leaves little to be argued; that he often pays heavily for the benefits of organizational membership seems an argument equally compelling. At the heart of this exchange lies control.³⁷

The word organization in itself implies control. According to Tannenbaum:

A social organization is an ordered arrangement of individual human interactions. Control processes help circumscribe idiosyncratic behavior and keep them conformant to the rational plan of the organization.³⁸

Tannenbaum in his book, Control in Organizations, cites a number of studies describing the affects participation of the membership, at various levels of the hierarchy, have upon control.

March and Simon state:

³⁶ Marrow, Bowers, and Seashore, op. cit.

³⁷ Arnold S. Tannenbaum, op. cit., p. 3.

³⁸ Ibid.

Where there is participation, alternatives are suggested that permit the organizational hierarchy to control (at least in part) what is evoked. 'Participative Management' can be viewed as a device for permitting management to participate more fully in the making of decisions as well as a means for expanding the influence of the lower echelons in the organization.³⁹

Some of the positive results of the participative approach can be seen as regards to a supervisor-subordinate relationship. The laissez-faire supervisor who exercises little control over his subordinates would also be indifferent to their wishes and needs. Another more participative supervisor would interact more often, welcome opinions, and show more concern for meeting the needs of his subordinates. If this concept were expanded vertically in organizational hierarchy, there would be a highly participative, tightly knit social system which in turn would lead to more favorable organizational climate.

Studies of Organizational Climate

Probably the best known study which investigated the organizational climate of schools was done by Halpin and Croft.⁴⁰ They administered an "Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire" to 1,151 teachers and principals in seventy-one schools in six different regions of the United States to study the organiza-

³⁹J. G. March and H. A. Simon, Organizations (New York: Wiley, 1958), p. 54.

⁴⁰Richard C. Lonsdale, "Maintaining the Organization in Dynamic Equilibrium," Behavioral Science in Educational Administration, Sixty-third Year Book of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964), p. 167.

tional climate of elementary schools. Their factor analyses yielded six profiles or organizational climates on a continuum running from "open" through "autonomous," "controlled," "familiar," and "paternal" to "closed." They found three parameters useful in describing the organizational climates or social interactions within elementary schools: authenticity, or the openness of the behavior of leaders and group members; satisfaction, "an attainment of conjoint satisfaction in respect to task accomplishment and social needs"; and leadership initiation, the "latitude within which the group members, as well as the leader, can initiate leadership acts." They drew from their study the implication that there is a great need to train school administrators so they will have greater insight into the different types of organizational climates by exposing them to study in the fields of clinical and social psychology of groups.

Although no studies have been found which were specifically designed to determine the relationship between organizational climate and innovative practices, the six profiles of organizational climate outlined by Halpin & Croft are quite similar to the four systems used by Likert in climate of organizations; (1) "Exploitive authoritative, (2) Benevolent authoritative, (3) Consultative and (4) Participative."⁴¹

⁴¹Rensis Likert, New Patterns of Management (New York: M^CGraw-Hill, 1961), p. 78.

There appears to be a trend recently for researchers to evaluate the aspects of organizational climate. For example; Mathews⁴², in a study of nine Western hospitals measured five dimensions of administrative climate (decision making, leadership, goal-integration, influence, and personal relations) on a continuum ranging from social philosophy of administration to a technological philosophy of administration. As she used the terms, a social philosophy of administration refers to a wide use of the participatory process, with staff members up and down the scalar chain involved in decision-making and other generally supportive interactions, while a technological philosophy refers to a typical hierarchical organization where decisions, rules and regulations are made at the top level of a scalar chain and the procedures are standardized for personnel at the various lower levels of the organization.

She found important contradictions in the administrative philosophies of these hospitals as they leaned toward social orientation on some of the test dimensions and toward technological orientation on the others. She also found a significant correlation between the tenure of nurses and the degree of philosophic contradiction; hospitals at either end of her continuum, with a more clearly social or technological orientation in their organizational climates, were marked by a pattern of higher tenure among their nurses, while hospitals arranged near the middle of the continuum, a position reflecting philosophic contradictions, had a lower tenure among their nurses.⁴³

⁴² B. Phelps Mathews, "Inconsistency: A Complex Problem in Administration," Hospital Administration, VII (February, 1962), 21-35.

⁴³ Lonsdale, op. cit., p. 169.

Thus, it may be that personnel tend to remain in organizations which reflect their philosophic orientation and in the organizational climate in which they feel most comfortable. If this is the case, the greater the likelihood that the organizational climate will remain static.

Drawing upon Murray's⁴⁴ concepts of need and press, Stern⁴⁵ and his associates developed the "Activities Index" to measure individual needs and the "College Characteristics Index" (CCI) to measure organizational press, where press is ". . . an external personality need . . . (and) . . . refers to the phenomenological world of the individual, the unique and inevitably private view which each person has of the events in which he takes part."⁴⁶

They have used these instruments in measuring the pressive aspect of the organizational climate of a number of colleges and universities. From the analyses of the findings of the CCI in 60 colleges and universities, they derived the following six factors describing the effect of the organizational climate of those institutions upon students: intellectual orientation, social effectiveness, play, friendliness, constraint, and dominance-submissions. High scores of these factors were

⁴⁴Henry A. Murray et al., Explorations in Personality (New York: Oxford University Press, 1938), p. 124.

⁴⁵George G. Stern, "Characteristic of the Intellectual Climate in College Environments," Harvard Educational Review, XXXI (Winter, 1963), 5-41.

⁴⁶Ibid., p. 29

obtained by various types of colleges as follows: liberal-arts colleges, on intellectual orientation; liberal-arts colleges and several select denominational colleges, on social effectiveness; several large state universities, on play; a mixed group of schools, on friendliness (informal social organization); denominational colleges, on constraint (compliance); and state teachers' colleges, on dominance-submission(or custodial care). The major source of diversity in the colleges studied was the level of their intellectual press. Using new instruments, Stern and his associates are now extending their studies to evening colleges and high schools, but none of their results have been published to date.

Presently there is little reported research on the organizational climate of schools. It would appear likely that there will be a great deal of research dealing with the organizational climate of educational organizations in forthcoming decades.

Although very few studies in the past have examined entire educational organizations, there has been a great deal of discrete and fragmentized socio-psychological research done of certain groups functioning in educational organizations. In the forthcoming portion of this paper the writer will attempt to review the research most germane to the organizational climate of groups of people who interact in public educational institutions.

Morale

One of the earliest and best known studies on autocratic

and democratic group atmospheres was done by Kurt Lewin.⁴⁷ Clubs comprised of five ten-year-old students chosen from a larger number of volunteers met for one period each week for several months. The first of such groups learned to make theatrical masks, do mural painting, do soap carving and construct model airplanes. The leaders shifted their roles from authoritarian to democratic based on the following criteria; leader versus group determination of policy; specific directions one at a time versus more general indication of possible action; leader versus member task setting; subjective leader criticism and praise of individuals impersonally (neither hostile nor friendly) versus objective comment as a group member though not a participant.

The results were striking. As described by Lewin:
 ". . . there was about thirty times as much hostile domination in the autocracy as in the democracy. The children in the autocratic groups were less cooperative, and less submissive towards their equals, but more submissive to their superior. Twice, the high tension led the children to gang together, not against the leader, but against one of their own members, making him a scapegoat who soon dropped out."⁴⁸ Some of Lewin's later

⁴⁷Kurt Lewin et al., "Patterns of Aggressive Behavior in Experimentally Created 'Social Climates'," Journal of Social Psychology, X (1939), 271-99.

⁴⁸Ibid.

experiments resulted in the children turning their hostility toward their handicraft products by smashing them. Some children, from frustration and hostility, became apathetic. Lewin states, describing the results of shifting from democratic to autocratic leadership:

There have been experiences for me as impressive as seeing the expression in children's faces change during the first day of autocracy. The friendly, open, and cooperative, full of life, became within a short half hour a rather apathetic-looking gathering without initiative. The change from autocracy to democracy seemed to take somewhat more time. Autocracy is imposed upon the individual. Democracy he has to learn.

It soon became evident that the democratic group on certain occasions, providing the control was not maintained, slipped into a form of anarchy which the researchers called laissez-faire. In such groups the apathy and hostility rivaled that found in the authoritarian groups without the progress towards group goals. This other dimension is sometimes mistakenly called democracy in a regular school situation.⁴⁹

H. H. Anderson and his collaborators,⁵⁰ applying a time sampling technique, observed and recorded certain kinds of behavior classed as dominative included the use of force, commands, threats, shame, blame, and attacks against the personal status of the child; socially integrative behavior included requests, invitations to participate, expressions of interest

⁴⁹Kurt Lewin, "Experiments in Social Space," Harvard Educational Review, IX (1939), 21-32.

⁵⁰Harold H. Anderson et al., "Studies of Teachers' Classroom Personalities," Applied Psychology Monogram, I (1945), 157.

in a child's activities, and the like. Empirically derived categories enabled investigators to conclude that such behavior can be reliably measured, that teachers differ widely and consistently with respect to the variables studied, and that each tends to produce his own kind of behavior in the children, aggression being met with aggression, thus rounding out the vicious circle.

Along another continuum is the relative effectiveness of the cooperative versus the competitive social situation. The former is defined by Deutsch,

. . . in topological terms as a promotively interdependent, since the goal region can be entered only if all can enter their respective goal regions. The competitive social situation, on the contrary, is conflictingly interdependent since if the goal region is entered by one or some, others will be unable to reach their respective goals. Hence, in the former the members tend to facilitate each other's progress (helpfulness), and in the latter, to hinder it (obstructiveness). In the cooperative group one is likely to find more coordination of effort, homogeneity of participation, structural stability, and organizational flexibility, more motivation toward the goal, more communication and mutual agreement, clearer individual and group orientation, greater group productivity, and better interpersonal relations, with a more friendly atmosphere and with group products more highly valued.⁵¹

These findings obviously have an important bearing on the traditional competitive marking system.

⁵¹Morton Deutsch, "The Concept of Power," Behavior Science, II (1957), 201-15.

Stogdill⁵² has pointed out that persistence in cooperation, an indication of group morale, depends upon the effectiveness, and to use Simon's term:

. . .the adequacy of the organization--that is, the extent to which the group goals are reached--and on the efficiency by which individuals' needs are satisfied in relation to available resources. Closely related is the variable of responsibility, which is defined as that part of the administration assigned to a particular member of an enterprise, which thus becomes a mosaic of individual responsibilities. Each member of an organization is responsible for the performance of certain activities, and to certain other individuals. The responsibility structure is a system of expectations, which includes those with whom a member works. Obligation is a willingness to accept responsibility for the burden and risks of the task, presumably with specified limits, for what degree to which they accept it. Even the use in Whyte's Street Corner Society⁵³ clearly recognized certain other obligations.⁵⁴

The effort lately has been to break away from a blanket concept of morale and instead to look for the variables of which it is composed. One good definition for morale which was stated by a Seabee to Admiral Ben Moreell during World War II is, "Morale is when your hands and feet keep working

⁵²Ralph M. Stogdill, "Leadership, Membership, and Organization," Psychology Bulletin, XLVII (1950), 1-14.

⁵³William F. Whyte, Street Corner Society (University of Chicago, 1943), p. 284.

⁵⁴Herbert A. Simon, Administrative Behavior (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1957), p. 259.

when your head says it can't be done."⁵⁵ In spite of the many refinements in definition when can now be made, his statement comes very close to stating what morale really is. In his study of group relations, French seems to have arrived at a good general definition of morale: "Morale refers to the condition of a group where there are clear and fixed group goals (purpose).

They are felt to be important and integrated with individual goals; where there is confidence in the means of attainment, in the leaders, associates, and finally in oneself; where group actions are integrated and cooperative; and where aggression and hostility are expressed against the forces frustrating the group rather than toward other individuals within the group."⁵⁶

There are numerous examples of morale which tend to support the above definition. For example, in the oft quoted Western Electric experiments such external factors as wages and working conditions were found to be far less influential in group effectiveness in assembling telephone relays than were the psychological factors. A bonus system could not increase the output agreed upon as fair by the group of workers. In general, morale is a name for the degree to which members of a group or organization are meaningfully motivated toward a group goal.

⁵⁵John R. P. French, Jr., "The Disruption and Cohesion of Groups," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, XXXVI (July, 1941), 376.

⁵⁶Ibid., p. 377.

French explains:

For the small work group it is a matter of involvement and a feeling of belongingness. For the organization it is the degree of identification of the member with it, including personnel, rules, and policies, and with the organizational system. A number of variables come into play, including the following: (a) relations with the supervisor or foreman depending on his competence and on personality forces; (b) wages in relation to what they will buy in goods, services and prestige outside the organization; (c) differential allegiance--the so called "cross-pressure phenomenon"--as between management and labor for the foreman, between the company and the union for the worker, and between administration and the students for the teacher; (d) degree of communication upward, facilitated by such techniques as a suggestion box and the consequences of such communication, and downward in order that organizational policies can be explained and understood; (e) location of and degree of participation in initiating and planning of action; and (f) the ratio of cooperation over competition and of group versus individual awards.⁵⁷

Griffiths states:

If we observe a faculty carefully, we can find some indication of its morale; we can observe the amount of work its members do. In cases of high morale, production is high; in cases of low morale, production is low. When observing the amount of work the teachers do, we should seek for answers to such questions as: Does the teacher give freely of his time to after school activities? Does he resent coming to P.T.A. meetings and similar school functions? Does he waste his time at work loafing? Is there constant bickering among staff members so that there is no cooperative effort toward common goals? These are signs or indications of low morale. Evidence of high morale would be found in teachers who are cheerful, prompt, dependable, and cooperative.

⁵⁷Ibid., p. 378.

They are willing to work after the regular school hours, knowing that this work will make the total educational program a better one. They show signs of hostility towards those who attempt to harm their group, but little toward each other. To an outsider, many groups of high morale appear to have low morale because of this latter factor. For instance, the in-service consultant who attempts to work with a high morale faculty often had great difficulty in reaching the group. The group feels that it has attained a high level, and the consultant appears to be someone who wants to change the group. Too often, the consultant tries to bring about changes by attacking those things in which the group takes great pride, and so the group closes ranks. High morale groups must be worked with and not on; change must come from the inside.⁵⁸

Most of the studies which investigate morale in the field of education attempt to determine the condition which teachers like. Scates⁵⁹ has suggested that a more profitable approach would be to compare the characteristics of groups of teachers with varying levels of morale. Griffiths follows both procedures and states: "At the present time, it seems that we can gain much information from following both procedures. In both instances, the data are gained from a survey of the literature on morale which includes industrial, business, theoretical, and educational studies."⁶⁰

⁵⁸Daniel E. Griffiths, Human Relations in School Administration (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1955), pp. 147-61.

⁵⁹Douglas E. Scates, "Stresses and Strains of Teaching: Do We Understand Them?," Journal of Teacher Education, (December, 1951).

⁶⁰Griffiths, op. cit., p. 152.

Democratic Leadership

The term democratic has been more maligned in education than any other, except possibly the term progressive. This has been especially true in school administration. Democratic administration has been confused with many of the techniques that are sometimes used by autocratic administrators. The belief is prevalent that to be democratic it is necessary to have the faculty vote on all issues confronting the school. It is often felt that a democratic administrator cannot make a decision alone; he must always consult his faculty. Neither of these techniques is characteristic of the nature of true democratic administration. Bendix⁶¹ has some concepts of democratic administration which help to clarify the issue. He advances the idea that in democratic administration commands or orders are given which have a far greater latitude than commands or orders given in authoritarian groups and that these commands or orders are subject to a rather diffused supervision. He then states a very interesting concept of democratic administration:

The democratic official is ideally expected to be obedient to his superior, but he does not hereby express his loyalty to the people's mandate. On the other hand, he is to exercise his authority in the spirit of service, not of mastery. The democratic administrator stands, therefore, in an ambivalent relationship to his superior and his subordinate. His compliance, his orders and his initiative are tempered by a sense of direct, if imponderable, accountability to the people. In this respect, superior and subordinate are equals before the public, although they are unequal within the administration hierarchy.⁶²

⁶¹Harvey Powelson and Reinhard Bendix, "Psychiatry in Prison," Psychiatry, XIV (February, 1951), 76.

⁶²ibid.

This, according to Griffiths, is getting into the difference between the benevolent autocrat and the democratic leader. He states,

The democratic leader does not solicit loyalty to himself as a person. The loyalty is to the cause; in our case, to public education. In this way the overwhelming influence under which administrators and teachers operate is the responsibility to the public to provide the best education possible. The basic motive is not to please the superintendent. The harder the difference, however, is found in the statement that 'he is to exercise his authority in the spirit of service, not of mastery.' We have noted in our preceding description of administrative types a decided lack of the concept of administration as a service profession. There has been implicit in each concept that the authoritarian administrator is above his teachers. He is a master. The concept of administration as a service function clearly under-cuts the prevalent concept of the other three and is the characteristic which marks most clearly the basic difference. The administrator must believe that his is a service role if he is to be democratic.⁶³

This assumption leads to the practice of democratic administration. The democratic administrator shares with his faculty the making of decisions concerning work planning, assigning, scheduling, and promotions whenever this is feasible. Where it is not feasible, he strives to explain the reasons for his action to the faculty. It is not possible to have the faculty share in all decisions and this, together with reasons, should be made clear to the faculty. The democratic administrator strives to make certain that the credit

⁶³Griffiths, op. cit., p. 160.

for success and failure of the work is shared by those who participate in the work. In this way his do not become the sole standards against which the work of the group is judged. Faculty members grow as they assume the responsibility for their behavior. The administrator judges the work of the staff in terms of objective rather than personal standards. This keeps him out of the way and allows the teacher to work and to be judged in terms of standards which are in the open and understood by all. The best performance, and the highest levels of employee satisfaction occur when the drive for a sense of personal worth is used to create strong motivational forces to cooperate rather than to compete with one's peers or colleagues. In this way both the organization's objectives as well as the individual's can be met with beneficial rewards for each.

Studies⁶⁴ have shown the interpersonal staff relations in a school are important factors in encouraging or discouraging innovations. The superintendent of the school system and principal of the school play important roles in influencing this process both directly and indirectly. If the teacher knows one, or both, favor changes or innovations, he will be

⁶⁴Mark Chesler, Richard Schmuck, and Ronald Lippitt, "The Principal's Role in Facilitating Innovation," Theory and Practice, II (December, 1963), 269-277.

encouraged to utilize some of the innovations as well as exchange ideas with other staff members. If the staff knows the climate, as set by the board, superintendent and principal is favorable, tendencies to innovate will be encouraged. Using this as a premise the writer will explore leadership by touching the following bases: (1) The Organizational Setting of Leadership, and (2) Leadership and Change.

The Organizational Setting of Leadership

The setting for leadership, must always be within an organization. Regardless of whether the organization is a small group or a cluster of interrelated small groups large enough to make up an organization, it can only be viewed from within the organizational setting. Getzels,⁶⁵ conceives of an organization as a hierarchy of superordinate-subordinate relationships, or a structured social system. This hierarchy of relationships serves to facilitate the integration of roles and resources in order to achieve the goals of the system.

A social system exists to discharge certain institutionalized functions; these functions are the goals toward which behavior within the organization is directed. To attain

⁶⁵J. W. Getzels, "Administration as a Social Process," Administrative Theory in Education, "ed." Andrew W. Halpin (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1958), 150-165.

the goals, the work flow of the organization is designed to produce an identifiable commodity which is useful to the larger social system. The school exists to produce educated students for a more comprehensive social system. From these relationships, it is important to note the concept of social system may be applied at any level of organizational analysis.

As Getzels has stated:

...within this framework, for one purpose, a given community may be considered a social system with the school a particular organization within the more general social system. For another purpose, the school or even a single class within the school may be considered a social system in its own right.⁶⁶

The organization, as a social system, may be viewed analytically in terms of two dimensions, the sociological and the psychological. The important analytical and conceptual unit of the sociological dimension of an organization is the role: the dynamic aspects of position, offices, and statuses which define the behavior of individuals within the organization. Roles are defined in terms of expectations, the obligations and responsibilities which govern proper or legitimate modes of action. Roles, also, are interdependent; that is, each role derives its meaning in terms of other related roles within the organization. Thus, the school system, for example, is structured in terms of such complimentary roles as board members, superintendents, principals, teachers, and pupils.

⁶⁶J. W. Getzels and E. G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," School Review, LXV (Winter, 1957), 423.

In terms of the psychological dimension, an organization is always interpersonal in nature because individuals are involved. In order to understand and predict social behavior, one must take into account the need-dispositions of the individual, as well as the hierarchical-role structure of the organization. Hemphill states: "If we concern ourselves with the persons or individuals, we must consider, among other factors, their values, their traits, and their need disposition."⁶⁷ Therefore, in any given school viewed as a social system, the principal perceives the appropriate relationship to a certain student, to a certain teacher, or a certain administrator, in part as a function of his own personality, accordingly, each individual may be expected to respond in terms of his own personality.

In summary, the above description of the organizational setting points out the importance of both the sociological and psychological dimensions. These two dimensions, which are of equal importance, bear a striking resemblance to the evaluative concepts or organizational "effectiveness" and organizational "efficiency" advanced by Barnard who defined these terms as follows: "Effectiveness relates to the accomplishment of the

⁶⁷John K. Hemphill, "Administration as Problem Solving," Administrative Theory in Education, "ed." Andrew W. Halpin (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1960), p. 439.

cooperative purpose, which is social and not personal in character. Efficiency relates to the satisfaction of individual motives and is personal in character."⁶⁸

Leadership and Change

As pointed out earlier, the superintendent and principal are the most influential change agents in a school system. They set the tone for innovation, and if this is done properly, other members of the organization will follow suit. Before the behavioral science aspects of change are discussed, a model for changing organizations needs to be discussed to establish a skeleton upon which to hang the behavioral science aspects of change. Griffiths outlines a list of conditions which aid or inhibit change, as follows:

The major impetus for change in organizations is from the outside.

The degree and duration of change is directly proportional to the intensity of the stimulus from the suprasystem.

Change in an organization is more probable if the successor to the chief administrator is from outside the organization than if he is from within the organization.

When change in an organization does occur it will tend to occur from the top down, not from the bottom up.

⁶⁸Chester J. Barnard, The Functions of the Executive (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1938.), pp. 60-62.

Living systems respond to continuously increasing stress first by a lag in response, then by an over-compensatory response, and finally by catastrophic collapse of the system.

The number of innovations expected is inversely proportional to the tenure of the chief administrator.

The more hierarchical the structure of an organization, the less the possibility of change.

The more functional the dynamic interplay of sub-systems, the less the change in an organization.⁶⁹

Although the above conditions are meant to be viewed from the systems point of view, they should be considered while change and innovations are being discussed.

Because a school system reflects the social system it serves, it must constantly change its tasks, goals and purposes if it is to meet the changing needs of society. This involves changes in the organizational structure, the curriculum, the methodology and the services provided. It is impossible for the school administrator to meet the needs of all the segments of the pluralistic society which he serves. He will always, therefore, encounter resistance to certain changes he hopes to make. This is especially true if the proposed changes conflict with certain groups' values or threaten the status of individuals within the organization. The administrator, if he is a leader, cannot assume a laissez faire role and avoid change, because

⁶⁹Daniel E. Griffiths, Human Relations in School Administration (New York: Appleton-Century Crofts, 1956), p. 106.

change is inevitable. On the other hand, if the change agent, the administrator, ignores certain vital human relation factors, he will lose the leadership of his organization. Coffey and Golden, after an extensive review of applicable research, suggest the following conditions necessary for making organizational change:

- (a) When the leadership is democratic and the group members have freedom to participate in the decision-making process;
- (b) when there have been norms established which make social change an expected aspect of institutional growth;
- (c) when change can be brought about without jeopardizing the individual's membership in the group;
- (d) when the group concerned has a strong sense of belongingness when it is concerned with satisfying member needs;
- (e) when group members actually participate in the leadership function, help formulate goals, plan the steps toward goal realization, and participate in the evaluation of these aspects of leadership;
- (f) when the level of cohesion permits members of the group to express themselves freely and to test new roles by trying out new behaviors and attitudes without being threatened by real consequences.⁷⁰

Recently there has been a great deal of interest in planned change. Bennis, Benne and Chin have presented a design for planned change. Under this concept there is "...the application of systematic and appropriate knowledge to human affairs for the purpose of creating intelligent action and change."⁷¹

⁷⁰Hubert S. Coffey and William P. Golden, Jr., In-Service Education for Teachers, Supervisors and Administrators, Fifty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1957), pp. 101-2.

⁷¹Warren G. Bennis, Kenneth D. Benne, and Robert Chin, The Planning of Change (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1961), p. 3.

They believe the change agent should not come from outside the organization as a "free" agent or consultant. They state:

For one thing, client systems (the system to be changed)⁷² contain the potential resources for creating their own planned change programs under certain conditions they have inside resources, staff persons, applied researchers, and administrators who can and do act as successful change agents. For another thing, we contend that a client system must build into its own structure a vigorous change-agent function in order for it to adapt to a continually changing environment.⁷³

If the principal and superintendent of the "client system" wish to initiate change, it would appear from the above statements change would come about more rapidly in organizations with more favorable organizational climates.

Summary

The rationale for selecting the areas of sociopsychological literature and research used in this chapter was predicated upon the groups to be studied, i.e. school administrators, teachers and students, and the many factors which influence these groups in public high schools.

A review of research and literature regarding participation and climate, participation and control, studies of organizational climate, morale, democratic leadership, the setting of leadership in an organization, and leadership and change, was necessary in order to develop a theoretical framework for testing the hypotheses of this study.

⁷²Brackets mine.

⁷³Ibid., p. 4.

C H A P T E R I I I
R E S E A R C H D E S I G N A N D M E T H O D O L O G Y

The purpose of this study is to examine and compare the organizational climates of five innovative and five noninnovative high schools as perceived by senior class students, teachers and administrators interacting within these organizations. This study will also attempt to determine how much influence each group within the organization feels it has in controlling the curriculum and policies of the organization. In this chapter the research procedure, the selection of schools, and the research instruments, are described.

Research Procedure

The research problem investigated in this study emerged from an assiduous interest in two very provocative but important areas of education; organizational innovations and the organizational climates of schools. As related earlier, many leaders in curriculum suggest the climates of schools improve as innovations are introduced. In an attempt to ascertain if a relationship exists between innovations and the climate as perceived by the students, teachers and administrators of schools with innovations, five public high schools with innovations and five without innovations in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts were selected. A sample of the students, teachers, principals, and superintendents of each set of schools were given a questionnaire. From this

questionnaire profiles for each group were calculated by establishing a mean average of each group's responses. These profiles were compared, analyzed, and interpreted by school and by sets of schools.

The data were analyzed from each school comparing how the superintendent, principal, teachers and students each perceived the organizational climate of their high school. A profile of each sub-sample within the school was plotted to determine in which of Likert's systems (System 1, Exploitive Authoritative; System 2, Benevolent Authoritative; System 3, Consultative; or System 4, Participative) each group perceived the organization. The mean average of each group within the school were averaged to determine the mean average profile of the climate of each school. When this was completed five schools with innovations had their profiles compared with the five schools with no innovations to determine if there were any significant differences between climate profiles and control perceptions among the schools.

Selection of Schools

One of the most difficult tasks associated with this study was the selection of five innovative high schools in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. The first hurdle to overcome was defining an innovative high school, because like progressive, the word innovative is ambiguous and very often considered to be a faddish term. For the purposes of this study an innovative

high school is any high school which has these organizational innovations: (1) Independent Study: A procedure whereby a student with a teacher's assistance designs a contract, written or verbal, outlining an area of study the student wishes to pursue on his own. After fulfilling his responsibilities, the student takes an examination prepared by his supervising teacher and if he passes the examination, is given credit for the course. (2) Team Teaching: A hierarchy of teaching personnel which includes a team leader, a master teacher, a teacher, a teacher's aid, intern or paraprofessional, and a clerk, who as a group plans the learning activities of a group of students based upon a deliniation of staff functions depending upon differences in the teachers' preparation, experience and interest. (3) Differentiated Staffing: A hierarchy of personnel composed of certified teachers who may move vertically on the salary schedule depending upon the nature of their teaching duties and where they fit in the hierarchy of a "team-teaching" structure. (4) Phasing: A high school organizational structure designed to group students in relation to their knowledge, skills and academic ability which is composed of five groups or levels: low, minimal, medium, high and superior. (5) Non-grading: A school organizational arrangement where grade levels are not used and in which students may elect courses commensurate to their academic ability and achievement.

With these definitions in mind the researcher next faced the problem of locating five high schools with these types of practices within the state. Several approaches to the solution were discussed with members of his dissertation committee. It was finally decided that it was virtually impossible to quantify empirically the many possibilities which could be found in any innovative high school, let alone five high schools, and the best approach would be to rely upon expertise and familiarity with high schools in selecting five innovative high schools in the state.

The researcher telephoned the Commonwealth of Massachusetts' Department of Education and spoke to Dr. David F. Engelhardt, Senior Supervisor, Bureau of Curriculum Innovations, and Mr. Jesse O. Richardson, Director of Research and Development and Director of the Innovative Practice Survey. These gentlemen had visited all schools considered innovative, investigated them on various committees, acted as consultants to them and were as cognizant as anyone within the Commonwealth of the many organizational innovations in public and private schools.

In early August, 1969, the researcher met with Mr. Richardson and Dr. Engelhardt and asked them to select five schools within the Commonwealth which they felt best met the criteria outlined by the researcher as organizational practices found in innovative high schools. They gave the researcher the names of five high schools which in their expert opinions met

his criteria, as well as two alternate schools to use in case, for one reason or another, one or two of the original five schools should not wish to participate in the study. In their opinions, there were only seven high schools within the state which they would, by using the researcher's criteria, consider innovative high schools. When administering the questionnaire, each of the ten principals were asked by the researcher if they thought their schools had any of the innovations. All but one innovative principal felt his school had all these innovations. And this principal hoped to introduce that practice the following year. None of the principals in the noninnovative high schools felt they had any innovations, except possibly some homogeneous groups which they considered "phasing." Five high schools, without any of the practices and with similar sized enrollments, located in different towns but in the immediate area of each of the selected innovative high schools, were selected by the experts as the noninnovative schools.

The Sources of Data

The next step after selecting the schools was the selection of the study's population. Within each of the ten high schools the researcher sought to include a random sample of the students, a random sample of the teachers, and a total sample of the principals, including the assistant principals, if any, and a total sample of the superintendents. Each of the selected high schools' principals was telephoned to request a time and date for the

researcher to visit the school, explain the study, ask permission to administer the instruments and, if permission were granted, establish a time and date to give the instruments.

Because of the large numbers of individuals involved in the teacher and student populations to be sampled, and because of the multiplicity of variables among people, the researcher elected to take a random thirty per cent of each group respectively. Rather than take a sample of this entire high school population the researcher elected to take a random sample of only the seniors who had attended the school at least three years. Seniors were selected because they had attended the school longer than any other class.

The random sample of the senior classes was taken by distributing questionnaires to every third senior homeroom. The homeroom teacher was asked to administer them and return them to the researcher in a stamped self-addressed envelope. Every third teacher had a questionnaire placed in his box with a note requesting that it be completed and returned to the principal who returned them to the researcher in a stamped self-addressed envelope.

Questionnaires were also given to the principals, superintendents, and assistant principals of each school visited along with stamped self-addressed envelopes. All responses were anonymous.

Research Instruments

In order to test the hypotheses formulated with respect to the research problem, it was necessary to obtain some measure

of how individuals perceive their organizations' climate. Research instruments used in conjunction with job satisfaction and morale studies were considered to be inadequate because they were too narrow in scope and did not include both sociological and psychological factors deemed important by the author. After an extensive search of the literature dealing with the relationships of individuals and the climate of the organization, two research instruments were located which attempt to delve more deeply into the relationships to be examined. The two instruments the author decided to use were Likert's Profile of Organizational Characteristics and Tannenbaum's Organizational Control Instrument.

Likert's Profile of Organizational Characteristics. The primary instrument used in this study was adapted for use in public high schools in April of 1968 by Likert from many instruments he has designed to measure organizational climate of industrial and other organizations. In July of 1969 it was again revised. The instrument used in this study was the 1969 revision. It is in the process, at the time of this writing, of being administered by several educational researchers in various parts of the country. Because of the short period of time it has been used, national norms have not yet been established for it. In fact, the data collected in this study will be used in establishing regional and national norms.

Likert's theory of participative management served as the conceptual parameter for which the questionnaire was designed.

His theory has been derived from many small group laboratory studies and many surveys of complex organizations. It "... is conceived to apply within the general framework of the classical line-and-staff, hierarchical organizational form, and is thought to be an enlargement upon, rather than a contradiction to, the familiar conceptions of scientific management and human relations management."⁷⁴ This theory is addressed to the problem of achieving mutual compatibility and adaption between the requirements of the organization and the requirements of its members.

In the formal statement of the theory, four systems of organization are specified: the "exploitive authoritative", the "benevolent authoritative", the "consultative", and the "participative-group".⁷⁵ As an organization proceeds from the exploitative-authoritative system to the participative-group system, the compatibility of the people functioning within the organization and the formal structure of the organization increases. The theory hypothesizes this increase in compatibility in turn, increases productivity and increases the opportunity for individuals within the organization to meet social and psychological needs; therefore, improving the climate of organization. Likert explains the effects of the participative approach in terms of a system of interpersonal relationship which comprise what he calls the "interaction-influence system."

⁷⁴Likert, op. cit., p. 6.

⁷⁵Ibid.

Though Bowers discusses the systems from an industrial management point of view, his following explanations of Likert's systems are applicable to this study.

System I (exploitative-authoritative). This management system assumes that labor is largely a market commodity, with time freely sold and purchased. It conceives of the manager's job as consisting of decision, direction, and surveillance, relies primarily upon coercion as a motivating force, and makes little or no provision for the effects of human emotion and interdependence. As a result, communication in this system is sluggish, largely downward in direction, and frequently distorted. Goals are established and decisions made by top management only, based upon fragmentary, often inaccurate and inadequate information. This produces disparity between the desires and interests of the members and the goals of the organization. For these reasons, only high levels of the organization feel any real responsibility for the attainment of established objectives. Their reliance upon coercion as a motivating force leads to an almost total absence of cooperative teamwork and mutual influence and to a quite low true ability of superiors to exercise control in the work situation. Dissatisfaction is prevalent, with subservient attitudes toward superiors, hostility toward peers, and contempt for subordinates. Performance is usually mediocre, with high costs, excessive absence, and substantial manpower turnover. Quality is maintained only by extensive surveillance and a great deal of rework.

System II (benevolent-authoritative). This management system assumes that labor is a market commodity, but an imperfect one: Once purchased, it is susceptible to periodic emotional and interpersonal 'interferences.' Consequently, to decision, direction, and surveillance it adds a fourth managerial duty: expurgating the annoying affect of subordinate members. This fact permits some small amount of upward and lateral communication, although most is downward, and sizable distortion usually exists. Policies are established and basic decisions made by upper management, sometimes with opportunity for comment from subordinate supervisory levels. Some minor implementation decisions may be made at lower levels, but only within the carefully prescribed limits set by the top echelon. Managerial personnel, therefore, usually feel responsibility for attaining the assigned objectives, whereas rank-and-file members usually feel

little or none. Very little cooperative teamwork exists, and superiors at lower echelons are able to exercise only moderate true control in the work situation. Attitudes toward superiors are subservient, and hostility is prevalent toward peers, but the absence of open contempt for performance may be fair to good, although high costs, absence, and manpower turnover frequently occur.

System III (consultative). This management system does not assume labor to be a market commodity. It still reserves to the manager the tasks of decision, and direction, but removes surveillance as a major function. Little recourse to coercion occurs. In their places recognition of the frequently disruptive effects of human emotion is expanded to include employee involvement through consultation. This practice encourages a moderate amount of valid upward communication, although lateral communication is limited by the prevalence of man-to-man, rather than group, decision-making. Communication is, therefore, usually accurate and only occasionally distorted. In line with this, broad policy decisions are made at the top, but specific objectives to implement these policies are entrusted to lower managers for consultative decision-making. For all these reasons, a substantial proportion of the members of the organization feel responsible for attaining established objectives, and the system makes use of most positive motivational forces, except those which would otherwise arise from group processes. Some dissatisfaction may exist, but normally satisfaction is moderately high, with only some degree of hostility expressed toward peers, some condescension toward subordinates. Performance is ordinarily good; costs, absence, and turnover moderate; and quality problems no cause for major concern.

System IV (participative group). This management system assumes that employees are essential parts of an organizational structure which has been built at great cost and necessarily maintained with the same attention and care given more tangible assets. It conceives of decision as a process, rather than a prerogative, with the manager's responsibility consisting, not of himself deciding, but of making sure that the best possible decisions result. In this light, he focuses his efforts upon building an overlapping structure of cohesive, highly motivated, participative groups, coordinated by multiple memberships. Within this highly coordinated and motivated system, characterized by high mutual confidence and trust, communication is adequate, rapid and accurate. Because goals are established and

decisions made with the participation of all those affected, objectives are comparatively closely aligned with the needs and interests of all motivational forces push in the direction of obtaining the established objectives. The closely knit system in addition permits superiors and subordinates alike to exercise great control over the work situation. Employees at all levels are highly satisfied, but without complacency, and feel great reciprocal respect and trust. Performance is very good; costs, absence and turnover are low; and high quality is the natural concern of all.⁷⁶

The adapted instrument is comprised of four parts; each written to measure the perceptions of four distinct groups, students, teachers, principals, and superintendents. The questionnaires written for superintendents, principals and students are designed to be compared with the way teachers perceive the students', the principals' views and the superintendents' views of the organizational climate, as well as how the teacher perceives the school from his own particular point of view. Each of the four questionnaires is divided into six sub-parts. These areas are; (1) Leadership Processes, (2) Motivational Forces, (3) Communication Processes, (4) Interaction-Influence Processes, (5) Decision-Making Processes, and (6) Goal Setting Processes or Ordering.⁷⁷

These factors should not be interpreted as isolated functions of the organization which make up the personality of the organization. They are, according to Likert, very closely interrelated. He states: "There is actually a high degree of interrelationships

⁷⁶S. E. Seashore and D. G. Bowers, Changing the Structure and Functioning of an Organization: Report of a Field Experiment (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Institute for Social Research, the University of Michigan, 1963) p. 215.

⁷⁷Tannenbaum, op. cit., p. 6.

among the variables. A more accurate concept would be that of a highly complex, highly interrelated system existing at any one moment in a state of equilibrium. Changes at any one point in the system bring about related changes in many variables throughout the system, resulting in a new equilibrium with a different pattern of relationships among the variables."⁷⁸

Tannenbaum's Organizational Control Instrument. Likert's instrument has been modified slightly. The researcher has not deleted any part of the Likert instrument, but has added to it Tannenbaum's one question instrument which measures control in organizations. Each student, teacher, principal and superintendent was requested to indicate who they felt had the most influence in establishing practices and policies in the school. By using this instrument too, the researcher was able to ascertain whether the four groups investigated perceived themselves as having more control over their school's environment in schools with organizational innovations than did their counterparts in schools without organizational innovations.

Obviously the word control must be defined prior to describing the instrument which measures it. Control has been defined in various ways and in different terms, for example: power, authority and influence are often used as synonyms for it. Its origin stems from French usage meaning to check. Today it is commonly used in reference to organizations in the sense of influence and power.

⁷⁸Likert, op. cit., p. 16.

In this paper Tannenbaum's definition is used, "... any process in which a person or group of persons, that is, intentionally affects, the behavior of another person, group or organization."⁷⁹

Tannenbaum's instrument is designed in graphical form to characterize the pattern of control in formal organization from top to bottom. The vertical axis of the graph represents the amount of control each respondent feels is exercised by each level in the organization. Two aspects of organizational control can be described by a curve drawn on this graph; first, the hierarchical distribution of control, represented by the shape or slope of the curve; and secondly, the total amount of control exercised by all levels of the organization, which is represented by the average height of the curve. A control curve which rises with hierarchical ascent could be described as an autocratic model, while one declining with hierarchical ascent might be described as a democratic model of an organization.

Control curves have been drawn in a number of studies⁸⁰ on the basis of responses to questions asked of members regarding the amount of control which various echelons exercise, but none has been used to examine the perceptions of students, teachers, principals, and superintendents of public high schools.

⁷⁹Arnold S. Tannenbaum, Control In Organizations (New York: McGraw-Hill Inc., 1968), p. 5.

⁸⁰Seashore and Bowers, op. cit., pp. 16-17.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATION

The purpose of this study is to investigate and compare students', teachers' and administrators' perceptions of organizational climates and control in ten high schools in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. The general working hypothesis postulates that participation in decisions that significantly affect control over their environment, by members of an organizational system, will result in a favorable organizational climate. This general working hypothesis is operationalized in the construction of six specific hypotheses designed to provide a basis for inter-school comparisons. The first section of this chapter presents the methods by which the data are analyzed, and the findings derived from the analysis. In the second section of the chapter a specific interpretation of the major findings is presented.

Data Analysis

This study is designed to determine if students, teachers and administrators in innovative schools perceive their school's organizational climate and organizational control differently than their counterparts in noninnovative schools. The first two hypotheses are constructed to permit a comparison between high schools which have introduced innovative organizational practices and high schools which have not introduced innovative organizational practices. The second two hypotheses are formulated to ascertain if students and teachers in high schools with innovative organizational pra-

tices will perceive they have more control over curriculum and practices of their high school than their counterparts in high schools without innovative practices. Hypotheses V and VI are formulated to ascertain if students and teachers in high schools with innovative organizational changes will perceive their organizations as having a larger total amount of control than will their counterparts in noninnovative high schools.

In the analysis of data generated from the Likert Profile of Organizational Characteristics, (LPOC) and the Tannenbaum Organizational Control Instrument (TOCI) the results are transformed into means.

In the analysis of the results of both instruments, the hypothesis will be stated in null terms, that is, there is no significant difference between populations. The null hypothesis postulates that two or more samples have come from statistically identical populations. Therefore, any observed difference between samples is due to chance. The null hypothesis is formulated to be rejected or nullified. This study's hypotheses become tenable only to the extent that the null hypothesis, for each case, has been discredited.

Since the focus of this study, regarding measuring organizational climate, and control is based on testing the difference between means, the t-test for differences between means is used. The probability of falsely rejecting a true null hypothesis was set at the .05 level of significance for both instruments.

Since previous research strongly supports the hypothesis that meaningful participation in the decision making process, by members of an organization, leads to more favorable perceptions of the organization's climate. by these members, direction is predicted by the hypothesis in this study. Because direction is predicted, the appropriate test of significance is a one-tailed test of significance. Therefore, all the tests of significance used in this study are one-tailed tests.

The t -test⁸¹ assumes normality in the distribution of the variables sampled, independent random samples, and homogeneity of variance. Normality and homogeneity have been shown not to be critical assumptions.⁸² A visual examination of the variances, as can be seen in the tables presented below, clearly indicates that the ratios of the variances, for nearly all the tests, are only slightly greater than one.⁸³ Obviously the samples

⁸¹Because the N's of each sample are different for each comparison, the following formula is used for determining t :

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_A - \bar{X}_B}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{\sum (X_A - \bar{X}_A)^2 + \sum (X_B - \bar{X}_B)^2}{(N_A + N_B - 2)} \right) \left(\frac{1}{N_A} + \frac{1}{N_B} \right)}}$$

⁸²See: Albert H. Bowker and Gerald J. Lieberman, Engineering Statistics (Prentice-Hall Inc.; Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1959), p. 167.

⁸³G. E. P. Box, "Non-Homogeneity and Tests of Variance," Biometrika, XL (1953), 318-335.

used in this study are not random, and generalizations from the sample to the general population should be made only with reference to this limitation.

Hypothesis Testing

In this section the results of the tests of the hypothesis are presented. The hypotheses are presented and then restated in null terms in order to accept or reject them by statistical test.

Hypothesis I. Students in high schools with innovative organizational practices will perceive themselves as having more favorable organizational climate than students in high schools without innovative organizational practices.

Hypothesis II. Teachers in high schools with innovative organizational practices will perceive themselves as having more favorable organizational climate than teachers in high schools without innovative organizational practices.

Presentation of Data. It has been postulated that there is a positive relationship between high schools with innovative organizational changes and the way students and teachers in high schools with innovative organizational changes perceive the organizational climate of their school. It is therefore expected that students and teachers in high schools with innovative organizational changes will perceive their organizational climate to be more favorable than will their counterparts in noninnovative

schools. In order to ascertain the relative extent to which students and teachers in the two different sets of schools perceive their organizational climates, it is necessary to compare their means statistically.

Null Hypotheses

Hypotheses I and II, presented above, are restated in null or contradictory terms in order that a statistical test can be applied to the means of the instruments administered to the two sets of respondents.

Null Hypothesis I. There will be no difference between the means, as measured by the Likert Profile of Organizational Characteristics, of students in high schools with innovative organizational practices and high schools without innovative organizational practices.

Null Hypothesis II. There will be no difference between the means, as measured by the Likert Profile of Organizational Characteristics, of teachers in high schools with innovative organizational practices and high schools without innovative organizational practices.

Presentation of Data. Hypotheses I and II are concerned with the way those people who interact in a school perceive their organizational climates. Because each of the groups sampled (i.e. students, teachers, principals, and superintendents) had a different questionnaire, it was necessary to determine which questions on each instrument sought the same information from

each questionnaire. Each group's questionnaire had the same basic questions, but the questions were worded from a particular group's point of view or perspective. (For example, the following questions for each group measure the "Interaction Influence Processes:" superintendent questionnaire, questions 27, 28, 29, 30; principal questionnaire, questions 24, 25, 38, 39, 47; teacher questionnaire, questions 17, 30, 31, 47, 48; student questionnaire, questions 24, 25, 26.)⁸⁴

According to Likert the six functions found in any organization are: (1) Leadership Processes, (2) Motivational Forces, (3) Communication Processes, (4) Interaction-Influence Processes, (5) Decision-Making Processes, and (6) Goal Setting Processes.⁸⁵ These systems are measured on a continuum from one through twenty, with the "exploitive authoritative system" on the lower end and the "participative group system" on the higher end, with other two systems between them in relative positions on the continuum. Aggregate means from each of the six functions placed on the continuum determine the climate for each group of respondents.

Presentation of Findings. The data in Table 1 tend to support statistically the hypothesis that students interacting in schools with organizational innovations will perceive their organization to have a more favorable climate than their counter-

⁸⁴See page 106 for list of questions determining functions.

⁸⁵Likert, op. cit., p. 6.

TABLE 1

A COMPARISON OF INNOVATIVE AND NONINNOVATIVE
STUDENTS' MEAN SCORES ON THE LIKERT PROFILE OF
ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Organizational Processes or Forces	Innovative Students N=306 Mean	S_d d_a	Noninnovative Students N=293 Mean	S_d d_b	\bar{d}	S_d d_p Pooled Deviation	t-Statistic	Level of Significance*
Leadership	9.60	2.77	9.03	2.49	.57	.215	2.67	.0025
Motivational	10.75	3.92	9.34	3.86	1.41	.317	4.41	.00025
Communication	9.50	3.48	8.49	2.99	1.01	.265	3.81	.00025
Interaction-Influence	9.28	4.95	8.26	4.16	1.02	.372	2.72	.0025
Decision Making	14.01	2.38	13.12	2.32	.89	.265	4.63	.00025
Goal Setting	13.00	4.58	12.06	4.83	.94	.383	2.43	.005
Total	11.08	2.33	10.26	2.04	.82	.178	4.59	.00025

*one-tailed test of significance

TABLE 2
A COMPARISON OF INNOVATIVE AND NONINNOVATIVE
TEACHERS' MEAN SCORES ON THE LIKERT PROFILE OF
ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Organizational Processes or Forces	Innovative Teachers N=101 Mean	S _d _a	Noninnovative Teachers N=78 Mean	S _d _b	\bar{d}	S _d _p Pooled Deviation	t-Statistic	Level of Significance*
Leadership	12.14	2.25	12.09	2.28	.05	.341	.14	n.s.
Motivational	13.34	2.08	12.50	2.13	.84	.317	2.65	.0025
Communication	12.24	2.79	12.82	2.48	-.58	.400	-1.44	n.s.
Interaction-Influence	13.67	2.43	13.65	2.46	.02	.370	.06	n.s.
Decision Making	13.12	2.25	12.17	2.17	.95	.334	2.87	.0025
Goal Setting	13.90	3.69	10.97	5.20	2.93	.666	4.40	.00025
Total	12.76	2.07	12.47	1.97	.29	.307	.95	n.s.

*one-tailed test of significance

TABLE 3

A COMPARISON OF RESPONDENTS' MEAN SCORES ON THE
LIKERT PROFILE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Respondent	Innovative School		\bar{d}	Noninnovative School	
	Mean	(N)		Mean	(N)
Superintendent	15.60	(5)	1.46	14.14	(5)
Principal	14.09	(9)	1.21	12.88	(10)
Teacher	12.76	(101)	.25	12.47	(78)
Student	11.08	(306)	.82	10.26	(293)

parts interacting in schools without organizational innovations. That is, the null hypothesis predicting there is no difference between the means of students in the two types of organizations, is rejected.

The data in Table 2, however, do not support statistically the hypothesis that teachers interacting in schools with organizational innovations will perceive their organizations to have a more favorable climate than their counterparts interacting in schools without organizational innovations. That is, the null hypothesis predicting there is no difference between the means of teachers in the two types of organizations is accepted.

Although there were too few superintendents and principals sampled to draw a significant statistical t-test comparison between the means of each set of schools, there is a definite pattern reflected in Table 3 which depicts the lower in the

TABLE 4

A COMPARISON OF INNOVATIVE AND NONINNOVATIVE
PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERINTENDENTS' MEAN SCORES ON
THE LIKERT PROFILE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Organizational Processes or Forces	Innovative Principals N=9	Noninnovative Principals N=10	\bar{d}	Innovative Superintendents N=5	Noninnovative Superintendents N=5	\bar{d}
Leadership	13.29	12.51	.78	15.67	13.92	1.65
Motivation	14.38	13.15	1.23	16.33	14.67	1.66
Communication	14.17	12.99	1.18	15.20	13.43	1.77
Interaction- Influence	14.06	13.30	1.76	15.20	13.95	1.25
Decision Making	14.02	12.57	1.45	15.10	14.27	1.83
Goal Setting	14.63	12.73	1.90	16.10	14.60	1.50
Total	14.09	12.88	1.21	15.60	14.14	1.46

FIGURE 1

GRAPHIC PROFILE OF INNOVATIVE AND NONINNOVATIVE STUDENTS' AND TEACHERS' MEAN SCORES ON LIKERT'S PROFILE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

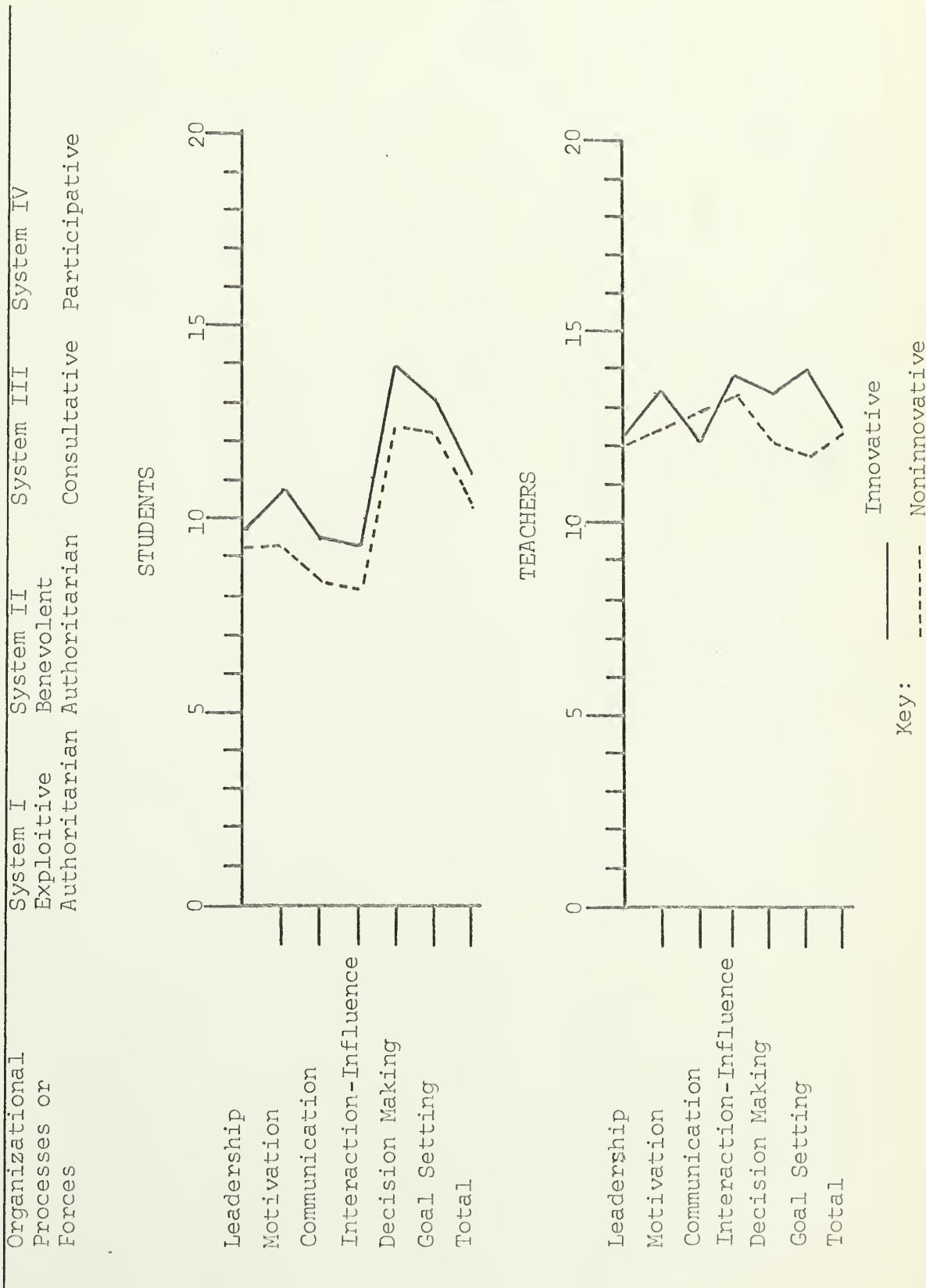
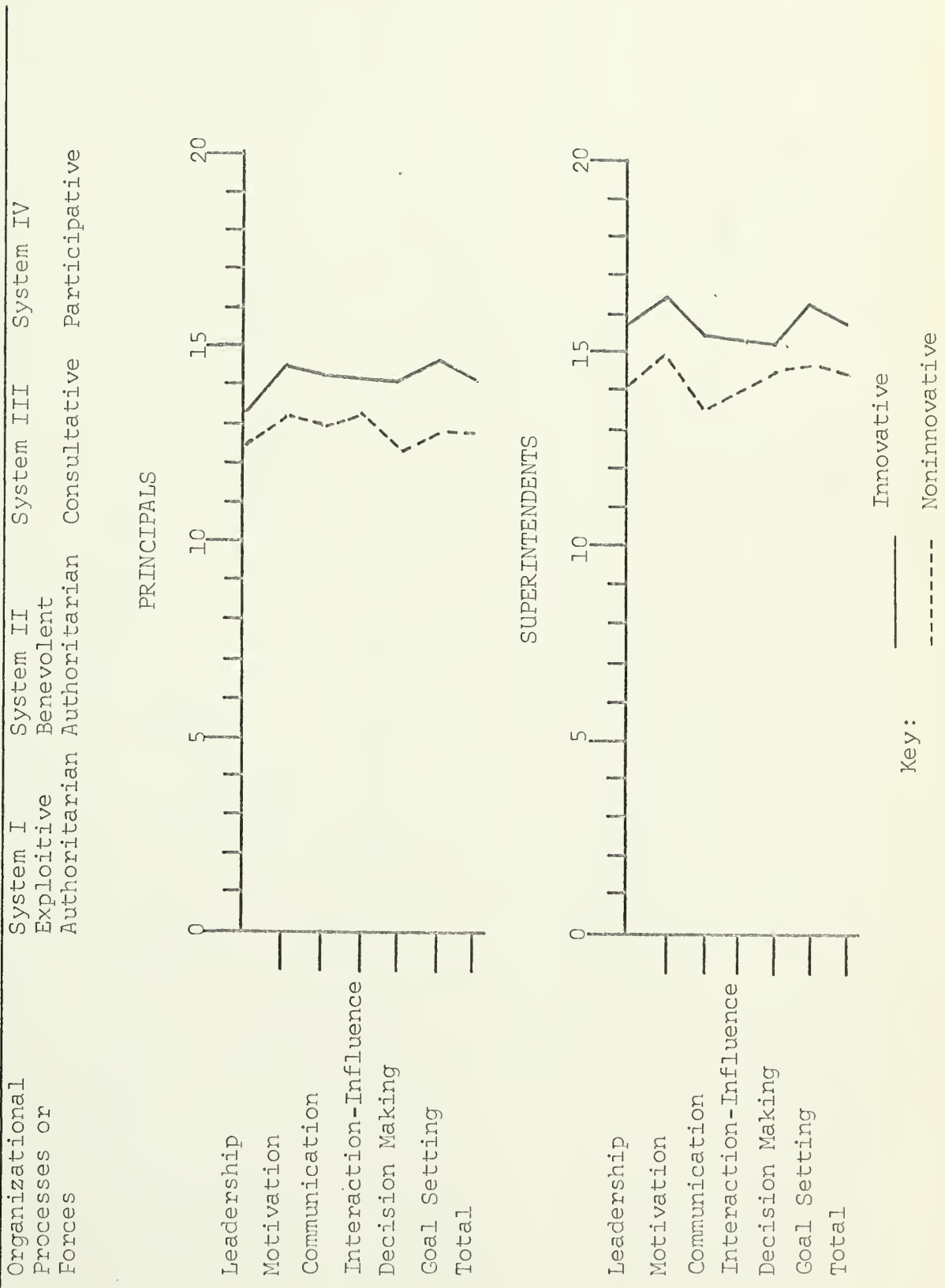


FIGURE 2

GRAPHIC PROFILE OF INNOVATIVE AND NONINNOVATIVE PRINCIPALS' AND SUPERINTENDENTS' MEAN SCORES ON LIKERT'S PROFILE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS



hierarchy one finds himself the more unfavorably he perceives the climate of the organization. Superintendents perceive the organization as having a more favorable climate than principals, principals perceived the organization as having a more favorable climate than teachers, and teachers perceived the organization as having more favorable climate than students. Figures 1 and 2 depict the aggregate means of all respondents for each set of schools and reflect in graphical form the data presented in Tables 1, 2, 3 and 4.

Hypothesis III. Students in high schools with innovative organizational practices will perceive they have more control over policies and practices than their counterparts in high schools without innovative organizational practices.

Hypothesis IV. Teachers in high schools with innovative organizational practices will perceive they have more control over policies and practices than their counterparts in high schools without innovative organizational practices.

Presentation of Data. It has been postulated that students and teachers in high schools with innovative organizational practices perceive they have more control over school policies and practices than their counterparts in schools without innovative organizational practices. In order to ascertain the relative extent to which students and teachers in the two different sets of schools perceive their control over policies and practices, it is necessary to compare the aggregate means of their scores on the Tannenbaum Organizational Control Instrument.

Null Hypotheses

Hypothesis III and IV, presented above, are restated in null or contradictory terms in order that a statistical test can be applied to the means of the instruments administered to the two sets of respondents.

Null Hypothesis III. There will be no difference between the means, as measured by the Tannenbaum Organizational Control Instrument, of students in high schools with innovative organizational changes and high schools without innovative organizational changes.

Null Hypothesis IV. There will be no difference between the means, as measured by the Tannenbaum Organizational Control Instrument, of teachers in high schools with innovative organizational changes and high schools without organizational changes.

Presentation of Findings. As with the first two hypotheses, Hypotheses III and IV are restated above in null terms in order to ascertain if the difference in means can be attributable to different types of organizational changes or is merely due to chance sampling variation, with respect to the respondents' perceptions of control. The data in Tables 5 and 6 present the results of the testing of the hypotheses, and are depicted graphically in Figures 3 and 4 respectively. The data from Tannenbaum's Organizational Control Instrument tend to support Hypotheses III and IV with respect to the perceptions of students and teachers in innovative schools perception of

control in their organizations as compared with each group's counterpart in the noninnovative schools. Therefore Null Hypotheses III and IV, predicting there are no differences between the means of students in innovative and noninnovative schools and between the means of teachers in innovative and non-innovative schools, are rejected.

Hypothesis V. Students in high schools with innovative organizational changes will perceive their organization as having a greater total amount of control than will their counterpart in high schools without innovative organizational changes.

Hypothesis VI. Teachers in high schools with innovative organizational changes will perceive their organization as having a greater total amount of control than will their counterpart in high schools without innovative organizational changes.

Presentation of Data. Tannenbaum states, "Anything that enhances members' personal commitment to or identification with the organization is implicitly including them more fully within the organization and hence is increasing the possibility of an expanded total amount of control."⁸⁶ Using this as a premise, Hypotheses V and VI assume that an innovative school will provide its people greater participation in decisions affecting them at the lower levels of the hierarchy and, therefore, supplement the control held by those at the upper levels of the hierarchy, giving the innovative organization a greater total amount of

⁸⁶Tannenbaum, op. cit., p. 16.

control than a noninnovative organization. It is, therefore, predicted that innovative schools will have more total control than will noninnovative schools. In order to ascertain the relative differences in control perceived by student and teacher respondents in each set of schools, it is necessary to compare their aggregate means statistically with the t-test.

Null Hypotheses

Hypotheses V and VI presented above are restated in null or contradictory terms in order that a statistical test can be applied to the means of the instruments administered to the two sets of respondents.

Null Hypothesis V. There will be no difference between the aggregate means, as measured by the Tannenbaum Organizational Control Instrument, of students in high schools with innovative organizational changes and high schools without innovative organizational changes.

Null Hypothesis VI. There will be no difference between the aggregate means, as measured by the Tannenbaum Organizational Control Instrument, of teachers in high schools with innovative organizational changes and high schools without innovative organizational changes.

Presentation of Findings. The data in Table 5, 6 and 7 and Figure 5 tend to support the contention of Hypotheses V and VI. The data are interpreted as indicating that there are significant differences between the mean scores of both groups, and

there is more total control in innovative high schools than in noninnovative high schools, therefore, Null Hypotheses V and VI are rejected.

TABLE 5

A COMPARISON OF INNOVATIVE AND NONINNOVATIVE
STUDENTS' MEAN SCORES ON THE TANNENBAUM
ORGANIZATIONAL CONTROL INSTRUMENT

Hierarchical Levels Controlled	Innovative Students N=306 Mean	S_{d_a}	Nonin- novative Students N=293 Mean	S_{d_b}	\bar{d}	S_{d_p} Pooled Deviation	t-Statistic	Level of Signif- icance*
School Board	3.90	1.11	3.96	1.09	-.06	.090	-.75	n.s.
Superintendent	3.54	1.07	3.59	1.11	-.04	.089	-.58	n.s.
Principal	3.55	1.02	3.42	.95	.13	.081	1.64	<.05
Teachers	2.96	.95	2.88	.86	.08	.074	1.03	n.s.
Parents	2.53	1.07	2.40	1.06	.13	.086	1.57	n.s.
Students	2.90	1.23	2.41	1.13	.49	.096	4.99	<.0025

*one-tailed test of significance

TABLE 6

A COMPARISON OF INNOVATIVE AND NONINNOVATIVE
TEACHERS' MEAN SCORES ON THE TANNENBAUM
ORGANIZATIONAL CONTROL INSTRUMENT

Hierarchical Levels Controlled	Innovative Teachers N=101 Mean	Innovative Teachers N=78 Mean	S_{d_a}	S_{d_b}	\bar{d}	S_{d_p} Pooled Deviation	t-Statistic	Level of Significance*
School Board	3.87	4.09	.93	.87	-.22	.137	-1.60	n.s.
Superintendent	4.18	3.77	.86	.84	.41	.128	3.18	<.0005
Principal	3.74	3.54	.99	.78	.20	.136	1.50	n.s.
Teachers	3.40	2.96	.84	.97	.44	.136	3.21	<.0025
Parents	2.77	2.46	.89	.98	.31	.140	2.22	<.025
Students	3.03	2.17	.97	.95	.86	.145	5.95	<.00025

*one-tailed test of significance

TABLE 7

A COMPARISON OF INNOVATIVE AND NONINNOVATIVE
COMBINED RESPONDENTS' MEAN SCORES ON THE
TANNENBAUM ORGANIZATIONAL CONTROL INSTRUMENT

Category	Innovative Mean N=421	S_{d_a}	Nonin- novative Mean N=386	S_{d_b}	\bar{d}	S_{d_p} Pooled Deviation	t-Statistic	Level of Signif- icance*
School Board	3.89	1.06	3.99	1.04	-.10	.740	-1.35	n.s.
Superintendent	3.71	1.06	3.65	1.05	-.06	.740	0.81	n.s.
Principal	3.63	1.02	3.45	.91	.18	.684	2.62	<.0025
Teachers (as a group)	3.08	.95	2.91	.89	.17	.648	2.65	<.0025
Parents (as a group)	2.59	1.02	2.41	1.03	.18	.719	2.49	<.005
Students (as a group)	2.93	1.16	2.36	1.09	.63	.797	7.19	<.00025

*one-tailed test of significance

FIGURE 3

A COMPARISON OF INNOVATIVE AND NONINNOVATIVE STUDENTS' MEAN SCORES ON THE TANNENBAUM ORGANIZATIONAL CONTROL INSTRUMENTS

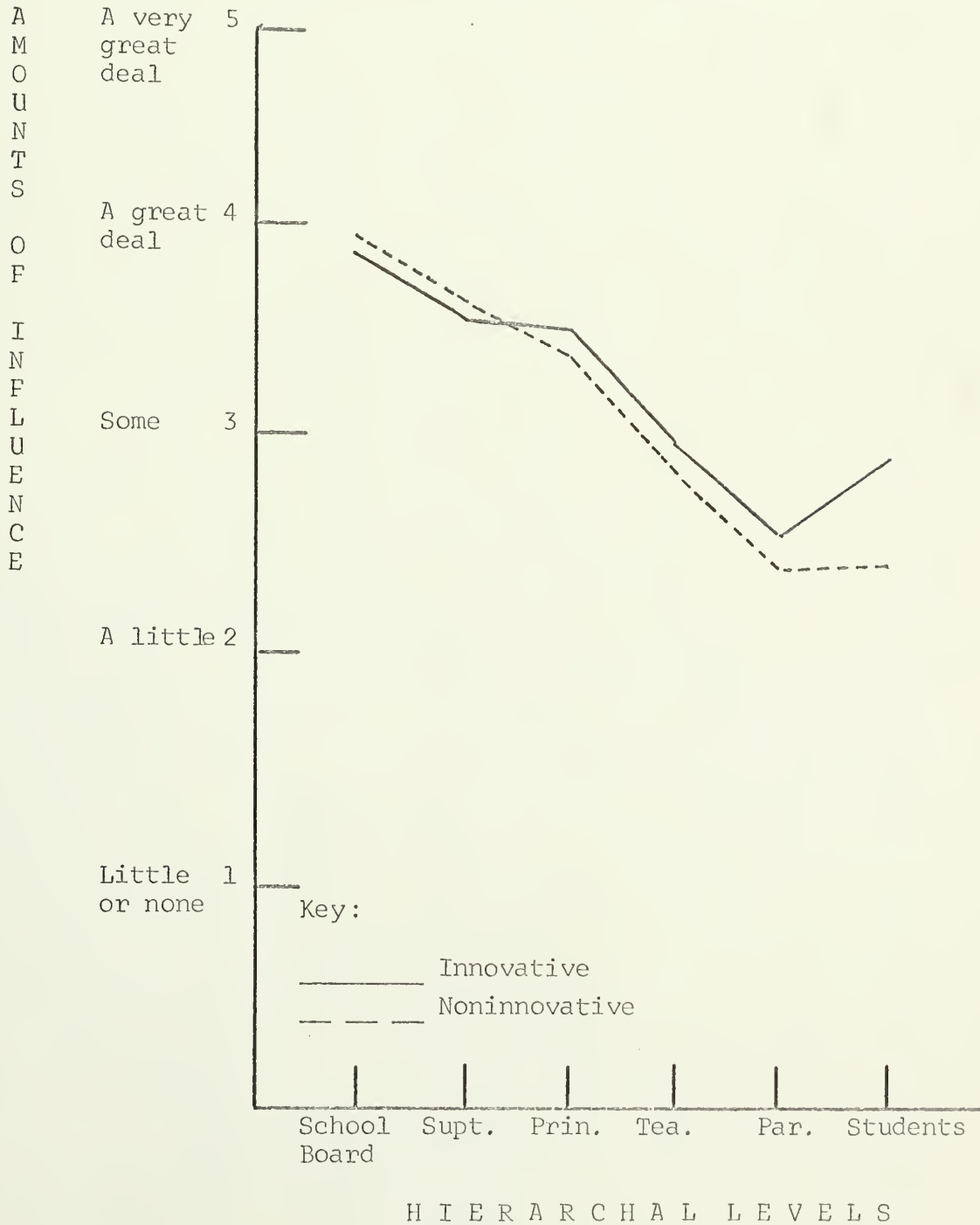


FIGURE 4

A COMPARISON OF INNOVATIVE AND NONINNOVATIVE TEACHERS' MEAN SCORES ON THE TANNENBAUM ORGANIZATIONAL CONTROL INSTRUMENT

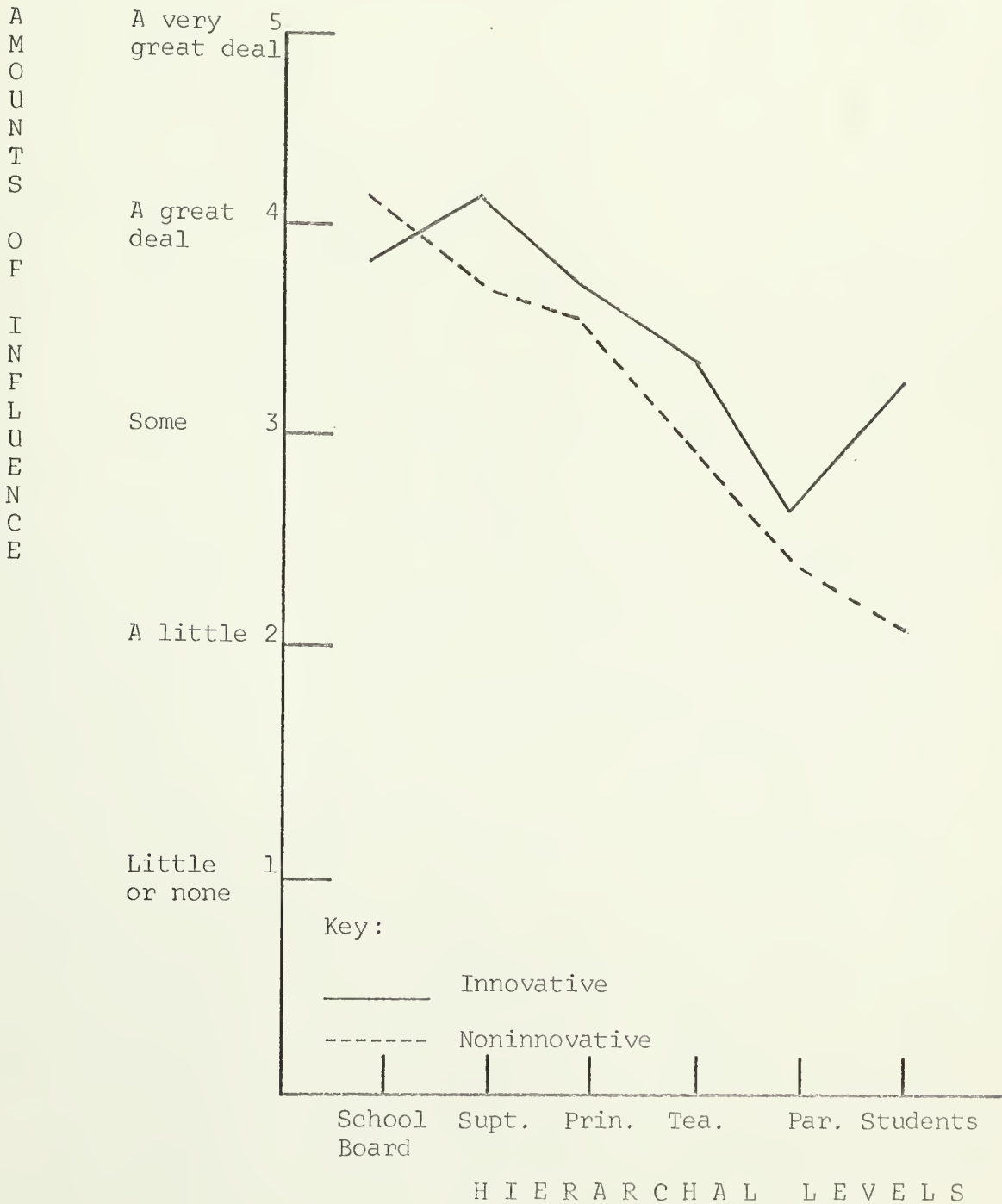
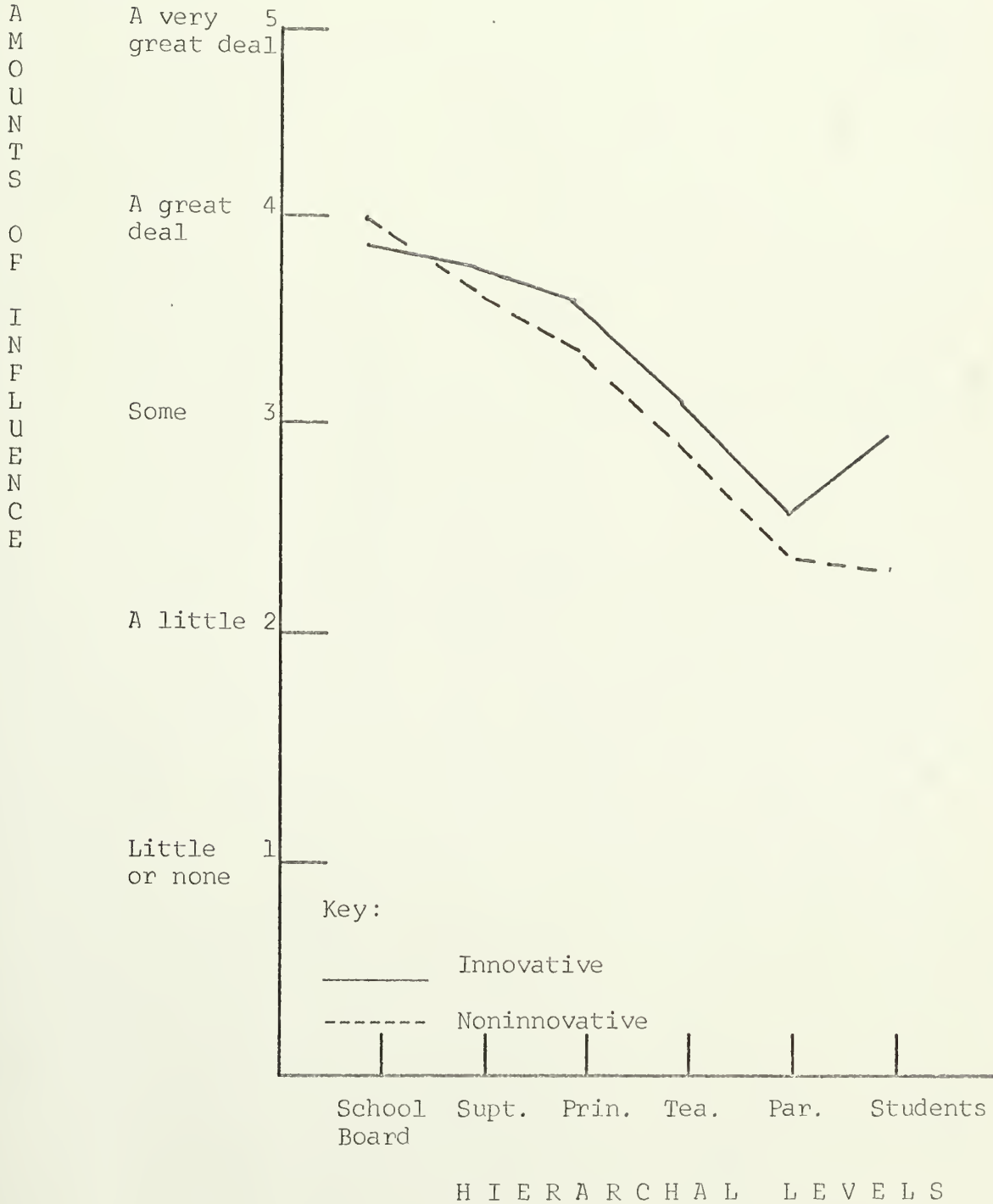


FIGURE 5

CONTROL CURVES BASED UPON MEAN AGGREGATE SCORES OF ALL RESPONDENTS IN INNOVATIVE AND NONINNOVATIVE SCHOOLS



Interpretation of the Findings

In this section the findings are discussed. A specific interpretation of the major findings is presented on the basis of deductions from theories discussed in Chapters I and II, and elaborated upon with empirical evidence gained through the collection and analysis of data for this study and upon subjective evidence in the form of insights developed from interpretation of this data.

The general working hypothesis of this study postulates that participation in decisions that significantly affect control over their environment by members of an organizational system will result in perceptions of more favorable organizational climate. Theory and research indicate that innovations in educational organizations require the participation of most of the members of the system. If the relationship suggested by the general working hypothesis is true, it would be expected that members of the innovative educational systems would perceive their organizational climate to be more favorable and their control over policies and practices greater than their counterparts in noninnovative educational systems. The findings of the first hypothesis support statistically the contention that students in the innovative educational system would perceive their organizational climate to be more favorable than their counterparts in noninnovative educational systems, as reflected in Tables 1, 2 and 3 and graphically in Figures 1 and 2. Although these data support statistically the first hypothesis, it

must be remembered that any difference will be statistically significant if the N is sufficiently large. Statistical difference is quite different from practical significance. Jurgenson states:

Although practical significance requires statistical significance, many differences are statistically significant but have no practical importance whatsoever. The difference between statistical and practical significance does not appear to have been given sufficient emphasis in texts. In the middle ages, some philosophers disputed with great solemnity in regard to the number of angels which could stand on the head of a pin. In the middle of the twentieth century some statisticians are engaged in what amounts to almost the same kind of disputation in which microscopic differences are accepted as important if they meet some arbitrary criterion of significance at the one per cent, the two per cent or the five per cent level. In other words, there is 'much ado about nothing'.⁸⁷

The largest difference between means in Table 1 is 1.41. This amount on a scale of twenty is obviously a very small difference, and its practical significance is consequently doubtful, even though it is statistically significant beyond the .00025 level. The statistical significance is most probably due to an N of 609 rather than a practical significant difference in perception by students of the organizational climate of their high schools.

The findings of the second hypothesis do not support statistically the contention that innovative teachers will perceive their organizations to have more favorable organizational climates than their counterparts in noninnovative high schools.

⁸⁷C. E. Jurgenson, "Note on Ely's, 'Effect of Various Methods Upon Test Reliability'", Journal of Applied Psychology, XXXV, No. 3 (June, 1951), 39.

Table 2 and Figure 1 reflect these results.

Table 3 illustrates a finding which is noteworthy, even though there were too few superintendents and principals sampled for a significant statistical comparison between the means of the sets of groups. Both sets of groups indicated that the higher one finds himself in the hierarchy the more favorably he views the climate of the organization. Accordingly, the communication processes' scores decrease for each group, except for noninnovative teachers, as the level of the hierarchy decreases. This might be interpreted as meaning that superintendents, principals and teachers, because of progressively poorer communications, do not get as accurate an impression of the school's organizational climate as the students. This was true of both sets of schools. This, too, tends to support Hypothesis I.

This, notwithstanding, because Likert's Profile of Organizational Characteristics is separated into increments of one, on a continuum from one through twenty with more favorable organizational climate systems fusing along the continuum every fifth increment, (See Figure 2) both groups perceive their organizational climate to be consultative. Even though there are fewer than two points between the two means, because of the large sample number there is a statistically significant difference between them. However, since neither innovative or noninnovative students' nor teachers' total mean scores fell into different organizational systems and neither groups had more than 1.41 difference on the continuum, the overall findings tend to refute the expectations

of the first and second hypotheses because the data are not practically significant.

Hypotheses III and IV postulated that students and teachers in high schools with innovative organizational changes would perceive they had more control over policies and practices than would their counterparts in noninnovative schools. The data reflected in Tables 5 and 6 offer support for these hypotheses. There were only two t 's significant beyond the .05 level in Table 5; the one regarding students is the most meaningful. The difference in means between the students in the two sets of schools was the most meaningful because it elucidates the greatest difference between the groups, which supports Hypothesis III.

Students in innovative high schools perceived themselves as having a mean score of 2.90, while their counterparts in noninnovative schools perceived themselves as having a mean score of 2.41. The difference between the means is significant beyond the .00025 level. Students in innovative schools perceived principals, teachers, parents and themselves to have more control than did their counterparts in noninnovative schools. Noninnovative students perceived their school boards and superintendents to have more control than did the innovative students, which is reflected by negative t 's of $-.75$ and $-.58$ respectively. Negative t 's could be expected in such a situation. Individuals in an organization with a narrow base of authority would probably perceive the top echelons of the hierarchy as having more power than individuals in an organization with broader based authority.

The data in Table 6 are supportive of the basic predictions of Hypothesis IV. Teachers in innovative schools perceived themselves as having more control than teachers in noninnovative schools. Their respective mean scores of 3.40 and 2.96 with a t of 3.21 is significant beyond .01 level. Innovative teachers perceived innovative students to have much more control than noninnovative teachers perceived noninnovative students as having. Their respective scores were 3.03 and 2.17 which is significant beyond the .00025 level. Noninnovative teachers perceived their school board as having more power, mean score 4.09 compared to 3.87, reflecting a negative t of -1.60, than did innovative teachers. Innovative teachers perceived all other groups as having more power, however, than did the noninnovative teachers.

"The total amount of power in a social system may grow, and leaders and followers may therefore, enhance their power jointly."⁸⁸ This concept of Tannenbaum's is the basis for Hypotheses V and VI of this study. The horizontal base of Figure 1 represents the hierarchical scale of the two sets of organizations used in this study; and the vertical axis represents the amount of control exercised by the respective groups. The two curves drawn on this graph represent the hierarchical distribution and amounts of control in each set of schools. The amounts of control for each group can be easily seen by comparing the distance from the base line to the curve. Both curves descend from the

⁸⁸Tannenbaum op. cit., p. 12.

upper levels to the lower levels of the organizational hierarchy. Although the two curves are almost in parallel descent until they reach the Parent level of the hierarchy, there is enough difference between them to warrant accepting Hypotheses V and VI even discounting the obvious difference between the student curves. The difference between the base lines of the students' curves in itself obviates the need for further justification of the theory that members of innovative school systems would perceive themselves as having more control than their counterparts in noninnovative schools.

The difference between mean scores, when comparing students of the two sets of schools, is significant beyond the .00025 level. The difference between mean scores, when comparing the teachers, is significant beyond the .0025 level. This finding is further supported in Figure 5 which reflects the total amount of control each complete set of respondents feels is exercised by each level of the organization. The differences in total amounts of control can be easily seen by comparing the space between the innovative and noninnovative curves in Figure 5. The amounts of control as perceived by all the respondents from each set of schools is almost parallel except for the great difference in perceptions of students in the two groups. The difference between the teachers, although not as great as the difference between the students, is the next greatest difference in mean scores among the respondents. Figure 5 illustrates the relative amounts of power or influence the innovative respondents felt innovative

students had as compared with the relative amounts of power of the noninnovative respondents. Innovative students were perceived as having more power (2.93) than noninnovative teachers (2.91).

In innovative schools teachers perceived students to have more control (3.03) than students perceived themselves as having (2.90). Innovative students were perceived as having more control over determining the policies and practices of their high school than their parents (2.59) and almost as much as their teachers. As would be expected, students (2.36) in noninnovative schools were perceived by noninnovative respondents as having less power than their parents, and a great deal less than their teachers (3.45). School boards (3.99) of noninnovative schools are perceived as having more total control by members of the noninnovative schools than are innovative school boards (3.89) by innovative school respondents. Although the difference in means is negative (t -1.47), it is quite meaningful. Members of organizations who perceive themselves as having little to say in decisions affecting them would generally tend to view the chief superordinate body as having the most influence or control over the organization.

Members of the innovative school systems perceived their superintendents to have more power than members of the noninnovative school systems, even though the difference was not statistically significant. The innovative respondents perceived themselves collectively as having more control over determining policies and practices of their schools than did the noninnovative

respondents collectively.

All innovative respondents perceived innovative principals, teachers, parents and students to have more power than all noninnovative respondents perceived noninnovative principals, teachers, parents and students. All of these differences were significant beyond the .005 level and therefore support Hypotheses V and VI.

C H A P T E R V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Thomas Jefferson, according to Conant was the first educational innovator. Conant believes the American public system of education is very unique and in many ways is a manifestation of Jefferson's beliefs about education.

Jefferson strongly believed in the importance of education in a participative democracy. This is exemplified in his letter to George Washington when he wrote: "It is an axiom in my mind that our liberty can never be safe but in the hands of the people themselves, and that too, of the people with a certain degree of instruction."⁸⁹

The United States' most famous educational philosopher, John Dewey, also believed in the necessity of active participation by the members of a democratic society. And, like Jefferson, he believed the members of a democracy must be educated.

John Dewey states:

The devotion of democracy to education is a familiar fact. The superficial explanation is that a government resting upon popular suffrage cannot be successful unless those who elect and who obey their governors are educated. Since a democratic society repudiates the principle of external authority, it must find a substitute in voluntary disposition and interest; these can be created only by education. But there is a deeper explanation. A democracy is more than a form of government; it is primarily a mode of associated living, of conjoint communicated experience. The

⁸⁹James B. Conant, Thomas Jefferson and the Development of American Public Education (Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1962), p. 39.

extension is space of the number of individuals who participate in an interest so that each has to refer his own action to that of others, and to consider the action of others to give point and direction to his own, is equivalent to the breaking down of those barriers of class, race and national territory which kept men from perceiving the full import of their activity. These more numerous and more varied points of contact denote a greater diversity of stimuli to which an individual has to respond; they consequently put a premium on variation in his action. They secure a liberation of powers which remain suppressed as long as the incitations to action are partial, as they must be in a group which in its exclusiveness shuts out many interests.⁹⁰

If democracy is to be a concomitant concept taught to students attending America's schools, these schools should be democratic and should allow those people who are interacting within these educational organizations an opportunity to actively participate in the operation of these schools. Today, students and teachers, especially at the college and university levels are demanding the right to participate through peaceful and sometimes violent demonstrations. Therefore, it is imperative that high school administrators provide favorable organizational climates which encourage active participation by the students and teachers in decisions affecting them.

This study, although exploratory, hopefully will add some light to the as yet relatively unexplored subject of democratic participation in America's public high schools.

⁹⁰John Dewey, Democracy and Education: An Introduction to the Philosophy of Education (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1916), p. 101.

Conclusions

The purpose of this study is to investigate and compare students', teachers', principals', and administrators' perceptions of organizational climate in five innovative and five noninnovative high schools in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. The investigation of this relationship is based upon the general working hypothesis that participation in decisions that significantly affect control over their environment, by members of an organizational system, will result in favorable organizational climate. This general working hypothesis is operationalized in the construction of six hypotheses. The data for testing these hypotheses were gathered through the use of two types of questionnaires designed to measure how individuals functioning in two sets of schools perceive organizational climate and organizational control.

Theory and research indicate that organizational innovations in schools require the participation of most members of the system. If participation in decisions that significantly affect control over their environment by members of an organizational system will result in a more favorable climate, and if innovative schools do in fact foster greater participation as many experts in educational innovations espouse, then innovative schools should have more favorable climates than noninnovative schools.

The first two hypotheses were designed to determine if

senior class students and teachers in public high schools with innovative organizational practices would perceive their school as having a more favorable organizational climate than their counterparts in public high schools without innovative organizational climate.

The results of the testing of the two hypotheses provides a basis for rejecting them. Although there was a significant statistical difference between the means of students in innovative high schools and students in noninnovative high schools, the difference between the means was not considered to be of practical significance due to a difference of only 1.41 on a continuum from one through twenty. Data from teachers in innovative schools and data from teachers in noninnovative schools did not have a statistically significant difference between means and therefore the major hypothesis is rejected.

Studies⁹¹ have shown that when the memberships of industrial organizations actively participate in decisions affecting their work, production has increased, morale has improved, absenteeism has decreased and employee turnover has decreased. The work of teachers is teaching; the work of students is learning. Their products are teaching-learning processes. It seems reasonable to assume that the teaching-learning processes would improve, morale would improve, student and teacher absenteeism would decrease and student drop-out rates would decrease in

⁹¹Marrow, Bowers, and Seashore, op. cit.

educational organizations which allowed these groups to actively participate in decisions affecting their work. Therefore, the major conclusion of this study is that the existence of innovations, as defined for purposes of this study, do not in themselves foster participation. As Coch and French⁹² discovered in their studies of the Harwood Manufacturing Company's organization, true participation must come from the membership. Probably the only way innovations will improve the organizational climates of high schools is when teachers and students play an active role in the selection and implementation of these innovations. When innovations which have been cooperatively planned and designed to fill particular needs in one school are transplanted into another school with different needs, the second school will not necessarily reap the same benefits from these innovations. If school administrators want to improve organizational climate, they should insure that their staffs and students actively participate in the selection and implementation of innovations.

The four subsidiary hypotheses of this study tend to support the general working hypothesis that there is a positive relationship between organizations with innovations and favorable organizational climate and control.

Hypotheses III and IV attempt to determine if senior class students and teachers in public high schools with innovative organizational practices will perceive themselves as having

⁹²Coch and French, op. cit.

more control over determining policies and practices of their high school than their counterparts in public high schools without innovative organizational practices.

Students and teachers in innovative schools felt they had more control over policies and practices of their high schools than their counterparts in noninnovative schools. Although there is a significant statistical difference between the means of teachers in the two sets of schools, it is slight and may not be practically significant. There appears to be a statistical as well as a practical difference between the means of the student groups, but when the slopes of the control curves are compared there is very little difference between them. This would tend to support the theory that the innovations used by schools in this study do not in fact promote participation. Possibly this is the case because innovations are imposed by school administrators rather than jointly accepted by all staff members and students.

The findings of this study, although mixed, point out the tendency for the high school senior class students and the teachers, in both innovative and noninnovative schools, to perceive their organizations as being basically "oligarchic"⁹³ structures. This is graphically illustrated in Figures 3 and 4. The curves depicted in these graphs fall from the "x" amounts of Influence Axis towards the "y" Hierarchical Levels Axis.⁹⁴ If

⁹³Tannenbaum, op. cit., p. 13.

⁹⁴Ibid.

the organizations were perceived as being "democratic"⁹⁵ by these respondents, the curves would move toward a zero slope. Perhaps this finding can be interpreted as meaning that superordinates in both sets of schools, and especially in innovative schools, pay more lip service to allowing participation in important decisions affecting students and teachers than they actually allow. Active participation is required before subordinates will feel they are working in a democratic participative organization.

It seems somewhat incongruous that high school senior class students and teachers in innovative and noninnovative schools would not perceive a greater difference in climates of their organizations but would perceive a statistical as well as a practical difference in the amounts of control in their organizations. Probably this can be explained by the relative difference in expectations each group would have as they gain more control. Innovative teachers and students as they gain more control could perceive themselves as having very little, but in fact, if they were to compare themselves with their counterparts in noninnovative schools, they would probably find that, relatively, they have much more control. In other words, once an individual gains some control over finding self-actualization in an organization he still desires more, and therefore, this need for control is insatiable. Maslow's⁹⁶ taxonomy of basic

⁹⁵Ibid.

⁹⁶A. H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality (New York: Harper & Bros., 1954).

needs proposes a similar theory, but he does not specifically allude to an individual's need for control in an organizational context.

The fifth and sixth hypotheses attempt to determine if senior class students and teachers in high schools with innovative organizational practices will perceive their organization as having a greater total amount of control than their counterparts in public high schools without innovative organizational practices.

The data compared in Table 7 and illustrated in Figure 5 lead to the conclusion that there definitely is a great deal of difference between the way all respondents in innovative schools perceive the amount of control innovative senior students have as compared with the way all respondents in noninnovative schools perceive the amount of control noninnovative senior students have. This data is probably the most significant in the study because it demonstrates that the people interacting in the innovative schools sampled are doing something to improve the way teachers and students perceive their control which is apparently not being done in the noninnovative schools. The enigma shrouding these unknown factors will not be solved without much more empirical research.

Recommendations

The results of this study should be of particular interest to school administrators who want to act as the change

agents of their schools. Schools with more favorable organizational climates would appear to be more susceptible to further change. According to Coffey and Golden:

(a) When the leadership is democratic and the group members have freedom to participate in the decision-making process; (b) when there have been norms established which make social change an expected aspect of institutional growth; (c) when change can be brought about without jeopardizing the individual's membership in the group; (d) when the group concerned has a strong sense of belongingness when it is concerned with satisfying member needs; (e) when group members actually participate in the leadership function, help formulate goals, plan the steps toward goal realization, and participate in the evaluation of these aspects of leadership; (f) when the level of cohesion permits members of the group to express themselves freely and to test new roles by trying out new behaviors and attitudes without being threatened by real consequence.⁹⁷

Any school administrator could use the Likert instrument before and after an organizational change to determine if the change affected the organizational climate and/or control of the school.

Since there appears to be a significant difference between the amounts of control as each set of respondents perceive their particular organization, especially for students, one recommendation for administrators, who believe in operating a democratic organization, would be for them to exert conscientious effort in order to pass authority to the lowest level of the organization. This would allow students to play an active role in making decisions which affect them. This is not an easy

⁹⁷Coffey and Golden, op. cit., p. 1.

thing to do but it is imperative if an administrator sincerely wants a truly democratic school.

Suggestions for Further Research

As with much research undertaken in the field of organizational behavior, this study has raised many more questions than it has answered. Five major areas in which research is feasible are discussed below.

1. More rigorous research design is needed in similar studies to determine what innovative organizational changes encourage the most participation and the most favorable organizational climate.

2. This thesis does not give any final answers, but it does lead to the way into the extremely important relatively heretofore unexplored areas of the relationships between organizational climate and innovations. There is great need for this study to be replicated in other geographical and demographical areas in order that the data can be used by Likert to establish regional and national norms.

3. The ability to make meaningful comparisons of the relationships between the independent variable, organizational climate, and the dependent variables of innovations and participation is limited because so few studies have investigated them, especially in educational organizations. There is a great need for other studies using different research designs to investigate these relationships.

4. One of the major interpretations of the findings of this study was that innovations in themselves do not appear to foster participation and improve teachers' and students' perceptions of organizational climate. Another study which would compare the differences between students' and teachers' perceptions of organizational climate in both schools which allowed these groups to participate in the selection and implementation of innovations and in schools where they were not allowed to participate could either validate or invalidate the findings of this study.

5. There is a continuing trend for teachers to join collective bargaining units, a trend which appears likely to continue. The affects collective bargaining units have upon teachers' perceptions of organizational climate and control are unknown. A study investigating the following question would prove enlightening. If teachers join strong bargaining units to increase their opportunity to participate in decisions affecting their work, will these teachers perceive the organizational climates and control of their bargaining units to be more favorable than their counterparts in weak bargaining units?

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APPENDIX A

ORGANIZATIONAL FUNCTIONS BY QUESTION ON LIKERT'S PROFILE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE*

Leadership Processes

Superintendent Questionnaire

1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 37

Principal Questionnaire

1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 10, 11, 12, 13, 32, 33, 34, 40, 41, 42

Teacher Questionnaire

1, 2, 3, 4, 8, 9, 21, 24, 25, 32, 33, 36, 37, 38, 39

Student Questionnaire

1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 13, 14, 16, 17, 22, 23

Motivation Processes

Superintendent Questionnaire

18, 23, 24, 31, 39, 40

Principal Questionnaire

18, 26, 48, 49

Teacher Questionnaire

12, 13, 18, 22, 23, 26, 41, 49

Student Questionnaire

27, 28

Communication Processes

Superintendent Questionnaire

12, 19, 20, 21, 22, 25, 26

Principal Questionnaire

7, 8, 9, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 35, 36, 37, 43, 44, 45, 46

Teacher Questionnaire

5, 6, 7, 14, 15, 27, 28, 29, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46

Student Questionnaire

9, 10, 29, 30

APPENDIX A CON'T.

Interaction-Influence Processes

Superintendent Questionnaire
27, 28, 29, 30

Principal Questionnaire
24, 25, 38, 39, 47

Teacher Questionnaire
17, 30, 31, 47, 48

Student Questionnaire
24, 25, 26

Decision-Making Processes

Superintendent Questionnaire
32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 38

Principal Questionnaire
14, 15, 16, 17, 27, 28, 29, 50, 51, 52

Teacher Questionnaire
10, 11, 19, 20, 34, 35, 40, 50, 51, 52

Student Questionnaire
11, 12, 15, 18, 19, 20, 21, 31, 32, 33

Goal Setting Processes

Superintendent Questionnaire
41, 42

Principal Questionnaire
30, 31, 53, 54

Teacher Questionnaire
53, 54

Student Questionnaire
34, 35

* See page 53 for description of instrument.

SR

INSTITUTE FOR SOCIAL RESEARCH / THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN / ANN ARBOR, MICHIGAN 48106

January 20, 1969

Mr. Theodore H. Gehrman
Assistant Personnel Director
Texon, Inc.
South Hadley, Mass. 01075

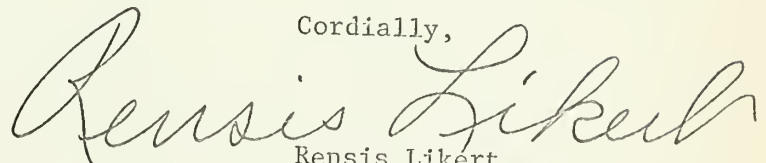
Dear Mr. Gehrman:

I am enclosing a sample copy of the principal, student, and teacher forms, as requested in your January 2 letter, which have been adapted from the Profile of Organizational Characteristics, as published in THE HUMAN ORGANIZATION. These forms are now being used in several parts of the country but we do not yet have norms.

If you are interested in using them we will see that you receive a supply. Please let me know if you have further questions.

With all best wishes in your doctoral research,

Cordially,


Rensis Likert
Director

RL/ek

SR

INSTITUTE FOR SOCIAL RESEARCH / THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN / ANN ARBOR, MICHIGAN 48106

July 10, 1969

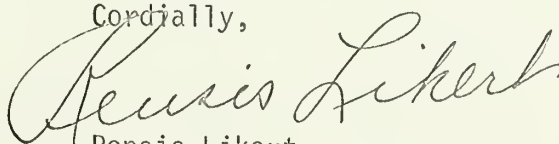
Mr. Theodore H. Gehrman
Texon Inc.
South Hadley, Massachusetts

Dear Mr. Gehrman:

I am awfully sorry that I have not responded more promptly to your last letter. I would be delighted to have you call me to talk about the Profile.

Data are being collected, by means of the same instruments which you have copies of, in New York State, Wisconsin, Texas, Oklahoma, and probably California, and I am much interested in obtaining data on regional and national norms. Before you start work on this, I hope you will get in touch with me because we have already made some minor revisions on the forms and I expect we will make more.

Cordially,



Rensis Likert
Director

RL/pd

SR

INSTITUTE FOR SOCIAL RESEARCH / THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN / ANN ARBOR, MICHIGAN 48106

September 11, 1969

Mr. Theodore H. Gehrman
16 Aldrich
Granley, Massachusetts 01030

Dear Mr. Gehrman:

Enclosed is a set of the July forms (including the new superintendent form which you may or may not want to use). You will want to compare these with the copies you have already and note any changes. We have revised these forms several times but, unfortunately, did not note on exactly which days in July the revisions were made so do not know whether you have the same forms as those enclosed.

Dr. Likert will be very pleased to receive the data--in fact, he tells me it will not be necessary to return the whole form if you can give him either punched cards or tapes which show how each person answered each item. He would also be interested in the intercorrelation of items and the means and standard deviations for each item, and for the total form by schools (or other appropriate unit).

There will be no charge for the forms. Since you want them more quickly than the "educational material" method would deliver them to you, we are checking into sending them more speedily. If the mailing costs seem high, we may ask you to share them with us. More about that later.

If you have any questions, please let Dr. Likert know. He is not in the office today or would write you himself (I thought you would appreciate as short a delay as possible).

Sincerely,

Mary Lou Holdren
Mrs. Mary Lou Holdren
Executive Secretary
to the Director

MLH/pd
Enclosures



The Commonwealth of Massachusetts
University of Massachusetts
Amherst 01002

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

September 15, 1969

I am assisting Professor Rensis Likert, Director of the Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor Michigan, in gathering data to be used for establishing regional and national norms for an instrument to determine how different groups in public high schools perceive the climate of their organization. Professor Likert is a nationally recognized scholar and authority on the socio-psychological structures of organizational systems. He has authored two well-known books on the subject; The Human Organization: Its Management and Value and New Patterns of Management as well as numerous articles in professional magazines and journals.

Your school was recommended for use in this study as being representative of the public high schools in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts by Doctor David Engelhardt and Mister Jesse O. Richardson, of the Massachusetts Department of Education.

Allow me to briefly review what is involved in gathering this data, and how much time it would take. The groups to be sampled are four; (1) the superintendent, (2) the high school principal and vice principal, (3) every third teacher, (4) every third student in the senior class. The superintendents', principals' and teachers' questionnaires take approximately twenty minutes to fill out, the students' questionnaires require about ten minutes to complete.

The procedure for administering and collecting the questionnaires would be discussed with you prior to their distribution to ensure the most efficient method of gathering the data. (Obviously, the most efficient procedure in one school would not be effective in another school because of different homeroom groupings, etc.)

For my doctoral dissertation in educational administration at the University of Massachusetts, which investigates the socio-psychological interrelationship between the above four groups, I will use the data gathered in this state, prior to forwarding it to Professor Likert for compilation into national norms. Should you elect to participate in this study the results of my study would be forwarded to you when it is completed. Data gathered from all schools and all individuals would remain totally anonymous.

Your assistance in gathering this data would be greatly appreciated.


 Theodore H. Gehrman



The Commonwealth of Massachusetts
University of Massachusetts
Amherst 01002

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

LETTER OF EXPLANATION

September 23, 1969

I am assisting Professor Rensis Likert, Director of the Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, in gathering data to be used for establishing regional and national norms for an instrument to determine how different groups in public high schools perceive the climate of their organization. Professor Likert is a nationally recognized scholar and authority on the socio-psychological structures of organizational systems. He has authored two well known books on the subject; The Human Organization: Its Management and Value and New Patterns of Management as well as numerous articles in professional magazines and journals.

Your school was recommended for use in this study as being representative of the public high schools in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts by Doctor David Engelhardt and Mister Jesse O. Richardson, of the Massachusetts Department of Education.

Allow me to briefly review what is involved in collecting this data, and how much time it will take. The groups to be sampled are four; (1) the superintendent, (2) the high school principal and vice principal, (3) every third teacher, (4) every third student in the senior class. The superintendents', principals' and teachers' questionnaires take approximately twenty minutes to fill out, the students' questionnaires require about ten minutes to complete.

The procedure for administering and collecting the questionnaires is outlined on the cover sheet which will be attached to the student questionnaire envelope.

For my doctoral dissertation in educational administration at the University of Massachusetts, I will use the data gathered in this state, prior to forwarding it to Professor Likert for compilation into national norms. The results of my study will be forwarded to you when it is completed. Data gathered from all schools and all individuals will remain totally anonymous.

Your assistance in gathering this data is greatly appreciated.


 Theodore H. Gehrman

Likert's Profile of Organizational Climate
(Superintendents)

PROFILE OF A SCHOOL
(Form for Superintendents of Schools)

Instructions for Superintendents:

1. Please place a check (x) indicating how much influence you think each of the following groups or persons actually have in determining the policies and practices of your high school.

	No Influence	A Little Influence	Some Influence	A Great Deal Of Influence	A Very Great Deal Of Influence
a. School Board	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Superintendent	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. Principal	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. Teachers (as a group)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e. Parents (as a group)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
f. Students (as a group)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. Counting this year as one year, how many years have you been a superintendent of this school system?

1 year 2 years 3 years 4 years +

3. On the following pages, please place a check (x) on the line at the point, which indicates the leadership you are trying to provide your school system and the kind of high school you are trying to create. Consider each horizontal line as a continuum from the extreme at one end to the extreme at the other end, i.e., do not think of the vertical lines as barriers.

4. Since each teacher and student differs one from the other, answer the questions as describing the average situation.

5. DO NOT PLACE YOUR NAME ON THE QUESTIONNAIRE. ALL QUESTIONNAIRES WILL REMAIN TOTALLY ANONYMOUS.

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How often is your behavior seen as friendly and supportive by:

- a. Your school board?
- b. Your staff?
- c. Your principals?

	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Almost always
a. Your school board?				
b. Your staff?				
c. Your principals?				

1
2
3

How often do you seek to be friendly and supportive to:

- a. Your school board?
- b. Your staff?
- c. Your principals?

	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Almost always
a. Your school board?				
b. Your staff?				
c. Your principals?				

4
5
6

How much confidence and trust do you have in:

- a. Your staff?
- b. Your principals?

	Practically none	A slight amount	A moderate amount	A great deal
a. Your staff?				
b. Your principals?				

7
8

How much confidence and trust do the following have in you:

- a. Your school board?
- b. Your staff?
- c. Your principals?

	Practically none	A slight amount	A moderate amount	A great deal
a. Your school board?				
b. Your staff?				
c. Your principals?				

9
10
11

What is the direction of the flow of information about:

Downward from school board to superintendent of schools to principal
Mostly downward
Down and up
Down, up, and laterally

a. Instructional and curricular matters?

19

b. Administrative matters?

20

How do your principals view communications from you? from you?

Communications viewed with great suspicion
Some accepted some viewed with suspicion
Usually accepted, sometimes cautiously
Almost always accepted. If not, openly and candidly questioned

21

How does your staff view communications from you?

Communications viewed with great suspicion
Some accepted some viewed with suspicion
Usually accepted, sometimes cautiously
Almost always accepted. If not, openly and candidly questioned

22

How accurate is upward communication

Usually inaccurate
Often inaccurate
Fairly accurate
Almost always accurate

a. From your principals?

23

b. From your staff?

24

How well do you know the problems faced by:

Not very well
Moderately well
Well
Very well

a. Your principals?

25

b. Your staff?

26

What is the character and amount of interaction in your school system:

a. Between you and your principals?	Very little interaction; usually with fear and distrust	Little interaction	Moderate interaction	Extensive, friendly interaction with high degree of confidence and trust	27
b. Between you and your school board?					28
c. Among the members of your staff?					29
d. Among school board members					30

In your school system, is it "every man for himself" or do you, your principals, members of your staff, and members of the school board work as a team?

"Every man for himself"	Relatively little cooperative team-work	A moderate amount of cooperative team-work	A very substantial amount of cooperative team-work	31
-------------------------	---	--	--	----

At what level are decisions made about:

a. Instructional and curricular matters?	Bulk at top by you or your staff, or by the school board	Policy made at top; specific decisions by principals, but usually checked by your office before action	Broad policy at top; more specific decisions at lower levels	Throughout school systems, principal, teachers, and students participating in decisions affecting them	32
b. Administrative matters?					33
c. Discipline and other non-academic matters?					34

To what extent are decision-makers aware of problems, particularly at lower levels in the organization?

Unaware or only partially aware	Aware of some, unaware of others	Moderately aware	Very aware

To what extent are principals involved in major decisions related to their work?

Not at all	Never involved in decisions related to their work; occasionally consulted	Usually consulted but ordinarily not involved in decisions related to their work	Fully involved in decisions related to their work

To what extent is your staff involved in decisions related to their work?

Not at all	Never involved in decisions related to their work; occasionally consulted	Usually consulted but ordinarily not involved in decisions related to their work	Freely involved in decisions related to their work

How are decisions made in your school system?

Decisions made by you	Decisions made by you with some opportunity for staff and principals to comment	Decisions made by you after extensive discussion with principals and teachers	Decisions made by means of group participation, usually through consensus

In general, what does the decision-making process contribute to the desire to do a good job?

Not very much, often weakens it	Relatively little	Moderate contribution	A great contribution

a. Of principals?

--	--	--	--

b. Of your staff?

--	--	--	--

PROFILE OF A SCHOOL
(Form for Principals)
Part I

Likert's Profile of Organizational Climate
(Principals)

Instructions for Principals:

1. Please place a check (x) indicating how much influence you think each of the following groups or persons actually have in determining the policies and practices of your high school.

	<u>No Influence</u>	<u>A Little Influence</u>	<u>Some Influence</u>	<u>A Great Deal Of Influence</u>	<u>A Very Great Deal Of Influence</u>
a. School Board	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Superintendent	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. Principal	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. Teachers (as a group)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e. Parents (as a group)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
f. Students (as a group)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. Counting this year as one year, how many years have you been principal of this high school?

1 year 2 years 3 years 4 years +

3. On the following pages, please place a check (x) on the line at the point, which indicates the kind of school you are trying to create by the leadership you are providing. Consider each horizontal line as a continuum from the extreme at one end to the extreme at the other end, i.e., do not think of the vertical lines as barriers.

4. Since each teacher and student differs one from the other, answer the questions as describing the average situation.

5. DO NOT PLACE YOUR NAME ON THE QUESTIONNAIRE. ALL QUESTIONNAIRES WILL REMAIN TOTALLY ANONYMOUS.

Prepared by Jane Gibson Likert and Rensis Likert. Adapted from The Human Organization: Its Management and Value by Rensis Likert. Copyright (c) by McGraw-Hill, Inc. By permission of McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. No further reproduction of distribution authorized without permission of McGraw-Hill.

How often is your behavior seen as friendly and supportive by:

a. teachers?

b. students?

Rarely

Sometimes

Often

Almost always



How often do you seek to be friendly and supportive to:

a. teachers?

b. students?

Rarely

Sometimes

Often

Almost always



How much confidence and trust do you have in your teachers?

Practically none

A slight amount

A moderate amount

A great deal



How much confidence and trust do your teachers have in you?

Practically none

A slight amount

A moderate amount

A great deal



How free do your teachers feel to talk to you about:

a. academic matters, such as course content, instructional plans, teaching methods, their work, etc.?

b. non-academic school matters, such as student behavior, emotional problems of students, discipline, student activities, etc.?

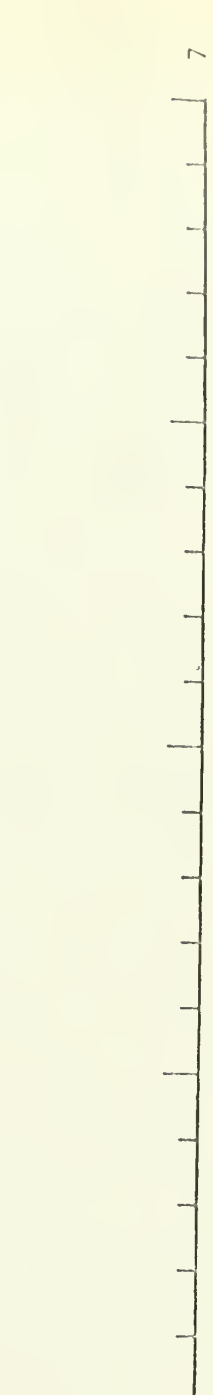
c. their personal problems?

Not very free

Slightly free

Moderately free

Very free



How often do you seek and use your teachers' ideas about:

a. academic matters?

b. non-academic school matters?

How often do you seek and use students' ideas about:

a. academic matters?

b. non-academic school matters?

How much say do you think teachers should have about:

a. academic matters?

b. non-academic school matters?

How much say do you think students should have about:

a. academic matters?

b. non-academic school matters?

Rarely

Sometimes

Often

Very frequently

10

11

Rarely

Sometimes

Often

Very frequently

12

13

Practically none

A slight amount

A moderate amount

A great deal

14

15

Practically none

A slight amount

A moderate amount

A great deal

16

17

What is the general attitude of teachers toward your school as a place to work?

Hate it
Sometimes hate it; sometimes like it
Usually like it
Like it very much

18

What is the direction of the flow of information about:

Downward from principal to teacher to student
Mostly downward
Down and up
Down, up, and between teachers, and between students

19

a. academic matters?
b. non-academic school matters?

How do teachers view communications from you and the administration?

Communications viewed with great suspicion.
Some accepted, some viewed with suspicion
Usually accepted, sometimes cautiously
Almost always accepted. If not, openly and candidly questioned.

20

How accurate is upward communication?

Usually inaccurate
Often inaccurate
Fairly accurate
Almost always accurate

21

How well do you know the problems faced by your teachers?

Not very well
Moderately well
Well
Very well

22

23

What is the character and amount of interaction in your school:

Very little interaction; usually with fear and distrust

Little interaction; Moderate interaction; principal usually maintains distance from teachers and students

Extensive, friendly interaction with high degree of confidence and trust

a. between principal and teachers?

b. among teachers?

In your school, is it "every man for himself" or do principal, teachers and students work as a team?

"Every man for himself"

Relatively little cooperative team-work

A moderate amount of cooperative team-work

A very substantial amount of cooperative team-work

At what level are decisions made about school matters, such as course content, instructional plans, teaching methods, student activities, etc.?

Bulk at top by principal or superintendent of schools

Policy at top; specific decisions by teachers, but usually checked by principal before action

Broad policy at top; more specific decisions at lower levels

Throughout school. Principal, teachers, and students participating in decisions affecting them

To what extent are teachers involved in major decisions related to their work?

Not at all

Never involved in decisions related to their work; occasionally consulted

Usually consulted but ordinarily not involved in decisions related to their work

Fully involved in decisions related to their work

24

25

26

124

27

28

In general, what does the decision-making process contribute to the desire of teachers and students to do a good job?

Not very much, often weakens it | Relatively little | Some contribution | Substantial contribution

Scale for item 29: A horizontal line with 11 vertical tick marks, starting from the left and ending at the number 29 on the right.

*Who holds high performance goals for your school?

Principal only | Principal and some teachers | Principal, most teachers, and some students | Principal, teachers, students, and parents

Scale for item 30: A horizontal line with 11 vertical tick marks, starting from the left and ending at the number 30 on the right.

Who feels responsible for achieving high performance goals?

Principal only | Principal and some teachers | Principal, most teachers, and some students | Principal, teachers, students

Scale for item 31: A horizontal line with 11 vertical tick marks, starting from the left and ending at the number 31 on the right.

*If no one expects a high level of performance, place a check mark here _____ and skip items 30 and 31.

(Form for Principals)
Part II

Item
No.

How often do you see the behavior of your superintendent of schools as friendly and supportive?

Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Almost always
----- ----- ----- -----			

32

How much confidence and trust does your superintendent have in you?

Practically none	A slight amount	A moderate amount	A great deal
----- ----- ----- -----			

33

How much confidence and trust do you have in your superintendent?

Practically none	A slight amount	A moderate amount	A great deal
----- ----- ----- -----			

34

How free do you feel to talk to your superintendent about:

Not very free Slightly free Moderately free Very free

a. instructional matters, such as textbook selection; instructional policies?

----- ----- ----- -----			
-------------------------	--	--	--

35

b. administrative matters such as budget, hiring of teachers?

----- ----- ----- -----			
-------------------------	--	--	--

36

c. Your personal problems?

----- ----- ----- -----			
-------------------------	--	--	--

37

How often do you try to be friendly and supportive to:

- a. your superintendent?
- b. other principals?

Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Almost always
----- ----- ----- -----			
----- ----- ----- -----			

38
39

How often are your ideas sought and used by your superintendent about:

- a. instructional and curricular matters?
- b. administrative matters?
- c. discipline and other non-academic matters?

Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very frequently
----- ----- ----- -----			
----- ----- ----- -----			
----- ----- ----- -----			

40
41
42

What is the direction of the flow of information in your school system?

Downward	Mostly Downward	Down and up	Down, up and between peers
----- ----- ----- -----			

43

How do you view communications from the superintendent of schools?

Communications viewed with great suspicion	Some accepted, some viewed with suspicion	Usually accepted, sometimes cautiously	Almost always accepted. If not, openly and candidly questioned
----- ----- ----- -----			

44

How accurate is upward communication in your school system?

Usually inaccurate	Often inaccurate	Fairly accurate	Almost always accurate
----- ----- ----- -----			

45

How well does your superintendent know the problems you face?

Not very well	Moderately well	Well	Very well	Item no.
1	2	3	4	46

What is the character and amount of interaction in your school system?

Little interaction; usually with fear and distrust	Little inter-action. Board, superintendent usually maintain distance from one another	Moderate inter-action often with fair amount of confidence and trust	Extensive, friendly inter-action with high degree of confidence and trust	47
--	---	--	---	----

In your school system is it "every man for himself" or do the superintendent of schools, principals and teachers work as a team?

"Every man for himself"	Relatively little cooperative team-work	A moderate amount of cooperative team-work	A very substantial amount of cooperative team-work	48
-------------------------	---	--	--	----

What is your general attitude toward your school system as a place to work?

Hate it	Sometimes hate it; Sometimes like it	Usually like it	Like it very much	49
---------	--------------------------------------	-----------------	-------------------	----

What is the character of the decision-making process in your school system?

Decisions made by school board and top administrators. Orders issued	Decisions made by school board and top administrators with some chance for reactions by lower levels	Decisions made at top after consultation with appropriate lower levels	Lower levels involved in decisions affecting them. Decisions usually made through consensus	50
--	--	--	---	----

PROFILES OF A SCHOOL
(Form for Teachers)
Part 1

Please place a check (X) indicating how much influence you think each of the following groups of persons actually have in determining the policies and practices of your high school.

	No Influence	A Little Influence	Some Influence	A Great Deal of Influence	A Very Great Deal of Influence
1. School Board	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Superintendent	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Principal	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Teachers (as a group)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Parents (as a group)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Students (as a group)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

1. How long this year do one year how many years have you taught at this high school?
1 year 2 years 3 years 4 years 5 years

On the following pages, please place a check (X) on the line at the point, which indicates the leadership you are trying to provide your school system and the kind of high school you are trying to create. Consider each horizontal line as a continuum from the extreme at one end to the extreme at the other end of the continuum.

1. The role of the teacher and student differs one from the other answer the questions as describing the average situation.

2. The role of the administrator is to provide leadership. A principal should be primarily an administrator. The principal should be primarily an administrator.

3. The role of the administrator is to provide leadership. The administrator should be primarily an administrator. The administrator should be primarily an administrator.

How much say do you think students should have about:

a. academic matters?

b. non-academic school matters?

Practically none A slight amount A moderate amount A great deal

10

What is the general attitude of students toward your school?

Hate it

Sometimes hate it; sometimes like it

Usually like it

Like it very much

11

How accurate is information regarding class, school, or personal matters given to you by your students?

Usually inaccurate

Often inaccurate

Fairly accurate

Almost always

12

How do students view communications

Communications viewed with great suspicion

Some accepted; some viewed with suspicion

Usually accepted; sometimes cautiously

Almost always accepted. If not, openly and candidly questioned

13 32

a. from you?

b. from the principal?

14

How well do you know the problems faced by your students in their school work?

Not very well

Moderately well

Quite well

Very well

15

16

What is the character and amount of interaction in your classes?

Little interaction; Little interaction; Moderate inter-
usually with fear teacher usually action; often with
and distrust maintains distance fair amount of
from students confidence and
trust

17

In your classes, is it "every man for himself" or do students work cooperatively as a team?

"Every man for Relatively little A moderate amount Very substantial
himself" cooperative team- of cooperative amount of cooperative
work team-work team-work

18

Who makes decisions about class matters?

Principal and Teacher only Teacher after Teacher and
teacher consultation students working
with students as partners

19

How much say do students have in choosing subjects they study?

Practically none A slight amount A moderate amount A great deal

20

How much say do you think students should have in choosing the subjects they study?

Practically none A slight amount A moderate amount A great deal

21

To what extent does having a say in choosing subjects make students want to work harder?

Practically none A slight amount A moderate amount A great deal

22

What does the class decision-making process contribute to the desire of students to do a good job?

Not very much; Relatively little Some contribution Substantial
often weakens it contribution

23

How often is your principal's behavior seen as friendly and supportive by teachers?

Rarely Sometimes Often Almost always

24

How much confidence and trust does your principal have in his teachers?

Practically none A slight amount A moderate amount A great deal

25

How much confidence and trust do you have in your principal?

Practically none A slight amount A moderate amount A great deal

26

How free do you feel to talk to the principal about:

Not very free Slightly free Moderately free Very free

- a. academic matters, such as course content, instructional plans, teaching methods, your work, etc.?

27

- b. non-academic school matters, such as student behavior, emotional problems of students, discipline, student activities, etc.?

28

- c. your personal problems?

29

How often do you try to be friendly and supportive to:

a. your principal?

b. other teachers?

Rarely

Sometimes

Often

Almost always



30



31

How often are your ideas sought and used by the principal about:

a. academic matters?

b. non-academic school matters?

Rarely

Sometimes

Often

Very frequently



32



33

How much say do you think teachers should have about:

a. academic matters?

b. non-academic school matters?

Practically none

A slight amount

A moderate amount

A great deal



34



35

How often are students' ideas sought and used by the principal about:

a. academic matters?

b. non-academic school matters?

Rarely

Sometimes

Often

Very frequently



36



37

How much say do you think students should have about:

a. academic matters?

b. non-academic school matters?

To what extent are students involved in major decisions affecting them?

What is the general attitude of teachers toward your school as a place to work?

What is the direction of the flow of information about:

a. academic matters?

b. non-academic school matters?

How do you view communications from your principal?

How accurate is upward communication?

Practically none

A slight amount

A moderate amount

A great deal

Not at all

Never involved in decisions affecting them

Usually consulted but ordinarily not involved in decisions affecting them

Fully involved in decisions affecting them

Hate it

Sometimes hate it, sometimes like it

Usually like it

Like it very much

Downward from principal to teacher to student

Mostly downward

Down and up

Down, up, and between teachers and between students

Communications viewed with great suspicion

Some accepted, some viewed with suspicion

Usually accepted, sometimes cautiously

Almost always accepted. If not, openly and candidly questioned.

Usually inaccurate

Often inaccurate

Fairly accurate

Accurate

How well does your principal know the problems faced by teachers?	Not very well	Moderately well	Well	Very well	46
What is the character and amount of interaction in your school:	Very little interaction; usually with fear and distrust	Little interaction; principal and teachers usually maintain distance from one another	Moderate interaction; action; often with fair amount of confidence and trust	Extensive, friendly interaction with high degree of confidence and trust	47
a. between principal and teachers?					48
b. among teachers?					
In your school, is it "every man for himself" or do principal, teachers and students work as a team?	"Every man for himself"	Relatively little cooperative team-work	A moderate amount of cooperative team-work	A very substantial amount of cooperative team-work	49
At what level are decisions made about school matters, such as course content, instructional plans, teaching methods, student behavior, student activities, etc.?	Bulk at top; by principal or superintendent of school	Policy at top; specific decisions by teachers, but usually checked by principal before action	Broad policy at top; more specific decisions at lower levels	Throughout school. Principal, teachers, and students participating in decisions affecting them	
To what extent are you involved in major decisions related to your work?	Not at all	Never involved in decisions related to my work; occasionally consulted	Usually consulted but ordinarily not involved in decisions related to my work	Fully involved in decisions related to my work	51

In general, what does the decision-making process contribute to the desire of teachers and students to do a good job?

Not very much, often weakens it | Relatively little | Some contribution | Substantial contribution

52

*Who holds high performance goals for your school?

Principal only | Principal and some teachers | Principal, most teachers, some students | Principal, teachers, students, parents

53

Who feels responsible for achieving high performance goals?

Principal only | Principal and some teachers | Principal, most teachers, some students | Principal, teachers, students

54

138

*If no one expects a high level of performance, place a check mark here _____ and skip items 53 and 54.

Likert's Profile of Organizational Climate (Students)

July 1968

PROFILE OF A SCHOOL
(High School Students)

Questionnaire for School Use

Directions: Please check (X) indicating the most accurate statement which best describes the following conditions in your school in determining the policies and practices of your school.

No.	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
2	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
3	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
4	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
5	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
6	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
7	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
8	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
9	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
10	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
11	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
12	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
13	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
14	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
15	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
16	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
17	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
18	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
19	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
20	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
21	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
22	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
23	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
24	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
25	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
26	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
27	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
28	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
29	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
30	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
31	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
32	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
33	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
34	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
35	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
36	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
37	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
38	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
39	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
40	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
41	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
42	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
43	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
44	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
45	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
46	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
47	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
48	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
49	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					
50	Teachers are given freedom in their classrooms.					

Rarely Sometimes Often Almost always

How often is the behavior of your teachers friendly and supportive?

1

--	--	--	--	--

How often do you try to be friendly and supportive to:

- a. other students? 2
- b. your teachers? 3
- c. your principal? 4

Rarely Sometimes Often Almost always

On the average, how much do you feel that your teachers are interested in your success as a student?

5

Not very interested	Slightly interested	Quite interested	Very interested

On the average, how much do you feel that other students are interested in your success as a student?

6

Not very interested	Slightly interested	Quite interested	Very interested

How much do you feel that the principal is interested in your success as a student?

7

Not very interested	Slightly interested	Quite interested	Very interested

How well do your teachers know the problems you face in your school work?

8

Not very well	Moderately well	Quite well	Very well

How often do your teachers ask for and use your ideas about

a. academic matters, such as course content, subjects to be studied, books?

b. non-academic school matters, such as discipline, school events, student activities?

How much say do the teachers, on the average, think students should have in what goes on in your school as to

a. academic matters?

b. non-academic matters?

How often does the principal ask for and use your ideas about:

a. academic matters?

b. non-academic school matters?

To what extent are you involved in major decisions affecting you?

Rarely

Sometimes

Often

Very frequently



Practically none A slight amount A moderate amount A great deal



Rarely Sometimes Often Very frequently



Not at all Never involved in decisions affecting me; occasionally consulted Usually consulted but ordinarily not involved in decisions affecting me Fully involved in decisions affecting me



How free do you feel to talk to your teachers about

Not very free Slightly free Moderately free Very free

a. problems associated with your work?

24

b. non-academic school matters?

25

c. your personal problems?

26

In your school work, is it "every man for himself" or do students work cooperatively as a team?

"Every man for himself" Relatively little cooperative teamwork A moderate amount of cooperative teamwork A very substantial amount of cooperative teamwork

27

How do you feel toward your school?

Hate it Sometimes hate it, sometimes like it Usually like it Like it very much

28

How do you view communications from:

Communications viewed with great suspicion Some accepted, some viewed with suspicion Usually accepted, sometimes cautiously Almost always accepted. If not, openly and candidly questioned

29

a. your teachers?

b. your principal?

30

How much say do you have in choosing the subjects you study?

Practically none	Some	A moderate amount	A great deal
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31

How much say do you think students should have in choosing the subjects they study?

Practically none	Some	A moderate amount	A great deal
------------------	------	-------------------	--------------

32

To what extent does having a say in choosing your subjects make you want to work harder?
(If you have no say, put a check mark here _____).

Practically none	A slight amount	A moderate amount	A great deal
------------------	-----------------	-------------------	--------------

33

*Who holds high performance goals for your school?

Principal only	Principal and some teachers	Principal, most teachers, some students	Principal, teachers, students, parents
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34

Who feels responsible for achieving high performance goals?

Principal only	Principal and some teachers	Principal, most teachers, some students	Principal, teachers, students, parents
----------------	-----------------------------	---	--

35

*If no one expects a high level of performance, place a check mark here _____ and skip items 31 and 32.

A B S T R A C T

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARTICIPATION AND ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF THE PERCEPTIONS OF HIGH SCHOOL SENIOR STUDENTS, TEACHERS, PRINCIPALS AND DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENTS IN INNOVATIVE VERSUS NONINNOVATIVE SCHOOLS (May 1970)

Theodore H. Gehrman, B. S., University of Oregon

M.S., University of Oregon

Directed by: Dr. Ray Budde

The overall objective of this study was to examine senior class students', teachers', principals', and superintendents' perceptions of organizational climate and control in five innovative and five noninnovative high schools. The logic underlying this study was: There is a substantial amount of research which explores the relationships between participation and organizational climate. This research indicates that individuals who actively participate in the decision making processes of an organization perceive that organization to have a favorable climate. Theory and logic would indicate that structural organizational innovations, as used in this study, should foster participation on the part of the members of high school organizations. Thus, individuals in high schools which have implemented these innovations, everything else being equal, should have more favorable perceptions of their schools' climate than their counterparts in schools without these innovations.

Two major operational hypotheses were constructed which postulated that students and teachers in innovative schools would perceive the

the climate of their schools more favorably than their counterparts in noninnovative schools. Two hypotheses were constructed which predicted that students and teachers in innovative schools would perceive themselves as having more control over determining policies and practices of their school than their counterparts in noninnovative schools. The last two hypotheses were constructed to assess whether students and teachers in innovative schools would perceive their organizations as having more total control than would their counterparts in noninnovative schools.

The samples used in this study were taken from public high schools in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. The innovative high schools were selected by asking the Senior Supervisor, Bureau of Curriculum Innovations and the Director of the Innovative Practice Survey at the Commonwealth of Massachusetts' Department of Education to select five schools which had certain operationally defined innovations and five schools which did not have these innovations. School principals then confirmed the presence or absence of the innovations in their respective schools. Thirty percent of the senior class students who had attended the school at least three years, thirty percent of the teachers who had been in the school for at least two years, and all of the principals and superintendents were sampled. Quantitative descriptions of the above groups' perceptions of organizational climate were obtained through the administration of Likert's "Profile of Organizational Characteristics" and Tannenbaum's "Organizational Control" questionnaires. A one-tailed t-test was used as the statistical test to measure differences between the means.

The major finding was that although there was a significant statis-

tical difference between the means of students in innovative and noninnovative schools, the difference was so small (1.42 on a scale of 20) that it was not considered to be practically significant. The difference between means of teachers in the two sets of schools were not statistically significant. The differences between means on the control instrument were statistically significant for both students and teachers. Another finding, although not hypothesized, proved most interesting. In both sets of schools the lower the group was in the hierarchy, the lower the groups' perception of organizational climate.

The findings of this study were interpreted as meaning that the existence of innovations do not in themselves foster participation. Although there was a statistical, as well as a practical difference between the means of the two sets of students on the control instrument, when the slopes of the control curves were compared there was very little difference between them. Both curves' slopes indicated oligarchic organizations. This finding supports the interpretation that the innovations used by schools in this study did not promote participation. The results of this study indicate that school administrators, desirous of favorable organizational climates for their schools, should ensure that students and teachers actively participate in decisions concerning school policies and practices affecting them.

