

THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA
GRADUATE COLLEGE

A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE
AND PUPIL CONTROL IDEOLOGY OF THE PROFESSIONAL STAFFS
IN SELECTED SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN SHIRAZ, IRAN


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SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree of
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SECONDARY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

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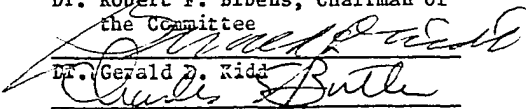
1984

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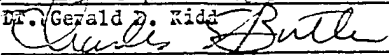
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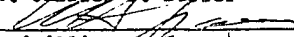
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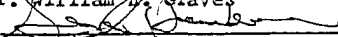
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ABSTRACT

This study was undertaken to: (1) identify the organizational climates of the Public Secondary Schools (Middle and High) in the city of Shiraz, Iran, and its related outlying areas; (2) investigate pupil control ideology of these schools' professional staffs; (3) discover possible relationships between the schools' climate and the Pupil Control Ideology of their professional staffs; and (4) examine if the schools' professional staffs' perceptions of their school climate and their pupil control ideologies are influenced by the: grade levels, students' gender, and schools' geographical locations.

Eight major null hypotheses were formulated to be tested. The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire Form IV, and the Pupil Control Ideology Form were distributed among 435 randomly selected Iranian Public Schools' educators in Thirty-Seven selected schools in Shiraz Township. 424 completed and usable returned questionnaires were analyzed by means of three-way ANOVA, and Pearson correlation techniques, using the Statistical Analysis System computer program.

The results indicated that:

(1) There were no significant relationships between the sampled Iranian teachers' and administrators' mean scores, respectively, on pupil control ideologies and their perceptions of their school

climate, based on the Openness Index of the climate; nor between their mean scores on pupil control ideologies and the eight dimensions of the school climate.

(2) There were no significant differences between the mean scores of administrators' perceptions of their school's climate; nor between their mean scores on their pupil control ideologies within the eight different groups included in relation to the geographical location, students' gender, and grade levels of the schools.

(3) Significant differences were found between the mean scores of teachers' perceptions of their school climate within the eight different groups included in relation to the geographical locations of the schools.

(4) Significant differences were found between the mean scores of teachers' pupil control ideologies within the eight different groups included in relation to the gender of students attending the schools.

On the basis of these findings it was concluded that: the sampled Iranian teachers' perceptions of their schools climate are significantly affected by the geographical location of the schools; and their pupil control ideologies seemed to be affected by the gender of the students they taught.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

One of the characteristics of modern society is the prevalence of organizations, and the increasing dependency on organizational life to achieve social, cultural, political, economic, and educational goals. To realize these objectives, modern societies establish agencies. Public schools are one of the institutions which have been formally established to educate the people; the public school system in Iran is no exception to the general procedure.

In order to perform their function, these institutions are structured in various levels, and staffed with human agents to execute different tasks in accordance with the prescribed rights and duties. Thus, those responsible for the operation and performance of the institutional tasks, as well as their clients, are involved in a world of interpersonal relationships. These interpersonal relationships may be viewed in such terms as principal to superintendent, principal to teachers, teacher to teacher, teacher to pupil, as well

as many others. The nature and quality of these interactions are based in part on individual personalities, and also on job requirements. The interaction between the formal organizational policies and rules and the individual's personality traits, which include his needs, interests, values, and attitudes, generates a new entity that has been termed the organizational climate.¹

The premise that every organization has its own atmosphere or climate has been established for some time, and many terms, such as "culture", "morale", and "esprit" have been used to describe the working climate of organizations. However, regardless of the terminology used, the organizational climate has been explained in terms of the socio-psychological working conditions, or the environment which results from the interactions among various role participants who, in a given organization, fulfill their prescribed roles while satisfying their individual needs.² Lonsdale says that "organizational climate might be defined as the global assessment of the interaction between the task-achievement dimension and the need-satisfaction dimension within the organization, or in other

¹ Wayne K. Hoy and Cecil G. Miskel, Educational Administration: Theory, Research, and Practice (New York: Random House, Inc., 1978), p. 137.

² Eldon J. Null, Organizational Climate of Elementary Schools, Research Monograph No. 3, (Minneapolis Educational Research and Development Council of the Twin Cities Metropolitan Area, Inc., 1967), p. 1.

the task-needs integration."³ The quality of these interactions determines the unique atmosphere or climate of a given organization.⁴ This socio-psychological state of the organization, in turn, directly or indirectly influences the behavior pattern of people while they are working in any given organization.⁵ Accordingly, a school's organizational climate has been likened to an individual personality, with its own uniqueness. As Halpin suggested, "analogously, personality is to the individual what organizational climate is to the organization."⁶

A complex array of variables, or factors, interact to form an organization's climate. Included among these variables may possibly be found the leadership style, the location of the school, the structure of authority and interpersonal relationships, and the size in terms of the number of staff members in the organization. Another factor may be the institution's expectations concerning the members' rights and obligations. The socialization process within the organization could also be considered as an influential factor.

³ Richard C. Lonsdale, "Maintaining the Organization in Dynamic Equilibrium" in Daniel Griffith's (ed.), Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, 63rd Yearbook of the NSSE, Part II (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964), p. 166.

⁴ Thomas W. Wiggins, "Principal Behavior in the School Climate: A System Analysis," Educational Technology Vol. II (September, 1971), p. 57.

⁵ B. Von Haller Gilmer, Industrial and Organizational Psychology (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1971), pp. 27-28; see also W. K. Hoy and C. G. Miskel, op. cit., p. 137.

⁶ Andrew W. Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966), p. 131.

Likewise, the personality of individual role incumbents with their unique "need-dispositions" — that is, "the individual tendencies to orient and act with respect to objects in certain manners, and to expect certain consequences from these actions"⁷ — could be viewed as another contributing factor. Hence, ideological orientations, with regard to the educational process, personal and educational backgrounds of individual members involved in interactions,⁸ and many other factors, both singly and in combination, might produce a particular type of school climate. Halpin and Croft, commenting on the number of factors which could be considered to be influential upon the climate of a school, state:

The following, at the very least, would need to be taken into account: The socio-economic status of the school's patrons; the biographical and personality characteristics of the principal and the teachers; the 'quality' of the students; the school's physical plant; the location of the school; and of prime importance, the social interactions that occur between the teachers and the principal.[9]

As a result of the influence of the above-mentioned variables, varied circumstances, tones, social milieu, and/or atmospheres exist

⁷ Talcott Parsons and Edward A. Shils, "Toward a General Theory of Action," cited in Jacob W. Getzels and E. G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process", The School Review, Vol. LXV, No. 1 (Winter 1957), p. 425.

⁸ Donald J. Willower, Terry L. Eidell, and Wayne K. Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology, The Pennsylvania State University Press, Study No. 24, 1967.

⁹ Andrew W. Halpin and Don B. Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, The University of Chicago, 1963), p. 7.

in different schools. In The Organizational Climate of Schools¹⁰, Halpin discusses the variety of atmospheres or climates that may be encountered. For example, in one school the teachers and principal are committed to their work, and appear to understand and enjoy their work and working relationships within the school, and may reflect confidence in their work. In another school the discontentment felt by the faculty may be apparent. In a third school, mediocrity may prevail, and the participants appear to ritualistically act out their roles without commitment, and even without understanding of their roles or functions.

For many years, the organizational climate and its various contributing components have been a major theme in research studies. Consequently, those who study the organizational climate emphasize that it is real and measurable, and that it is an important concept which needs to be studied since it demonstrably shows a tangible effect upon the school's performance.¹¹ In 1963, Halpin and Croft developed an instrument known as the "Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire"¹², hereafter referred to as the OCDQ, which identifies working climates in the United States' public schools.

¹⁰ Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration, p. 131.

¹¹ Francis G. Cornell, "Socially Perceptive Administration," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. XXXVI, No. 6 (March, 1955), p. 223.

¹² Halpin and Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools, 1963.

While they acknowledged that in defining the organizational climate of a school numerous factors needed to be taken into consideration, they also pointed out that the instrument developed and used by them was limited "exclusively to the social interaction between principal and teachers"¹³ -- one part of the social components of a school.

A formal organization such as a school has been conceptualized as a social system.¹⁴ A social system has been defined as "a plurality of individual actors interacting with each other in a situation which has at least a physical or environmental aspect...."¹⁵ The social system concept may be used in any size of interaction, large or small.¹⁶ Accordingly, the constituting components, or sub-system of a school organization, cannot be restricted solely to the administrators and/or faculty members.

Because the administration in a formal organization such as a school is a subsystem, or a component part of the total school organization, one of the notable recent developments in the study of administration of organizations has been the change of direction and interest from the theory of administration to organizational theory.

13 Ibid, p. 7.

14 Getzels and Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process", p. 424.

15 Talcott Parsons, "The Social System", cited in Jacob W. Getzels, James M. Lipham, and Ronald F. Campbell, Educational Administration As A Social Process: Theory, Research, Practice (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1968), pp. 54-55.

16 Ibid.

Today, the focal point of research studies is, first, a study of the school organization as a whole; the knowledge or findings obtained are then applied to a purposefully-oriented subsystem such as administration and its problems.¹⁷ Organizational climate is perceived as an important part of organizational theory,¹⁸ and the OCDQ is one of the most widely-used instruments devised for assessing and identifying the organizational climate found in public schools both in the United States and abroad.¹⁹ The results of research studies in the United States and abroad, and comments in periodicals and references in literature, suggest the usefulness of the concepts developed by Halpin and Croft for analyzing the organization.²⁰

However, the missing factor in the description of a school's organizational climate is the relationship between the school's professional staff and its students. Halpin, stressing that the student could conceivably be an added factor in the school climate, states:

¹⁷ John H. M. Andrews, "School Organizational Climate: Some Validity Studies," Canadian Education and Research Digest, Vol. V (December, 1965), p. 317; see also Francis G. Cornell, "Socially Perceptive Administration", p. 219.

¹⁸ Cornell, "Socially Perceptive Administration", p. 219.

¹⁹ Robert G. Owens, Organizational Behavior in Schools (Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970)), p. 174.

²⁰ See, for example, James M. Lipham and James A. Hoch, Jr., The Principalship: Foundations and Functions (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1974), p. 106; see also Robert G. Owens, Organizational Behavior in Schools, pp. 168 and 174.

.... We have stressed the point that the group members must be able to enjoy social-needs satisfaction and satisfaction from task accomplishment. We must assume that the principle source of social-needs satisfaction lies in the teacher's interactions with fellow teachers and the principal. But this is an over-simplification. A school is not an assembly line; the teachers are working with children. Consequently, a teacher, especially in the elementary school, can achieve a major source of social-needs satisfaction through her close personal relationship with children themselves.[21]

Since one of the social components of a school organization is its pupils, the relationship or interaction between the school personnel and the student body should be taken into account when research into organizational climate is being conducted.

As several research efforts have indicated, pupil control may be an integrative theme in the public schools. It plays an important part in the relationships between teacher and teachers, and between teachers and administrators.²² Willower and Jones asserted that "while many other matters influenced the tone of the school, pupil control was a dominant motif ... and it fits the general climate of the school."²³

²¹ Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration, p. 202.

²² Donald J. Willower and Ronald G. Jones, "When Pupil Control Becomes an Institutional Theme," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. XIV, No. 3, (November, 1963), p. 108.

²³ Ibid., pp. 107-109; see also D. J. Willower and R. G. Jones, "Control in Educational Organization," in James Raths, John R. Rancella, and James S. Van Ness, Studying Teaching (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967), pp. 424-428.

Statement of the Problem

Evidences from previous investigations in the United States have indicated that a school's organizational climate and the faculty's pupil control ideology may be related. This study has focused upon the nature and extent of the relationship, or lack of it, between the perceived school's organizational climate in secondary schools and the related faculty members' pupil control ideology. The investigation was also designed to determine whether or not the perceived schools' organizational climate and the schools faculty members' pupil control ideology, respectively, significantly were affected by the school's geographical location, students' gender, and the grade level.

The primary problems of the present study were: (1) to identify and classify the organizational climates of the public secondary schools (combination of middle and senior high schools) in the city of Shiraz, the capital of Fars Province in Iran, and its related outlying area school districts, as perceived by their professional staffs; (2) to examine pupil control ideology of the professional staffs of these schools as expressed by themselves; (3) to investigate possible relationships between the organizational climate of the selected secondary schools and the pupil control ideology of their professional staffs; and (4) to assess the influence of three independent variables -- namely the geographical location of the schools, the gender of the students attending the schools, and the organizational or grade level of the schools -- upon the staffs' perception of organizational climate and their pupil control ideologies.

Justification for the Study

Schools, as a social institution, are created by societies for the purpose of perpetuating themselves through transmission of their cultural values.²⁴ Another equally important function of schools is to solve some of the society's problems and act as an agent of change for the society's self-reconstruction.²⁵ It follows that the purposes that an educational system pursues and the methods used to achieve those purposes will to a large extent influence the prosperity and future of a given society.²⁶ The task of perpetuating cultural values, diagnosing and eliminating the nonvaluable aspects of the society, and consequently reconstructing that society, is to some degree entrusted to the responsible educators within the society.

With regard to administering and conducting the affairs of an educational establishment such as a school, many writers agree that administrators are professionally obligated and are responsible for the improvement of the instruction.²⁷ They are called upon to exercise leadership in providing an educational environment

²⁴ John Dewey, Democracy and Education (New York: The Free Press, 1966), pp. 2-3.

²⁵ Ibid., pp. 76-79.

²⁶ Ibid., p. 79; see also, John W. Renner, Robert F. Bibens, and Gene D. Shepherd, Guiding Learning in the Secondary School (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1972), pp. 4-5.

²⁷ Dale M. Baugham, et. al., Administration and Supervision of the Modern Secondary School (New York: Parker Publishing Company, Inc., 1969), pp. 23-24.

which will better serve individual students and consequently the society. Such a leadership demands not only raising the professional standards of teaching,²⁸ but improving the teacher's interactions with students.²⁹ For "what the teacher does in the classroom is the final curriculum product for a school day, week, month, and year."³⁰ Hence, as an official leader within the limits of his own school, an administrator's primary responsibility is "to assist teachers in their search for quality education and teaching in the classroom."³¹

It can be assumed therefore that a principal's greatest challenge and duty is, as observed by Stanley Williams, "the promotion of growth and progress in the school, through the development of staff attitudes that welcome professional growth," for "such attitudes as these strengthen the educational program and develop in students a spirit of free inquiry."³²

To bring about the change or improvement in instruction and/or curriculum, the first step is the determination of the

²⁸ William E. Sanson, "The Principal and Power," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. LIV, No. 8, (April, 1973), p. 553.

²⁹ Norman D. Riggs, "Organization for Instruction," The Clearing House, Vol. 44, No. 8 (April, 1970), p. 47.

³⁰ Neil Amos, "The Human Process, Direction for Innovation?", in Leonard E. Kraft (ed.), The Secondary School Principal in Action (Wm. C. Brown Company Publishers, 1974), p. 118.

³¹ Stanley W. Williams, Educational Administration in Secondary Schools: Tasks and Challenge (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1964), p. 279.

³² Ibid.

specific problems associated with the present form of instruction; therefore, establishing the need for improvement is of the utmost importance.³³

The Iranian educational system has been criticized consistently since its inception by both laymen and professional educators, Iranian and non-Iranian alike. These criticisms have been directed toward the philosophical bases as well as the program of studies, the over-centralization of the educational organization, the methods of teaching in use, and the manner in which students are treated and managed in the classroom.³⁴

Although the laws and regulations of the Ministry of Education prohibit corporal punishment, they are ignored by Iranian educators, and corporal punishment is the rule rather than the exception, asserts Sadiq, an Iranian educator.³⁵ In describing and discussing several of the traditional characteristics and factors which have shaped Iranian education, Sadiq touched upon these traditions, and advised any administrators or educational reformers of the factors which must

³³ George G. Tankard, Jr., Curriculum Improvement: An Administrator's Guide (New York: Parker Publishing Company, Inc., 1974), pp. 1-16.

³⁴ See, for example, Joel B. Slocum, "Iran: A Study of the Educational System of Iran and Guide to the Academic Placement of Students from Iran in the United States Educational Institutions", (Washington, D. C., The American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, 1970); see also, Joseph S. Szyliowicz, Education and Modernization in the Middle East (New York: Cornell University Press, 1973), pp. 420-421.

³⁵ Sadiq, Modern Persia and Her Educational System (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931), p. 36.

be taken under consideration. Among these characteristics and traditions, the "extreme severity and rigid discipline" was identified as a striking feature of Iranian education.

The planners of the Third Plan Frame for Iranian Education state: "by international standards, they [the Iranian teachers and their methods] are ineffective and fail in their most important task, that of teaching students to think for themselves. They use old-fashioned methods...."³⁶

In approximately the last twenty years, gradual changes and progress, though mostly in terms of quantity³⁷, have come about in all facets of the Iranian school system.³⁸ These changes include breaking away from an aristocratic, and to some extent meritocratic, type of philosophy and moving toward an egalitarian philosophy.³⁹ What was once a highly centralized system of education has been replaced by a regional type of decentralization in recent years.⁴⁰ Structurally, the Iranian educational system has changed from a 6-3-3

³⁶ Education -- "Third Plan Frame", Division of Economic Affairs (Tehran, Iran: Plan Organization, 1961), p. 17-18.

³⁷ See, for example, George B. Baldwin, "Iran's Experience with Manpower Planning: Concepts, Techniques, and Lessons," in Frederick Harliston and Charles Myers (ed.), Manpower and Education (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1965), pp. 140-141 and p. 158.

³⁸ Szyliowicz, Education and Modernization in the Middle East, pp. 391-395.

³⁹ Slocum, "Iran", p. 10.

⁴⁰ Richard F. Nyrop (ed.), Iran -- A Country Study, (Washington, D.C., The American University, 1978), p. 96. See also Joseph S. Szyliowicz, op. cit., pp. 426-427.

plan to the present form of 5-3-4.⁴¹ Once, the stated aims of the first cycle of secondary education in Iran were "to enrich the amount of knowledge taught in elementary schools and to prepare the students for the second cycle of secondary schools."⁴² Now its aims are "to discover and develop the aptitudes of the students and guide them in choosing a branch of study or occupation in line with the needs of the country and with their [the students'] interests and aptitudes."⁴³ As stated in the plan for education during the third plan period (1962-1967), the overall aim of the Iranian educational system "should be the development, through knowledge and training, of the full potentialities of the individuals...."⁴⁴

The foregoing statements and criticisms call attention to the fact that, until some kind of alteration or change is introduced into the Iranian educational system in general and into the relationships between teachers and students in particular, the stated objectives of the educational system (the realization of the full potentialities of the individual) cannot be achieved, and will become an unattainable end. For, although "human development is a

⁴¹ Iraj Ayman, Educational Innovation in Iran, (Paris: The Unesco Press, 1974), pp. 27-28.

⁴² Sadiq, Modern Persia and Her Educational System, p.63.

⁴³ Ministry of Education, "Decision of Convention on High School Education -- 1958," cited in Mohamad Ali Naghibzadeh and Arthur I. Lewis, Education in Iran: A Statement of the Program of Education and the Administration of Education in Iran, 1960, p. 14.

⁴⁴ Education -- "Third Plan Frame", p. 23.

continuous, process",⁴⁵ to help an individual student to realize his full potentialities, at least to some extent, demands that an environment conducive to learning must be provided. Such an environment, as maintained by Galen Saylor, is one that simultaneously provides for the many aspects of development, including "cognitive, intellectual,... social, moral, emotional, and physical"⁴⁶ of an individual. The full potentialities of individuals might, to some extent, be realized in an environment which provides those conditions that minimize threat, condemnation, criticism, ridicule, and depreciation in interpersonal relationships, while maximizing those aspects of interpersonal relationships which lead to the positive feeling of being "liked, wanted, acceptable, able, dignified, worthy"⁴⁷ in individuals.

However, as suggested by Tankard, among the procedures that can be used in identifying the needs are making use of or consulting the existing research, and conducting new research.⁴⁸

The investigator was unsuccessful in locating previous research concerning the principal-teacher and teacher-teacher

⁴⁵ Leslie W. Kindred and others; The Middle School Curriculum -- A Practitioner's Handbook (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1976), p. 13.

⁴⁶ Galen J. Saylor, "Humanistic Education: The Minimum Essentials", in Glen Hass (ed.), Curriculum Planning -- A New Approach (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1977), p. 14.

⁴⁷ Arthur W. Combs, "Some Basic Concepts in Perceptual Psychology", in Glen Hass (ed.), *op.cit.*, p. 162.

⁴⁸ George G. Tankard, Jr., Curriculum Improvement: An Administrator's Guide.

relationships in Iranian schools, or the Iranian educators' perceptions of the climate of the schools in which they play a part. Nor was the investigator able to locate any research with respect to the professional staff's pupil control ideologies in the Iranian educational system (see Appendix E). The absence of such research in the Iranian educational system prompted this investigation.

Significance of the Study

Since the recognition of pupil control ideology of the professional staffs of a school in relation to the organizational climate of the school may be considered an important step in determining the prevailing atmosphere of a school, this study is focused on the relationship between the climate of selected Iranian secondary schools and the orientation of the professional staffs (mainly teachers and administrators) of the schools toward the control of their students.

The results of this study may be helpful in leading school administrators to a better understanding of how their leadership behavior affects their schools' organizational climate, and how their school members perceive the administrators' leadership behavior. This will enable them to maximize the nature of the relationships that exist within the group. A study of this nature may also assist teachers to evaluate themselves and therefore to reconsider their attitude toward students. A study of this nature may also aid in producing further interest in the investigation of leadership behavior, organizational climate, and pupil control orientation

of and in-service training programs for school teachers, administrators, and other professional educational staff.

Limitations

For the purposes of this study the following limitations were applied:

(1) This study was limited to the schools in which the building principal and vice-principal had served in those positions for at least one academic year. Selection of the teachers was limited to those who had been in association with the principal and other staff members for at least one academic year, and who were discharging the majority of their teaching duties in the selected school.

(2) The subjects participating in the study were limited to secondary school administrators (principals and vice-principals) and teachers who were officially employed to administer the related schools' affairs and to teach in school districts of the township (county) of Shiraz, Iran.

(3) A further limitation was the exclusion of secondary vocational schools, adult evening secondary schools, and other special educational establishments within the township.

(4) The analysis of administrators' and teachers' pupil control ideology and the perceived organizational climate of their schools was limited to the responses given on the instruments employed in this study.

(5) Generalizations drawn from the findings of this study should be limited to the population sampled and to the general time period in which the study was conducted.

Definitions of the Terms

For the purposes of this study the following definitions were used:

Secondary School -- This term refers to those schools in Iran which are composed of the Guidance Cycle (equivalent to middle schools in the United States of America), serving students in grades 6 through 8, and the Intermediate schools (equivalent to the United States senior high schools), which serve students in grades 9 through 12.

School professional staff -- The term is used to refer to those individuals who are officially employed by the Ministry of Education and therefore are in charge of handling the administration and supervisory affairs of educational programs within a given school organization. Included are teachers who are officially responsible for imparting knowledge and facilitating the learning process of the students.

Organizational climate⁴⁹ -- The term is used to refer to the socio-psychological working conditions or environment, as perceived by

⁴⁹ This definition is adapted from: Thomas W. Wiggins, "Principal Behavior in the School Climate: A System Analysis," Educational Technology, Vol. II (September 1971). Terms related to organizational climate can be found in Appendix B.

the members of an organization, resulting from interactions between various role participants, especially principals and teachers, and among teachers involved in a given school organization "as they fulfill their prescribed role while satisfying their individual needs."

Pupil control ideology⁵⁰ — This term is used to refer to the personal beliefs held by the schools' professional staffs (administrators and/or teachers) concerning pupil control, not necessarily actual educators' behavior. This orientation has been conceptualized along a continuum ranging from "custodial" at one end to "humanistic" at the other (see Appendix B).

Organization of the Study

The present study is organized into five chapters. In the first chapter the background of the problem and the purposes of the study, justification for the study, significance and implication of the study, definitions of certain terms used, limitations, and the organization of the study are explained. The review of selected literature pertaining to the organizational climate and pupil control ideology are presented in the second chapter. Included in this chapter are the stated hypotheses. In the third chapter the methodology used in the conduct of the study is described. Included in this chapter are the

⁵⁰ Definitions related to pupil control ideology are adapted from: Donald J. Willower, T. L. Eidell, and W. K. Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology, The Pennsylvania State University Studies, No. 24 (University Park: Pennsylvania State University, 1967).

descriptions of the instruments used for the investigation, and the treatment of the collected data. The fourth chapter is devoted to the presentation of the results of the analysis of the data. The summary of the investigation, the findings, conclusions drawn from the study, and the recommendations are presented in the fifth chapter.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF SELECTED LITERATURE

The purpose of this chapter is to present relevant literature in the areas of organizational climate and pupil control ideology, and to review literature associated with the concepts which guided the research study. Literature pertaining to organizational climate is contained in the first section of this chapter. Literature relevant to pupil control ideology is provided in the second section. The last section of the chapter contains a summary and related conclusions drawn from studies presented in the chapter.

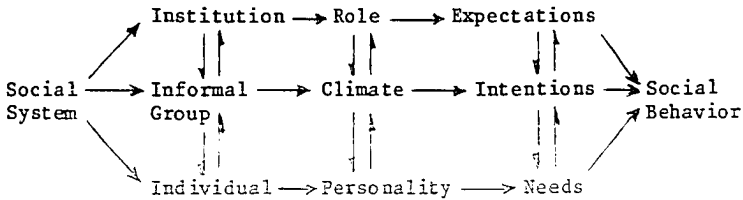
A. Research on the Organizational Climate

As noted in the preceding chapter, though implicitly, the present study is based on the organization theory that views a social organization, such as a school, as comprising a number of interdependent and interrelated parts.

More specifically, the theoretical model underlying the present study is based on the model proposed by Getzels and Guba,⁵¹ later

⁵¹ Getzels and Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," pp. 423-441.

refined by Getzels and Thelen,⁵² and elaborated upon by Argyris,⁵³ Abbott,⁵⁴ and Hoy and Miskel,⁵⁵ in which an organization, such as a school, is considered as a socio-psychological system having three basic dimensions. The three constituents of the system components (or dimensions) — each an important determiner of social behavior of an individual or a group of individuals in a given organization -- may be diagrammed as follows:



The first component of the model referred to as the "normative dimension" involves a number of more basic elements such as formal organization, or institution, role, and expectations. Institutions

⁵² Jacob W. Getzels and Herbert A. Thelen, "The Classroom Group as a Unique Social System," in Nelson B. Henry (ed.), The Dynamics of Instructional Groups: Socio-Psychological Aspects of Teaching and Learning (Chicago: The Fifty-Ninth Yearbook of the NSSE, Part II, 1960), pp. 53-81.

⁵³ Chris Argyris, "Some Problems in Conceptualizing Organizational Climate: A Case Study of a Bank," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. II, No. 4, (March 1958), pp. 501-519.

⁵⁴ Max G. Abbott, "Intervening Variables in Organizational Behavior", Educational Administration Quarterly, Vol. 1, No. 1, (Winter 1965), pp. 1-13.

⁵⁵ Hoy and Miskel, Educational Administration: Theory, Research, and Practice, (1978)

are formal organizations established for accomplishing certain specific objectives. In implementation of its mission, the different functions of an organization are assigned to positions or offices to be carried out by different people who are selected, based on their professional preparation, to help the organization accomplish its objectives. To achieve its mission as effectively and efficiently as possible, an organization lays down a set of principles and behavior expectations for each position and demands a certain amount of conformity from individual members. As observed by Getzels and Guba, schools are formal institutions established for the purposes of planning, policing, governing, and education of the people in a given social system. These functions are carried out by people who are assigned to a position, office, or status within the institution in which they play different roles accordingly. Their roles are defined in terms of prescribed normative rights and responsibilities, and the expectations that are held for various role incumbents guided by individual expertise.⁵⁶

The second dimension included in the model is the personal or "idiographic" dimension. This dimension also involves a number of more basic elements, including individual, his/her personality composed of his attitudes, interests, values, and perceptions, which has been termed "needs-disposition." Getzels and Guba refer to the individual's needs-disposition as those dynamic forces within the

⁵⁶ Getzels and Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process", pp. 424-425.

individual that "govern his unique reactions to the environment."⁵⁷ Each individual who joins the organization brings his own unique psychological, economical, and social needs. Individuals join the organization to help the organization achieve its objectives, but at the same time they are also interested in satisfying their own unique wants.⁵⁸ This component of the model calls attention to the fact that no two individuals who occupy roles or positions have the same personality, and thus they may behave differently in similar situations and under the same conditions.

The third component which is included in the model is referred to as "social organization" or informal group. As a result of the association and proximity of individual role incumbents in a formal organization such as a school, and their consequent interaction with one another, a social grouping known as an informal group usually forms.

The reasons for the formation of an informal group within a formal organization are numerous and varied. In addition to association or the face-to-face contact in the daily routine of their jobs, members of an organization get together for the purpose of taking care of their own felt needs.⁵⁹ Organization members, for example, get together to

⁵⁷ Ibid., p. 428; See also Getzels and Thelen, "The Classroom Group As a Unique Social System", p. 68.

⁵⁸ Max G. Abbott, "Intervening Variables in Organizational Behavior", pp. 5-6.

⁵⁹ Philip Selznick, "The Informal Organization", in Joseph A. Litterer (ed.), Organizations: Structure and Behavior (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1963), p. 146.

fulfill their unsatisfied personal or social needs. They get together to protect themselves from an arbitrary established policy, regulations, and expectations or demands made by formal organizations. The informal group thus grew out of the situation and has its roots in the social needs and requirements of people as they define their situation within the organization.⁶⁰ William Scott observed that besides the social needs factor there are a number of other determinants, such as the nature of the job or task to be performed, the location of work in the organization, the existence of special issues, and the communality of interests among the individual members of an organization, as reasons for the formation of an informal group.⁶¹ The informal group may be developed as a device for counteracting possible conflicts between the institutional expectations and the individual's needs and interests, or it may emerge in support of the formal organization.⁶²

⁶⁰ Joseph A. Litterer, Organizations: Structure and Behavior, p. 139.

⁶¹ William G. Scott, "Organization Theory: An Overview and Appraisal", in Joseph A. Litterer (ed.), Organizations: Structure and Behavior, p. 17; see also: William B. Castetter, The Personnel Function in Educational Administration (New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, Inc., 1976), pp. 23-24.

⁶² Getzels and Thelen, "The Classroom Group as a Unique Social System", p. 79; see also: Stephen J. Knezevich, Administration of Public Education (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1969), pp. 38-39.

Each of the above-mentioned multilevel, simultaneously existing, three major component parts of an organization plays a functional role and feeds back upon the other constituent parts. They do not operate independently of one another. They interact on the basis of an overall interdependency and a mutually-interacting pattern in which each supports the other in its self-maintenance and to balance the pattern. It is through this process of achieving a balance between these different variables that the climate of organization evolves.⁶³

Organizational climate has been defined in a number of ways by a number of different writers. For instance, Forehand and Gilmer (1964) define it as:

[a] set of characteristics that describe an organization and that (a) distinguish the organization from other organizations, (b) are relatively enduring over time, and (c) influence the behavior of people in the organization.[64]

This definition is echoed by Pritchard and Karasick, who point out that:

Organizational climate is a relatively enduring quality of an organization's internal environment distinguishing it from other organizations; (a) which results form the behavior and policies of members of the organization, especially top management; (b) which is perceived by members of the organization; (c) which serves as a basis for interpreting the

⁶³ Chris Argyris, "Some Problems in Conceptualizing Organizational Climate:" pp. 501-516.

⁶⁴ Garlie A. Forehand and B. Von Haller Gilmer, "Environmental Variation in Studies of Organizational Behavior," Psychological Bulletin, Vol. 62, No. 6 (December 1964), p. 362.

situation; and (d) which acts as a source of pressure for directing activity.[65]

Another definition of organizational climate is provided by Hodgetts and Altman, who write:

Organizational climate refers to a set of properties of the work environment perceived by individuals who work there and which serve as a major force in influencing their job behavior.[66]

In the light of the foregoing definitions of the organizational climate, one might infer that the organizational climate is the term used to describe a particular set of characteristics of an organization in terms of the internal quality of work environment of an organization that is felt and perceived by the organization's members and is a potent source of influence on their job behavior.

The concept of organizational climate is a complex one. Its complexity stems from the fact that many factors combine to influence, shape, and produce the unique atmosphere or climate of an organization, and it cannot be attributed to a single factor. Therefore, for many years the concept of organizational climate and its various contributing components has been a main subject in research studies. Some of the most frequently assumed and reported

⁶⁵ Robert D. Pritchard and Bernard W. Karasick, "The Effects of Organizational Climate on Managerial Job Performance and Job Satisfaction", Organizational Behavior and Human Performance: A Journal of Fundamental Research and Theory in Applied Psychology, Vol. 9 (1973), p. 126.

⁶⁶ Richard M. Hodgetts and Steven Altman, Organizational Behavior (Philadelphia, PA.: W. B. Saunders Company, 1979), p. 344.

variables that have been identified as contributing factors in the formation of a particular climate in organization are: structure of authority and interpersonal relationships, organizational policy, the nature of the organization's objectives, leadership style and the values of the administrators, the characteristics of the organization's members, size of the organization in terms of the number of its members,⁶⁷ communication networks, decision-making practices, technological adequacy in terms of equipment and resource availability,⁶⁸ concern for the individual's welfare, and motivational practices.

To define the organizational climate of a school, Halpin and Croft have drawn an analogy between the climate of an organization and the personality of an individual,⁶⁹ perhaps to bring attention to the issue of the complexity of the concept of the climate and to stress the importance of its effect upon the organization's members' behavior. While Halpin and Croft do not ignore the possibility of other factors intervening in and influencing the climate, they contend that the organizational climate of a school is a product of the individuals' interactions with one another within the school

⁶⁷ Donald D. White and H. William Vroman, Action in Organizations: Cases and Experiences in Organizational Behavior (Boston: Holbrook Press, Inc., 1977), pp. 315-317; see also, B. V. Haller Gilmar, 1971, op. cit., p. 46.

⁶⁸ Rensis Likert and Jane Gibson Likert, New Ways of Managing Conflict (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1976), pp. 73-74.

⁶⁹ Halpin and Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools, p. 4.

environment, especially interactions between and among the principal and teachers. Commenting on the number of factors which could be conceived as influential variables or factors upon the school's climate, Halpin and Croft state:

The following, at the very least, would need to be taken into account: the socio-economic status of the school's patron; the biographical and personality characteristics of the principal and the teachers; the 'quality' of the students; the attitudes of the parents toward the school; the school's physical plant; the teachers' salary schedule; the location of the school; the educational and administrative policies of the school district; and, of prime importance... the social interactions that occur between the teachers and the principal.[70]

Elsewhere, Halpin and Croft elucidate and add that:

... This, of course, is merely a restatement of the obvious observation that the major components of a school's organizational climate are associated with individuals qua individuals, with the group qua the group, and with the principal as the leader.[71]

One of the earliest research studies pertaining to the organizational climate of schools can be attributed to Francis G. Cornell and his associates. Cornell (1955) reported that he and his associates hypothesized that a teacher's behavior or response to particular administrative decisions or actions is conditioned by a combination of variables in organizational climate and the teacher's own variables. They used the concept of organizational climate, defining it as:

⁷⁰ Ibid., p. 7.

⁷¹ Ibid., p. 44; see also: Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration, pp. 161-162.

...a delicate blending of interpretations (or perceptions as social psychologists would call it) by persons in the organization of their jobs or roles in relationship to others and their interpretations of the roles of others in their organization.[72]

While assuming that the organizational climate was measurable, they attempted, according to Cornell, to assess the climate of the schools. They conducted an investigation involving four groups of almost homogeneous school systems in the United States. In addition to the teachers' biographical information, professional attitudes and personality characteristics, Cornell and his associates utilized the following variables in their study of organizational climate of schools:

(1) "teachers' morale," or the extent of their satisfaction with respect to their relationships to the school organization;

(2) teachers' expectation of participation and sharing in the school's policy-making process;

(3) teachers' feeling of the magnitude and limits of the responsibility that is given to them with regard to the sharing of their views in school policy formation;

(4) teachers' feelings of how seriously their views or opinions about the school policies were taken into consideration; and

(5) the magnitude of the teachers' direct and reciprocal contact with the administrative personnel with regard to general school problems.

⁷² Cornell, "Socially Perceptive Administration," pp. 222.

Cornell reported that their study yielded three factors, two of which had the greatest effect, as measures of organizational climate. These factors were: (a) teachers' morale or satisfaction of teachers with their relationship to the school organization, (b) the extent to which teachers expect to participate and share in the school's policy-making activities, and (c) teachers' professional attitudes.

Cornell reported that the results of their study led them to conclude that the organizational climate of a school is real, measurable, and important, and that it demonstrably affects how that system will function.⁷³

One possible approach to assessing the climate of an organization is to observe, formally or informally, the ongoing activities of organizations. In such a field study, the ongoing activities of an organization may provide a researcher with a sensitive feel for the organization's climate. Another possible approach in studying organizational climate is to obtain information indirectly through a systematic investigation of organizations' members' perceptions.⁷⁴ Many writers and students of organizational climate emphasize the assessment of organizational climate by means of organizations' members' perceptions, since the organizational practices and procedures are experienced by the members, and these experiences may

⁷³ Ibid., pp. 222-223.

⁷⁴ B. Von Haller Gilmer, Industrial and Organizational Psychology, pp. 44-45.

in turn contribute to the members' summaries of perceptions or views of the general socio-psychological working environment.⁷⁵

A number of questionnaire instruments have been developed as a research tool for assessing the organizational climate of schools. One such instrument is the Organizational Climate Index (OCI), developed by George G. Stein and Steinhoff.⁷⁶ Another instrument is the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire Form IV (OCDQ) developed by Halpin and Croft.

Halpin and Croft (1963) observed how schools differ⁷⁷, leading them to conduct their research which involved seventy-one elementary schools in six different regions of the United States. Halpin and Croft were the first to develop an operational measure of organizational climate of a school, for use in the public schools of the United States of America. The OCDQ instrument enabled them to portray and graphically describe the organizational climate of elementary schools. The OCDQ has undergone several tests, revisions, and refinements from an original 600 questions on Form I to

⁷⁵ Lawrence R. James and Allan P. Jones, "Organizational Climate: A Review of Theory and Research," Psychological Bulletin, Vol. 81, No. 12, 1974, pp. 1096-1112; see also: Benjamin Schneider, "The Perception of Organizational Climate: The Customer's View" Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 57, No. 3, 1973, pp. 248-256.

⁷⁶ For a detailed description of the Organizational Climate Index, see Robert G. Owens, Organizational Behavior in Schools (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1970), pp. 184-190.

⁷⁷ Halpin and Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools, p.4.

64 on Form IV, the form presently in use.⁷⁸ Through research and by use of advanced statistical methods, namely factor analysis methods, Halpin and Croft identified and described eight dimensions of a school climate as perceived by the school staffs, based on the 1,151 respondents' answers to the 64 items. Four of these dimensions are related to and describe the teachers' behavior: "Disengagement", "Hindrance", "Intimacy", and "Esprit". The remaining four are related to and describe the principal's (or leader's) behavior: "Aloofness", "Production-emphasis", "Thrust", and "Consideration". Halpin and Croft also, through further analysis, using a school's scores on the eight subtests, identified six distinct prototypes of organizational climate which they arrayed along a continuum named as follows: "Open", "Autonomous", "Controlled", "Familiar", "Paternal", and "Closed".⁷⁹ The definitions of the eight subtests of the OCDQ and the six distinct climates, as defined by Halpin and Croft, are included in Appendix B. However, the eight dimensions or subtests of organizational climate can be succinctly defined as follows:

Teacher's Behavior

- (1) Disengagement -- refers to the behavior of a teacher or group of teachers with a low-level work ethic. This dimension describes the group not working well together, and going through the motions in an uninterested and uninvolved fashion.

⁷⁸ For a more detailed description of the revisions made to the OCDQ readers are referred to Halpin and Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools, pp. 18-36.

⁷⁹ Halpin and Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools, pp. 60-66.

- (2) Hindrance -- refers to the teachers' feelings that the principal unnecessarily burdens them with non-teaching duties, considered to be busy-work.
- (3) Esprit -- refers to "morale", the teachers' feeling of well-being, satisfaction, and achievement, which they associate with their job.
- (4) Intimacy -- refers to teachers' feeling of good-fellowship with one another, not necessarily associated with the job.

Principal's Behavior

- (5) Aloofness -- refers to a principal's impersonal, formal behavior, characterized by a by-the-book approach to dealing with teachers.
- (6) Production-Emphasis -- refers to behavior by a principal who is work-oriented and closely supervises his staff. He usually is not open to feedback from the staff.
- (7) Thrust -- refers to the supervisory behavior of the principal who is task-oriented, but who motivates his subordinates by personally working hard, thereby setting an example. His behavior is marked by not asking the staff members to do more than he himself would do.
- (8) Consideration -- refers to behavior by the principal which is characterized by humane, thoughtful, and sympathetic behavior toward teachers.[80]

From the scores on these eight subtests, Halpin and Croft constructed a profile of the organizational climate for each school. Through further analysis of the profiles of the seventy-one schools in their study, Halpin and Croft were able to identify three major factors which were underlying the organizational climate of the

⁸⁰ These definitions of the eight subtests of the OCDQ are adapted from: Andrew W. Halpin and Don B. Croft, "The Organizational Climate of Schools", Administrator's Notebook, Vol. XI, No. 7, (March, 1963).

sampled schools. The three factors are: (1) social needs; (2) esprit; and (3) social control. The social needs factor, represented by the Intimacy and Consideration subtests, according to Halpin and Croft, is a measure of the individual and/or group member's social needs satisfaction. The esprit factor, represented by the Esprit and Thrust subtests, with a high positive loading, and the Disengagement and Hindrance subtests with a high negative loading, is a measure of the group morale. The social control factor, represented by the Aloofness and Production-Emphasis subtests, is a measure of the principal's behavior; it refers to the control(s) exercised by him as he is directing the behavior of his staff to accomplish the organization's goals.⁸¹

The concepts developed by Halpin and Croft generated numerous investigations into the existing relationship between the organizational climate and other school-related variables. The development of the OCDQ also provided the major impetus for others to investigate the reliability and validity of the eight subtests of the questionnaire, and the six distinct climate classifications identified by the authors.

In the following sections, a review of some of the studies concerned with examination of the validity and reliability of the OCDQ and the relevant findings are reported. Then, some of the research

⁸¹ Halpin and Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools, (1963), pp. 42-44; see also Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration, pp. 161-163.

studies in which the OCDQ has been utilized, either as an assessment tool by itself or in conjunction with other tools, concerning the relationships between the organizational climate of school and other variables are included.

Halpin and Croft acknowledged the importance of validity for any measuring instrument and added:

We are not quite sure against what criteria we should seek to check the climate scores. We can not rule out the possibility that the climate profiles may indeed constitute a better criterion on a school's 'effectiveness' than many measures that already have entered the field of educational administration... and... masquerade as criteria. We simply do not know. Yet we surmise that the eight dimensions and the six climates which we have delineated... will survive the crucible of cross-validation.[82]

They suggested that subsequent studies might examine the validity of the instrument.

Subsequent research on the validity of the OCDQ was conducted by Carl G. Roseveare (1965) who developed an interview schedule called Esprit-Thrust Interview Schedule (ETIS). The ETIS was used to validate the Esprit and Thrust subtests of the OCDQ. Roseveare concluded that the subtest Esprit of the OCDQ appeared to have validity and that the Thrust subtest was also a valid measure.⁸³

James L. Pritchard also conducted a study to estimate the concurrent validity of the OCDQ. Pritchard used the non-faculty school

⁸² Halpin and Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools, pp. 82-83.

⁸³ Carl G. Roseveare, "The Validity of Selected Subtests of the OCDQ", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 25, No. 12, p. 7051-A., 1965.

personnel's perceptions of their school organizational climate ratings on the eight subtests of the OCDQ. These were then compared to the perceptions of the school's professional staffs. He found that five of the eight dimensions of the OCDQ were significantly agreed upon by the non-faculty members. The non-faculty's ratings correlated 0.25, on the average, with teachers' and principals' ratings of the eight OCDQ dimensions. Three of the subtests, Hindrance at the 0.05 level, Thrust and Consideration at the 0.01 level, were significantly correlated. Esprit and Production-Emphasis also indicated positive correlation between non-faculty and faculty's rating (0.24).⁸⁴

Perhaps one of the more extensive and significant validity studies reported thus far on the OCDQ has been by John H.M. Andrews.⁸⁵ "Construct Validity" was the approach he used in his study. In an effort to validate the OCDQ, Andrews investigated 165 Alberta (Canada) schools, both elementary and secondary. Based on the data obtained from these schools, he concluded that, in general, the evidence provided through these studies indicated that the eight subtests are a valid and reliable measure of the concepts they purported to measure. In Andrews's words, the "theoretical importance of the concepts measures and the internal consistency of the subtests" attested to the

⁸⁴ James Leon Pritchard, "Validation of the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire Against Perception of Non-Faculty School Personnel", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 27, No. 6, p. 2037-A, 1966.

⁸⁵ Andrews, "School Organizational Climate: Some Validity Studies", pp. 317-334; also see: Andrew W. Halpin, "Change and Organizational Climate", The Journal of Educational Administration, Vol. V., No. 1, (May 1967), pp. 7-8.

fact that relationships with other variables were apparent. Andrews acknowledged that the OCDQ provides "reasonably valid measures of important aspects of the school principal's leadership, in the perspective of interaction with staff."⁸⁶ Andrews also concluded that the OCDQ could be appropriately used for schools other than elementary. However, he also maintained that the climate categories cannot inform or enlighten the investigators into the organizational climate any better than the results obtained from the subtests' scores. Andrews also protested the use of the overall climate categorizations on the ground that the concept of organizational climate is much broader in scope than the instrument measures. Andrews states that the organizational climate, as measured by the OCDQ, does not deal with the social components of the climate generally, but with only a portion of the total social interactions, that is, between the teachers and the principal. This leaves out a significant type of interaction, that of teachers with students.⁸⁷

Other investigators attempted to replicate the work of Halpin and Croft to verify the findings. One example of such research was done by Robert Brown.⁸⁸ The chief objectives of his study were: (1) to repeat the work of Halpin and Croft in the development of the OCDQ and to establish norms for the Minnesota elementary sample schools,

⁸⁶ Andrews, "School Organizational Climate: Some Validity Studies", pp. 332-333.

⁸⁷ Ibid, P. 332.

⁸⁸ Robert John Brown, "Identifying and Classifying Organizational Climate in Twin City Area Elementary Schools", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 26, No. 1, pp. 162-163, 1965.

and (2) to check the reliability of the OCDQ. Using the original OCDQ with a sample of 81 elementary schools, Brown found that the "pattern of subtest intercorrelations was comparable to that found in the Halpin and Croft study." Brown concluded that "the OCDQ is a well-constructed instrument which can and should continue to be used." He also cautiously asserted the reliability of the OCDQ.

Nirmal Mehra (1967) used the OCDQ to investigate the organizational climate of the secondary schools in the state of Delhi, India. He also attempted to identify the basic factors underlying the organizational climate of the schools. An auxiliary objective of his study was to explore the applicability of the OCDQ to schools in India, a country which has different cultural and administrative conditions, and compared the results of his study to that of Halpin and Croft. Following Halpin and Croft's factorial analysis at the item level and subsequently at the subtest level, Mehra reported that his results were consistent with those of Halpin and Croft. Mehra, like Halpin and Croft, identified the following eight dimensions: "Disengagement, Aversivity, Esprit, Intimacy, Control, Hindrance, Thrust, and Task-Orientation." Mehra also identified three major factors, similar to Halpin and Croft's, underlying the organizational climate of schools in India. The three basic factors were reported to be: Esprit, Social Needs, and Social Control. Mehra concluded that:

- (1) Girls' schools are more open than boys' schools,
- (2) Government schools are more open than privately-aided schools, and
- (3) The location of the school is relatively independent of the climate factor.

Mehra indicated that the OCDQ, with some modification and strengthening, could be used to measure the organizational climate of secondary schools in India.⁸⁹

Jusefina Resurreccion (1968) also replicated the work of Halpin and Croft in an attempt to identify the organizational climate of elementary schools in Manila, the Philippines, a much different cultural setting. His additional aims included testing the reliability of the OCDQ as a research tool, or instrument, and to establish the OCDQ norms in Manila. Resurreccion investigated seventy (70) elementary schools, following the same procedures that Halpin and Croft used in identification of the organizational climates of elementary schools in the United States. Based on the analysis of the data obtained from 864 respondents, Resurreccion reported that it was possible for him to identify and classify the organizational climates of Manila schools into four different categories. Two of these were comparable to Halpin and Croft's open and closed climate categories, and the other two were the hybrids of the climate types, also identified by Halpin and Croft, namely (1) Autonomous-Familiar, and (2) Controlled-Paternal.⁹⁰

As part of a much wider investigation into organizational climates of Australian schools, sponsored by the Department of

⁸⁹ Nirmal Mehra, "Organizational Climate of Secondary Schools: State of Delhi, India", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 29, No. 1, p. 100-A, 1967.

⁹⁰ Jusefina R. Resurreccion, "Identifying and Classifying Organizational Climates of Elementary Schools in Manila", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 30, No. 1, p. 111-A, 1969.

Education, University of New England, Ross A. Thomas and R. C. Slater used the OCDQ to investigate the organizational climate of seventy-two (72) elementary schools in the Southern State of Australia. The selected schools were representative of a variety of school sizes and locations, including urban, suburban, and rural situations. Although the respondents (727 school teachers) were also representative of many diversified sample schools, nevertheless, they were still members of one unified system of education. The investigators, through application of the four-factor rotational solution -- the only difference in analytical procedure as compared to the Halpin and Croft three-factors solution -- were able to identify four factors or dimensions underlying the sampled schools' organizational climates. The four dimensions they found in this study were Supportiveness and Operation-emphasis -- reported to be related to and describe the principal's leadership behavior and style, and Intimacy and Disaffiliation, considered to be related to and describe the teachers' interaction patterns and cohesiveness. Based on the analysis of the data, Thomas and Slater concluded that "the OCDQ does serve to discriminate between the 'tone' or 'organizational climate' of Australian primary schools."⁹¹

Andrew Hayes conducted a study to determine the extent to which Halpin and Croft's OCDQ was "useful for supporting a conceptualization of the organizational climate of schools". In his study, Hayes

⁹¹ A. Ross Thomas and R. C. Slater, "The OCDQ: A Four Factor Solution for Australian Schools?", The Journal of Educational Administration, Vol. 10, No. 2, (October 1972), pp. 197-204.

utilized two separate sampled data; one was the original Halpin and Croft study, while the other was collected from fifteen (15) other separate research studies which had been conducted during a three year period from 1969 to 1972. Hayes reported that most of the new data included in his study were from the Eastern states, with only one small sample from the Pacific coast states of the U.S. To estimate the reliability of the OCDQ dimensions and the climate profile, Hayes analyzed his data by applying several maximum-likelihood factor analyses and multiple discriminant analyses. As the results of his analyses of the data obtained from the original study of Halpin and Croft, Hayes reported that the results provided strong support for the dimensions of climate that were identified by Halpin and Croft. Also, based on the analysis of his new data, Hayes found nine dimensions of climate rather than only eight, as in Halpin and Croft's model. Two of Hayes' dimensions, referred to as "Logistical Support" and Object Socialization" were not found in Halpin and Croft's study. In addition, "Aloofness", as identified by Halpin and Croft, was not found by Hayes. Although Hayes found reliability for some of the dimensions to be low, the climate profile was found to be quite stable. He suggested, however, that some of the sixty-four items on the OCDQ should be deleted and some others rewritten.⁹²

⁹² Andrew Eugene Hayes, "A Reappraisal of the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 33, No. 9, p. 4730-A, 1972; also see A. E. Hayes, A Reappraisal of the Halpin-Croft Model of the Organizational Climate of Schools, Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, February 25-March 1, 1973, p. 1, (ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 075 934).

A number of research studies of organizational climates have concentrated on examination of the relationship between the principal's behavioral characteristics and leadership style. This possibly can be explained as due, in part, to the fact that the principal is the key figure within a school, the one who has the authority, no matter how limited, to preside over organizational affairs including the allocation of resources and personnel, supervision of the staff's performance, setting up policies for the school, and the making of decisions on procedures to carry out relevant functions. Since the principal's values, attitudes, and other personal characteristics influence, in part, his behavior and his style of leadership, the principal is presumed to be a crucial factor in creating and setting the climate of a school organization.⁹³

Another explanation possibly can be due partly to the nature of the instrument (the OCDQ) which makes administrative behavior the focus of attention. It was the assumption of the authors of the OCDQ that the climate of a school is largely determined by administrative actions of the principal. Halpin and Croft stated that:

An essential determinant of a school's 'effectiveness' as an organization is the principal's ability — or his lack of ability — to create a climate in which he and other group members, can initiate and consummate acts of leadership.[94]

⁹³ Clarence A. Newell, Human Behavior In Educational Administration (Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1978), p. 189.

⁹⁴ Halpin and Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools, pp. 7-8.

Consequently, a number of investigators have dealt directly with the principal of the school as an influential factor on the existing organizational climate of a school.

For example, Thomas Wiggins, through the use of the "Fundamental Interpersonal Relationship Orientation - Behavior" (FIRO-B) questionnaire, which gauges leader behavior, investigated the behavioral characteristics of thirty-one elementary school principals, as they related to the school climate. He found that leader behavior and organizational climate were not significantly related. However, a significant relationship was found between the principal's interpersonal orientation and school climate. Wiggins reported that leader replacement had no effect on the existing climate of the school and that it remained stable after eight months. He also found that principals exhibited similar behavioral characteristics of high task orientation, including being kind and considerate of subordinates, but desirous of independence in decision-making.⁹⁵

Unlike Wiggins, Thomas A. Petrie,⁹⁶ who also investigated the relationship between the organizational climate and leader behavior, especially with the leader succession as the main thesis, reported that significant changes were found in both leader and group behavior

⁹⁵ Thomas Winfield Wiggins, "Leader Behavior Characteristics and Organizational Climate", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 29, No. 8, pp. 2504,5-A, 1968; see also: Thomas W. Wiggins, "A Comparative Investigation of Principal Behavior and School Climate," The Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 66, No. 3, (November 1972), pp. 103-105.

⁹⁶ Thomas Alan Petrie, "Change in Organizational Climate After Leader Succession", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 27, No. 6, pp. 1557,58-A, 1966.

after leader succession. Petrie reported that the findings indicated that there were significant positive relationships between the Thrust dimension of the OCDQ -- the leader behavior -- and the Esprit and Intimacy dimensions -- the group behavior. However, he reported that the Disengagement scores were inversely related to Thrust scores. An ancillary purpose of Petrie's investigation had been to examine the relationships between certain organizational and environmental variables and changes in organizational climate. Petrie found no significant relationships between the change in organizational climate and the selected environmental and organizational variables.

Deriving his rationale from the Getzels and Guba social systems model, James P. Hall developed an instrument called the "Leadership Orientation Questionnaire" (LOQ) with which to investigate and measure the relationship between perceptions of a principal's leadership orientation and the organizational climate of his school. The LOQ, according to Hall, is capable of identifying a principal's administrative process (or leadership behavior) within each of the six levels of being: high, moderate, and low on Normative (or Nomothetic) and Personal (or Idiographic) dimensions of the model. Hall reported that he analyzed the data obtained based on the perceptions of four separate reference groups: the principals, the teachers, the professional and para-professional office staffs, and the combination of all the school's members, including the principals in twenty secondary schools. Hall found that the leadership orientation of the school principal and the organizational climate of a school are

significantly related.⁹⁷

In an attempt to determine the relationships between the organizational climates of twenty-five Indiana elementary schools, as perceived by each school's teachers and principal, and the emphasis the principals placed on selected administrative skills: technical, human and conceptual, Denney G. French found that principals perceived their school's climate as being more open than their teachers did, but this was not statistically significant. French reported that principals who placed high emphasis on human skills were identified in schools with a more open climate, while a principal's emphasis on technical and conceptual skills apparently was not related to the school's organizational climate to any marked degree. French explained:

Elementary school principals, as a group, tend to believe they emphasize human skills to a greater extent than they do either technical or conceptual skills in the performance of their role.[98]

Richard D. Tirpak investigated the relationships between organizational climate of forty-nine elementary schools and the personal characteristics of the schools' principals. The personal

⁹⁷ James P. Hall, "Exploration Among Perceptions of the Leadership Orientation of Secondary School Principals and the Organizational Climates of the Schools They Administer", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 31, No. 7, pp. 3209-10-A, 1970.

⁹⁸ Denney Gerald French, "The Relationship Between Teachers' and Principals' Perceptions of Organizational Climate in Elementary Schools and Principals' Perceptions of Administrative Skills", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 32, No. 8, p. 4280-A, 1971.

characteristics included: age, years of formal education, intelligence, and personality traits of the principals. One of Tirpak's findings was that the principal's personality traits have a significant influence on the creation and maintenance of the school's organizational climate. He reported that in the "open climate" schools the principals were warmhearted, sociable, good-natured, persevering, determined, conscientious, and attentive to people. These principals demonstrated a high degree of emotional stability and frustration tolerance, and a calm, realistic approach to life.⁹⁹

Cowan Crum (1977) conducted an investigation to examine if there was a significant relationship between the teachers' perceptions of the closedness of the organizational climate of their elementary schools in South Carolina and the self-concepts of the principals of these schools.¹⁰⁰ To measure the self-concepts of the principals, Crum utilized the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS). According to Crum, the TSCS is a 100-item self-descriptive instrument which is divided into the following six sub-scales: (1) Physical self,

⁹⁹ Richard Daniel Tirpak, "Relationship Between Organizational Climate of Elementary Schools and Personal Characteristics of the Schools' Principals", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 32, No. 1, pp. 145,46-A, 1970.

¹⁰⁰ Cowan Donald Crum, "The Relationship Between Principal Self Concept and the Degree of Closedness of the Organizational Climate of Selected Elementary Schools", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 38, No. 7-8, p. 3823-A, 1977.

(2) Moral-Ethical self, (3) Personal self, (4) Social self, (5) Family self, and (6) Self-criticism. Crum found no significant association between the total self-concept scores of principals and the degree of closedness of the climate of the schools under investigation, as perceived by the teachers. He reported that there were, however, (a) a significant negative correlation between the principal's physical self, as measured by the subscale of the TSCS, and the Disengagement subtest of the OCDQ, and (b) a significant positive correlation between the principal's personal self, as measured by the subscale of the TSCS, and the Production-Emphasis subtest of the OCDQ.

Since the publication of the original report of Halpin and Croft's study of school climates in 1963, the OCDQ has been used in several studies in which the situational factors and their connections to the organizational climates of schools were investigated.

One such study was conducted by Alexander Feldvebel (1964).¹⁰¹ He utilized the OCDQ in a study investigating (1) whether school organizational climate was a function of the socio-economic status of the community, and (2) whether pupil achievement, as measured by the Stanford Achievement Test (SAT), was a function of the organizational climate as well as the socio-economic status of the community in which the school operated. He analyzed his obtained data on two different bases: (a) the global or general concept of organizational climate, or the profile pattern of a school's climate

¹⁰¹ Alexander M. Feldvebel, "Organizational Climate, Social Class, and Educational Output", Administrator's Notebook, Vol. XII, No. 8 (April, 1964).

identified and described based on the scores obtained on all eight subtests of the instrument, and (b) the subtest level, by which each subtest was considered separately.

The results of Feldvebel's study indicated that there was no significant relationship between the general concept of organizational climate and the socio-economic level of the community within which the schools operate. Nor did he find a significant relationship between the general concept of organizational climate and pupil achievement.

When Feldvebel analyzed the data on the subtest level, however, he found that two of the subtests or dimensions of the organizational climate (Production-Emphasis and Consideration, both representatives of leader behavior) were significantly related to pupil achievement. It was also found that the Consideration and Hindrance dimensions, which describe the principal's behavior, were associated with the social class level of the community. Accordingly, he concluded that these associations, though not powerful, "tend to reinforce a belief in the significance of the leadership role in organizational goal attainment."

Luter Rogers (1969)¹⁰² also conducted an investigation to compare the organizational climate perceptions of teachers and principals serving in schools with disadvantaged populations and those who were serving in schools with affluent populations. An additional purpose of his study was to examine if there were relationships between

¹⁰² Luter Rayford Rogers, "A Comparative Study of Organizational Climate in Disadvantaged and Affluent Schools", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 31, No. 1, p. 122-A, 1969.

certain situational and biographical factors, such as organizational levels, age, and experience in educational organization, and perceptions of organizational climate within the samples of disadvantaged and affluent schools. Rogers found that there was a connection between the organizational climate and the socio-economic level of the community within which schools are located. He also found that there was a "significant tendency toward a closed climate in the disadvantaged and affluent secondary schools and the disadvantaged elementary schools." Rogers reported that, while the principals' perceptions of the organizational climate in the disadvantaged and affluent schools did not differ significantly, teachers' perceptions of the organizational climate differed significantly between elementary and secondary schools. As reported by Rogers, teachers' perceptions of organizational climate "differed significantly in favor of affluent schools on measures of Esprit and Intimacy in the elementary schools and on measures of Hindrance and Esprit on the secondary level." Rogers also found a close association between experience in education and perceptions of teachers in the disadvantaged schools. No significant relationship was found between perceptions of organizational climate and age of educators.

George Richens compared the organizational climates of urban and suburban high schools in a study in 1967. He compared thirty urban and thirty-three suburban high schools located in Detroit and the "Twin Cities" (St. Paul - Minneapolis). He found that there was no significant relationship between "the staff-perceived climate and the location of the high school in either an urban or a suburban

setting."¹⁰³

A number of studies have dealt with the school climate's effects on student achievement and other variables. Evidence obtained from investigation into the relationship between the school's organizational climate and student achievement are somewhat inconclusive.

Joseph Flagg, for example, in 1964 used the OCDQ to discover the climates of ten elementary schools in Newark, New Jersey, and to explore the possibly existing relationships between the organizational climate and such variables as school size, pupil achievement in reading, and teacher turnover in each of the respective schools.

The results of his study led him to conclude that: (1) there was a direct relationship between the size of the school in terms of the numbers of staff members and the school climate (the larger the size of the school, the more it tends to be closed); (2) no relationship could be established between the school climate and pupil achievement in reading, owing mostly to the relative sameness of climate of the schools in the study; and (3) "the characteristics of principals as leaders largely determine the climate of the schools over which they have control." Finally, he concluded that the OCDQ is a useful instrument which can be used to measure the organizational climate of

¹⁰³ George LeRoy Richens, "Urban and Suburban High Schools: A Comparative Study of Organizational Climate", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 28, No. 12, pp. 4861-62-A, 1967.

a school.¹⁰⁴

Another study which focused on the effects school climate has on students' achievement and other variables was conducted by Robert Rice (1968). Rice sought to examine the relationship between the organizational climate and students' achievement. He controlled and clustered schools in his study based on the social status of the individual school districts, in Southern California, into four distinct groups. He reported that the results of his study disclosed a slight but not significant relationship between open climate and high achievement in two upper social ranks. But he could find "no relationship between the climate and achievement in the two lower social ranks of the schools." He also could find no significant relationship between the eight subtests of the OCDQ and students' achievement. Rice reached the conclusion that "while there is apparently no significant relationship between the climate of an elementary school and its achievements in general terms, nevertheless there seems to be some evidence that 'open' [climate] schools are more related to high achievement than the other five types of climates as determined by the OCDQ."¹⁰⁵

In a similar study, Harris Miller (1968) undertook an

¹⁰⁴ Joseph Thomas Flagg, Jr., "The Organizational Climate of Schools: Its Relationship to Pupil Achievement, Size of School, and Teacher Turnover", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 26, No. 2, p. 818, 1964.

¹⁰⁵ Robert K. Rice, "The Relationship Between Organizational Climate and Student Achievement", Dissertation Abstracts Vol. 29, No. 6, p. 1731-A, 1968.

investigation of the relationships between the "openness" of the climate and the eight dimensions of the organizational climates of twenty-nine elementary schools in an urban school district and pupil achievement. He found that the overall openness of school climate appeared to be related to pupil achievement, particularly in "language skills, work-study skills, and arithmetic problem-solving skills." He reported that the separate climate dimensions were not found to be equally related to pupil achievement. However, he also concluded that "climate dimensions which are descriptive of teachers' behavior (Disengagement and Esprit most frequently, Hindrance and Intimacy less frequently) as a group seem to be more important in terms of pupil achievement than those related to the behavior of the principal."¹⁰⁶

Likewise, Jack Hale (1965)¹⁰⁷ conducted a study to discover the link between students' achievement in reading, arithmetic, and language, as measured by the California Achievement Tests (CAT), and the eight subtests of the OCDQ. He concluded that he could find no relationship between climate subtests or dimensions and achievement in reading or arithmetic, but he did find relationships between climate subtests or dimensions and achievement in language and four of the subtests: Hindrance, Esprit, Aloofness, and Production-Emphasis.

¹⁰⁶ Harris Edgar Miller, "An Investigation of Organizational Climate As A Variable in Pupil Achievement Among 29 Elementary Schools in Urban School districts", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 29, No. 10, pp. 3387-88-A, 1969.

¹⁰⁷ Jack Hale, "A Study of the Relationships Between Selected Factors of an Organizational Climate and Pupil Achievement in Reading, Arithmetic, and Language", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 26, No. 10, p. 5817-A, 1965.

Feldvebel (1964)¹⁰⁸ also reported that he could find no relationship between the global or general concept of organizational climate and student achievement in his study, as measured by the Stanford Achievement Tests, but he did find relationships between student achievement and three of the subtests of the OCDQ, Hindrance, Production-Emphasis, and Consideration.

Aside from the link between the students' achievement and the school's organizational climate, does the climate of a school significantly affect the attitudes of students and other members of school organizations toward themselves and their working place? There have been a number of studies designed to examine the association between the school organizational climate and selected variables associated with the students. Several other investigators have concentrated their efforts to examine the relationship between the school climate and educators' (especially teachers') attitudes toward their working place.

Franklin Pumphrey (1968) conducted a study into the relationships between organizational climate as perceived by the teachers and selected variables associated with pupils. Pumphrey was not able to find relationships between the perceived school organizational climate and the following four student variables: (1) pupil achievement, (2) pupil self-concept, (3) pupil classroom behavior, and (4) pupil absence or tardiness. Pumphrey concluded:

¹⁰⁸ Alexander M. Feldvebel, "Organizational Climate, Social Class, and Educational Output", (1964)

The study did not find empirical evidence to support the assumption that pupils, with regard to the variables considered, benefited more from one organizational climate than from another.[109]

Joseph Sommerville (1969) also conducted a study whose primary purpose was to examine the relationships between the school climate and the students' self-concepts, levels of aspiration, attitudes and opinions about school. An auxiliary objective of his study was to determine the relationship between the socio-economic conditions of schools with respect to the schools' climates and specified student variables. Sommerville found no significant differences between the measured student variables in the relatively open and closed climates of the high socio-economic schools. He reported that the personal and social self-concepts of the students were significantly higher in schools which scored high on the Esprit and Thrust subtests, as compared to those schools which exhibited either low Esprit or low Thrust. He also reported that he found the proportion of relatively open climate was significantly higher in the high than in the low socio-economic schools. Sommerville concluded that:

There are no significant differences between high and low socio-economic schools with respect to school-related self-concept and attitudes and opinions about school. On the other hand, students in high socio-economic schools have very significantly higher personal/social self-concepts and levels of aspiration than students in low socio-economic

109 Franklin Pumphrey, "Relationships Between Teachers' Perceptions of Organizational Climate in Elementary Schools and Selected Variables Associated with Pupils", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 30, No. 4, p. 1377-A, 1968.

schools... students in low socio-economic schools with relatively open climates have significantly higher personal/social self-concepts, levels of aspiration, attitudes and opinions about school than those in relatively closed climates.[110]

David Allen (1970) conducted a study as an attempt to explore the link between the eight dimensions of school organizational climate and the sense of alienation (in terms of powerlessness, norm conflict, and social isolation) among teachers and sixth grade students within the schools. Data from his study revealed that there exist strong associations between all the dimensions of a teacher's alienation from school and the following dimensions of school organizational climate: Disengagement, Hindrance, Esprit, Thrust, and Consideration. Students' sense of alienation from school showed a significant relationship with the Disengagement and Esprit dimensions of school organizational climate. Consequently, Allen reported that data from his study indicated that all dimensions of teachers' alienations from school are significantly correlated with openness of school climate. He concluded from the study's findings that "the concept organizational climate is a structural variable which directly affects the daily work of school teachers and, to a lesser degree, the performance of pupils."¹¹¹

¹¹⁰ Joseph Claude Sommerville, "An Investigation of the Relationship Between the School Organizational Climate and Self-Concept, Level of Aspiration, Attitude and Opinion of Students About School", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 30, No. 5, pp. 1880-81-A, 1969.

¹¹¹ David Lorne Allen, "The Relation of Organizational Climate to Teacher and Pupil Alienation", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 31, No. 7, p. 3158-A, 1978.

Andrew Duchi (1978),¹¹² conducted a study designed to explore the extent of concordance between the middle school students', teachers', and administrators' perceptions of their school climate. An auxiliary objective of his investigation was to examine the magnitude of the relationships between these perceptions and the rate of absenteeism and tardiness of teachers and students respectively. Duchi found that the groups involved in the study (the students, teachers, and administrators) differed in their perceptions of the school climate. It was also found that there was a very significant relationship between the school climate perceptions of teachers and students with regard to absenteeism, and a moderate concordance with respect to teachers' and students' tardiness respectively.

Several investigators have demonstrated that a relationship exists between the school's organizational climate classification and the educators' (especially the teachers') attitudes toward students. In one study, the results suggested that schools with "more 'open' climates seem to influence favorable attitudes of teachers as measured by the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory when compared to 'closed' [climate] schools."¹¹³ In another study, it was reported

¹¹² Andrew Steve Duchi, "An Exploratory Study of the Middle School Climate as Perceived by Students, Teachers and Administrators and the Relationship of These Perceptions with Selected Behavioral Characteristics", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 39, No. 3, p. 1214-A, 1978.

¹¹³ Harry Edward Randles, "The Effects of Organizational Climate on Beginning Elementary Teachers", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 25, No. 12, p. 7049-A, 1964.

that "teachers with a 'good' attitude toward students tended to perceive all eight dimensions of [school] climate in a manner indicative of an open climate, while teachers with a 'poor' attitude toward students tended to view all eight dimensions in a manner indicative of a closed climate."¹¹⁴

In a study which related teachers', principals', and students' attitudes to their school organizational climate, James Braden found that teachers and principals in schools with more open climates held more positive attitudes toward students than their counterparts in closed climates. Another finding of the same study was that the attitudes students held toward teachers did not differ among students in differing organizational climates. Braden found that an open climate facilitates positive teachers' and students' attitudes.¹¹⁵

¹¹⁴ Null, Organizational climate of Elementary Schools", p.11.

¹¹⁵ James N. Braden, "A Study of the Relationship Between Teacher, Principal, and Student Attitudes and Organizational Climate", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 31, No. 7, p. 3801-A, 1970.

B. Studies Related to Pupil Control Ideology

As mentioned earlier, a noticeable, recent development in the study of administration of organizations has been the shift of focus from administrative theory to organizational theory. The organization is studied first as a whole; then the findings are used to study a specific component of the system, such as administrative processes or problems in decision-making or courses of action to be taken.

To study organizations, organizational theorists have advanced a number of theories and developed some conceptual frameworks, typologies, or classifications of organizations for analytical purposes to increase understanding of the formal organization and social behavior of individuals within the organization(s). Amitai Etzioni,¹¹⁶ for example, has developed a conceptual framework based on control as a means of classifying organizations. He sees the power involvement relationship, or, as he phrases it, the "compliance pattern," as a major means of organizational classification. Etzioni's thesis is that organizations can be classified according to the relationship of the type of power used to control lower

116 Amitai Etzioni, A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations: On Power, Involvement, and Their Correlates (New York: The Free Press, 1961), pp. 3-66.

participants (students, in the case of schools) and the orientation of these lower participants to that power. Accordingly, he classified organizations based on their predominant compliance pattern as: (1) coercive organizations, in which application of force is the major means of control for achievement of the organizational task; (2) utilitarian organizations, in which compensation for a service rendered is the major means of control to assure the fulfillment of the organizational task; and (3) normative organizations, in which the act of complying with the directives and expectations rests basically on acceptance and internalization of legitimate organizational expectations. According to Etzioni's classification, schools (educational organizations) are primarily normative in nature since the main type of power used in controlling lower participants is the manipulation of symbolic rewards and social acceptance. He also pointed out that there is a secondary compliance pattern in schools where coercive power is used to maintain control.¹¹⁷

Richard Carlson¹¹⁸ also has provided a typology of service organizations, as opposed to production organizations, with regard to the relationships between the organizations and their clients. He makes a distinction between the type of service organizations based on

¹¹⁷ Ibid., pp. 40-48.

¹¹⁸ Richard O. Carlson, "Environmental Constraints and Organizational Consequence: The Public School and Its Clients", in Daniel E. Griffiths (Ed.), Behavioral Science and Educational Administration: The Sixty-Third Yearbook of the NSSE (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964), pp. 262-276.

the control the organization has in the selection of participants and the control the clients have over their own participation in the organization. Based on these criteria, Carlson classified service organizations into four types. Public mental hospitals, prisons, and public schools fall within the Type IV category of service organizations. These organizations are similar only, according to Carlson's classifications, in that the organizations do not have control over client selection, nor do the clients have a choice concerning their participation in the organization and receive the organization's service on a mandatory basis. Carlson indicated that the inability of the public school to be selective in recruitment creates certain problems, since some of the clients are not committed to the organizational goals and/or organizational procedures and would not participate if given a choice. On the other hand, as Carlson has noted, since the organizations have goals which they are presumably obligated to achieve, and since the accomplishment of these goals might be hindered by the presence of unselected clients, to facilitate the fulfillment of their goals they adapt mechanisms or techniques through which to reduce and deal with any kind of behavior which disrupts the organizations' smooth functioning.¹¹⁹

By reason of diversity in personalities of role participants and consequent differences in tendency deriving from the personalities of role participants in an organization, control is a major concern and

¹¹⁹ Ibid., p. 268.

crucial element in the group life in all organizations.¹²⁰ As postulated by Parsons, this is because it cannot be presupposed that the role participants in an organization are performing their required duties voluntarily. And it cannot be assumed that the role participants in an organization are "motivated to perform by mere 'nature' [of the participants] independently of the sanctions operating in the organizational situation" to accomplish the organization's goals.¹²¹ Control, as it is used in this context, implies conformity to certain expected patterns of behavior.

Just as a school can be viewed as a social system, so too a classroom can be viewed as a special type of social system in which the central functions of a school have to be carried out. The key variables involved in interaction in a classroom include individual students with diverse personalities, intellectual capacities and interests, unique life-styles, aspirations, and values, which may be very different from those of the teachers. Another group involved in interaction in the classroom is the teachers, with their own unique personalities, attitudes, values, interests, and expectations.¹²² As a result, the potential for conflict exists.

¹²⁰ Etzioni, Modern Organizations (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964), p. 59.

¹²¹ Talcott Parsons, "Suggestions For A Sociological Approach to a Theory of Organizations," in Amitai Etzioni (ed.), A Sociological Reader on Complex Organizations (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1969), pp. 45-46.

¹²² Getzels and Thelen, "The Classroom Group as a Unique Social System", p. 67.

In his analysis of the social phenomena of a school life, Willard Waller (1932) described the school as a distinct and clearly definable social organization with certain specific functions. The primary of which is giving and receiving instruction. These institutions have specific modes of social interaction defined by their political structure. The structure, he asserts, is a despotic one which stresses the dominance of teachers and the subordination of students to facilitate both teaching and learning.¹²³ Waller maintained that the teachers and pupils, the two most important groups, encounter each other with a potential for conflicts. The conflicts stem from the fact that each group has its own particular background of experience, values, interests, and expectations through which the definition of the situation is determined. When a teacher faces a contradictory definition of the situation(s), by virtue of his position, "it is part of his job to impose his definition of the situation upon the class quickly before any alternatives have had an opportunity to be considered."¹²⁴

A supporting comment comes from Howard S. Becker who observed that the school is a small, self-contained system of social control in which its functionaries, according to their positions, are given the authority to control and establish clearly defined limits on behavior and conduct of others. Becker also pictured the teacher as one who is

¹²³ Willard Waller, The Sociology of Teaching (New York: John Wiley and sons, 1932), pp. 6-12.

¹²⁴ Ibid., p. 297

"striving to maintain what she regards as her legitimate sphere of authority in the face of possible challenge by others."¹²⁵

Thus, the importance of pupil control in the public school organization, one kind of service organization, should not be surprising since on one hand these organizations work with people, not material goods, and therefore encounter special pressures created by the human motivations and responses. On the other hand, these organizations work mostly with a group of clients (students) that are unselected and perhaps uninterested, and their participation in school is perhaps mandatory.¹²⁶

Consequently, while the first priority of the teacher is to impart knowledge and facilitate the learning process, he must also derive an adaptive mechanism to manage (or control) the classroom activities, including the conduct of the individual students within it in order to accomplish his duty(ies) — that is, to instruct.

But, how a teacher, while in a classroom, relates to students and proceeds to manage the classroom activities, and how he or she interprets that "legitimate sphere of authority" is based upon the perception of his or her role as a teacher, for example, and the

¹²⁵ Howard S. Becker, "The Teacher in the Authority System of Public Schools," in Amitai Etzioni (ed.), Complex Organizations: A Sociological Reader (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1961), p. 243.

¹²⁶ See Donald J. Willower, Terry K. Eidell, and Wayne K. Hoy, "Custodialism and the Secondary School", The High School Journal, Vol. 52, No. 4, (Jan. 1969), p. 182.

opinion that he or she holds regarding the function of education.¹²⁷

To study social behavior in an educational setting, and to apply the findings to develop concepts which might lead to further studies, Willower and Jones in 1963 conducted a field study in a single junior high school located in Pennsylvania. Based on their observations and interviews over a period of time, they found that pupil control problems appeared to play a major role in the teacher to teacher, teacher to counselor, and teacher to administrator relations. Thus, they concluded that "while there were many other matters influencing the prevailing tone of a school, pupil control appeared to be a dominant motif"¹²⁸ in the social life of the school.

Gilbert and Levinson (1957) developed a classification of control ideology to study mental hospital personnel in their relationships to patients. They conceptualized and postulated control ideology on a continuum ranging from custodialism at one end to a humanism at the other.¹²⁹

Provoked by the saliency of pupil control as a dominant and central theme around which the social behavior of an educational

¹²⁷ Dorothy J. Seaberg, The Four Faces of Teaching: The Role of the Teacher in Humanizing Education (Santa Monica, Calif.: Goodyear Publishing Company, Inc., 1975), p. 4.

¹²⁸ Donald J. Willower and R. G. Jones, "When Pupil Control Becomes an Institutional Theme", Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. XLV, No. 3 (Nov. 1963), pp. 107-109.

¹²⁹ Doris C. Gilbert and Daniel J. Levinson, "Custodialism and Humanism in Mental Hospital Structure and in Staff Ideology", in Milton Greenblatt, Daniel J. Levinson, and Richard H. Williams (ed.), The Patient and the Mental Hospital (Glencoe, The Free Press, 1957), pp. 20-35.

organization could be viewed, Willower, Eidell, and Hoy adapted the Control Ideology continuum of Gilbert and Levinson for use with public school personnel. Utilizing these typologies of custodial and humanistic ideologies, Willower and his colleagues constructed an instrument called the "Pupil Control Ideology Form (PCI Form) to measure the control ideology of educators in public schools.¹³⁰

Since its development in 1967, the Pupil Control Ideology Form (PCI Form) has been utilized by different investigators to study the relationships between pupil control orientation of schools' personnel and the organizational variables, as well as personal variables.

For example, the author of the PCI, Willower and his associates, used the instrument to examine the link between organizational position and pupil control orientation of professional staffs in thirteen school systems located in various areas in Pennsylvania and New York. They hypothesized that professional members "directly responsible for the control of unselected clients [students] would be more custodial in their control ideology than those less directly responsible for client control."¹³¹ The results of their examination confirmed the hypothesis. A relationship was found between pupil control ideology and organizational position. Teachers were found to be more custodial than principals or counselors. As it was predicted, they also found that secondary school teachers were more custodial in their pupil control orientation than elementary teachers, and that

¹³⁰ Donald J. Willower, T. L. Eidell, and W. K. Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology, pp. 5-6.

¹³¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 19-20.

secondary school principals were more custodial in their pupil control ideology than elementary principals.

Willower, Eidell, and Hoy were also concerned with the relationships between personality factors and pupil control ideology. To test the hypothesis that closed-minded educators would be more custodial in their pupil control ideology as compared to open-minded educators, they employed the dogmatism scale (as measured by Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale, Form E) to measure 'closed' or 'open' mindedness of educators. This instrument was completed by 973 educators. Based on the data collected and analyzed, the hypothesis was confirmed.¹³²

Willower and his associates' findings concerning the relationship between dogmatism and pupil control ideologies has been supported by findings of other investigators who examined association between the pupil control orientation of educators and dogmatism.

For example, Joseph Keefe (1969), in a study to examine the relationships between and among the pupil control ideologies of junior high school teachers and the teachers' dogmatism, perception of the seriousness of selected pupil behavior problems, and perception of the dimensions of school organizational climate, found that there were significant differences ($P \leq .01$) between the dogmatism scores of the 'humanistic' and the 'custodial' pupil control ideology of teachers.¹³³

¹³² Ibid., pp. 15-23.

¹³³ Joseph Anthony Keefe, "The Relationship of the Pupil Control Ideology of Teachers to Key Personal and Organizational Variables", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 31, No. 1, p. 107-A, 1969.

Ralph Heineman (1971), who investigated the relationships among high school principals' values (of 'equality' and 'freedom'), levels of dogmatism, and pupil control ideologies, predicted and found that open-minded high school principals showed more of a humanitarian type pupil control ideology as compared to those principals who were more closed-minded.¹³⁴

The existence of association between the educators' dogmatism and their pupil control ideology also has been demonstrated in a study conducted by Stephen Ozigbo (1976) to explore the effects and magnitudes of the relationship among the secondary school teachers' pupil control ideology, dogmatism, and their perceptions of school climate.¹³⁵

Willower and his associates also analyzed the relationships between pupil control orientation of educators and certain educators' characteristics, such as sex, age, years of experience, and level of educational attainment. Their findings indicated that male teachers were more custodial in their orientation than female teachers; that the more experienced the teachers, the more custodial they were in their pupil control orientation; that the older the educators, the more custodial they were in their pupil control orientation. They

¹³⁴ Ralph J. Heineman, "Relationship Among Selected Values, Levels of Dogmatism, and Pupil Control Ideology of High School Principals"; Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 32, No. 10, pp. 5498,99-A, 1971.

¹³⁵ Stephen Omorogbe Ozigbo, "Dogmatism, Pupil Control Ideology, and Perceptions of School Organizational Climate on the Part of Secondary School Teachers Attending Selected Evening Graduate Classes at the University of Oklahoma During the Spring of 1976"; Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 37, No. 8, pp. 5021-22-A, 1976.

also found that the degree of custodialism is more or less associated with the educators' position, level of educational attainment, and years of experience. They reported that at the elementary level, as the amount of education of the teachers increased, custodialism in pupil control ideology decreased; that "secondary school principals with five years' or less experience in administration were significantly more custodial than their more experienced counterparts."¹³⁶

Since normally all or most teachers training institutions' programs of professional preparation for educators, in general, and teachers, in particular, put emphasis on a more liberal-democratic view of teaching practices, one might raise the question as to why, when, and how the classroom teacher's view of classroom management or control of his/her students is altered and undergoes changes to a more traditional and custodial orientation. Some of the answers relevant to when and how are provided by the results of investigations which have concentrated on the subject of changes in attitudes of student-teachers and new teachers as they start their professional career. Evidence from such researches indicated that student-teaching experiences provide opportunities for prospective teachers to face the reality of their job and to compare their college instruction with the view of an (or several) experienced teacher(s). The results of these investigations suggest that the cooperative teachers' attitudes and their modes of teaching stand out as possible critical factors in this

¹³⁶ Donald J. Willower, T. L. Eidell, and W. K. Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology, pp. 30-32.

transitional period of the student-teacher(s).

For example, Robert Price stated that the correlation between classroom performance of the cooperating teachers and student-teachers indicated that the student-teachers seem to acquire many of the teaching practices of the veteran teachers.¹³⁷ In examining attitude changes in student-teachers, Dean Corrigan and his associate reported that they found a significant positive correlation between the amount of attitude change of student-teachers and the attitude held by their cooperating veteran teachers.¹³⁸ A study by James Johnson demonstrated that change in the degree of the student-teachers' open or closed-mindedness was a function of the degree of dogmatism of the cooperating teacher with whom the student was placed for student teaching.¹³⁹

The effect of the cooperating teacher, which tends to change the student-teacher's view concerning classroom management and levels of expectation, had been noticed and reported by D. McAulay. He noted that, generally, the student-teachers seemed to be greatly influenced by their cooperating teacher's methods of teaching, techniques of classroom management, and the relationship with students. Equally

¹³⁷ Robert D. Price, "The Influence of Supervising Teachers", Journal of Teachers Education, Vol. 12, No. 4, (December 1961), pp. 471-475.

¹³⁸ Dean Corrigan and Kenneth Griswold, "Attitude Changes of Student Teachers", Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 57, No. 2, (October 1963), pp. 93-95.

¹³⁹ James S. Johnson, "Change in Student Teacher Dogmatism", Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 62, No. 5, (January 1969), pp. 224-226.

important is McAulay's finding that the "materials and techniques presented in their college methods classes were not used noticeably by new teachers."¹⁴⁰ He also concluded that it becomes apparent that teaching experiences have more influence on the use of methods and techniques of classroom management by a new teacher than do college methods courses.

As might be expected, a number of variables such as an individual's personality, his value orientation, his perception of the role, and situational conditions under which a person performs, for example, could influence the orientation of school's professional staff concerning pupil control. One of the influential factors that might be effective on formation of pupil control ideology of school personnel can be assumed to be the socialization process within a school organization.

Wayne Hoy (1967) conducted a longitudinal study to examine the socialization process of school organizations in relation to pupil control ideology. His assumption, based on the previous findings, was that the teacher's subculture in the school would emphasize a greater custodial ideology than the prospective teacher would have experienced in his college preparation. He hypothesized that "student teachers will be significantly more custodial in their pupil control ideology

¹⁴⁰ D. J. McAulay, "How Much Influence Has A Cooperative Teacher?", Journal of Teacher Education, Vol. II, No. 1, (March 1960), pp. 79-83.

after their student teaching experience than before."¹⁴¹ His hypothesis was confirmed.

In a subsequent study, Hoy (1968) hypothesized that: (1) "the pupil control ideology of beginning public school teachers will be significantly more custodial after one year of teaching; and (2) the pupil control ideology of prospective teachers who do not teach the year after graduation will not be significantly more custodial after one year."¹⁴² Both hypotheses were confirmed. He found that the control ideology of beginning teachers was more custodial after a year of teaching. In comparing the pupil control ideology of prospective teachers who did not teach the year after graduation with those who did teach, Hoy found no significant changes in pupil control ideology of the group who did not teach the year after graduation. He concluded that the pupil control ideology of teachers "is affected by teaching experience, and the process of socialization within the school subculture seems important in shaping the pupil control ideology of organizational newcomers."¹⁴³ Hoy's findings are supported by the findings of Jerome Budzik (1971). Assuming that certain administrative control styles of school administrators may influence teachers' pupil control ideology, Budzik conducted a study

¹⁴¹ Wayne K. Hoy, "Organizational Socialization: The Student Teacher and Pupil Control Ideology", The Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 61, No. 4, (December, 1967), pp. 153-155.

¹⁴² Wayne K. Hoy, "The Influence of Experience on the Beginning Teacher," The School Review, Vol. 76, No. 3, (September, 1968), pp. 313-323.

¹⁴³ Ibid., p. 320.

to examine the relationship between administrators' control style, as perceived by teachers, and teachers' pupil control ideology. She found no association between the administrators' control style and teachers' pupil control orientation. But, she found that "as teachers gained teaching experience their perceptions of their pupil control ideology moved toward a more custodial viewpoint."¹⁴⁴

Likewise, Ross Blust (1977), in a study to explore the possible link between and among the teachers' pupil control ideology, teachers' perceived organizational press -- defined as "teacher's perceptions of his colleagues' pupil control ideologies", and teachers' pupil control behavior, found that teachers' pupil control behavior in the school building was significantly related to both their own pupil control orientation and their perceptions of colleagues' -- including the building principal -- pupil control ideology. He concluded that "teacher's pupil control ideology was the best predictor to teacher's pupil control behavior; ... and teacher's pupil control and perceived principal's pupil control ideology were the best predictors of teacher's pupil control behavior in the building."¹⁴⁵

Rita Zelei, whose major objective was to investigate the possible association of the sense of power of teachers in public schools and their pupil control ideologies, conducted a study in 1971. An

¹⁴⁴ Jerome Marcel Budzik, "The Relationship Between Teachers Ideology of Pupil Control and Their Perception of Administrative Control Style", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 32, No. 3, p. 1212-A, 1971.

¹⁴⁵ Ross S. Blust, "Perceived Organizational Press, Personal Ideology and Teacher Pupil Control Behavior", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 38, No 4, p. 2436-A, 1977.

auxiliary objective of her investigation had been to examine the link between and among the teachers' sense of power, and their pupil control ideology, as dependent variables, and the grade level they teach and authoritarian attitude, among other independent variables of interest. She found that lower sense of power -- referred to as "the magnitude of power teachers feel they have to influence or control policies within the school system", was associated with a custodial pupil control ideology, whereas a humanistic pupil control ideology was associated with a high sense of power. These findings led her to conclude that "since teachers, in the hierarchical structure of the school, are placed in direct relationship with pupils, pupil control emerges as an adaptive mechanism to control pupils and maintain and enhance the status of teachers in the organization."¹⁴⁶

However, the results of Hoy's further investigation of the link between the socialization process of an organization and pupil control ideology of the same subjects (sample of beginning teachers as they obtained their second years of teaching experience) indicated that the second year of teaching experience seems to have had little impact on the pupil control ideology of the group of subjects under his investigation. Hoy reported that "pupil control ideology remained virtually unchanged as teachers acquired their second year of teaching

¹⁴⁶ Rita Annette Zelei, "Relationship Between Pupil Control Ideology and Sense of Power of Teachers in Selected Public Schools", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 32, No. 11, p. 6091-A, 1971.

experience."¹⁴⁷ Hoy stated that perhaps the first year of teaching provides most of the effect of teacher subculture, at least as far as pupil control ideology is concerned.

In a recent study conducted by Ray Helsel, value orientations of public school educators were correlated with their ideology of pupil control. It was found that the "emergent" value orientations were related to humanistic control ideology, while "traditonal" value orientations were found to be positively associated with a custodial orientation.¹⁴⁸

James Bean and Wayne Hoy (1974) used the PCI Form to explore the relationship between over-all instructional climate -- in terms of the kind of activities which call for thinking, and in terms of social and emotional conditions that exist in the classroom, and the pupil control orientation of the teachers. The results of their study indicated that the pupil control ideology of the teachers was associated with the instructional climate in the classroom. They found that the "higher levels of cognitive activity, opportunity for divergent thinking, encouragement of independence and student initiative, and student enthusiasm and excitement" appear to be related more with humanistic pupil control orientation; while a

¹⁴⁷ Wayne K. Hoy, "Pupil Control Ideology and Organizational Socialization: A Further Examination of Influence of Experience on Beginning Teachers", The School Review, Vol. 77, No. 3-4, (September, 1969), p. 260.

¹⁴⁸ Roy A. Helsel, "Value Orientations and Pupil Control Ideology of Public School Educators", Educational Administration Quarterly, Vol. VII, No. 1, (Winter, 1971), pp. 24-33.

"passive listening role for students, high degree of emphasis on tests and grades, and little student enthusiasm" appear to be more associated with the classroom's having teachers, especially male teachers, with a more custodial pupil control orientation.¹⁴⁹

James Appleberry (1969) was the first to examine the relationship between organizational climate and pupil control ideology of professional staffs in elementary schools in the State of Oklahoma, U.S.A. The results of his study indicated that there was significant relationship between the organizational climates of schools and pupil control orientation of the school's professionals. However, principals serving in elementary schools with relatively open climates were not found to be more humanistic than their counterparts in schools with relatively closed climates.¹⁵⁰

Appleberry and Hoy also investigated the relationship between the organizational climate and pupil control ideology of elementary schools in Oklahoma. Data from their study revealed that elementary teachers in schools with relatively open climates were more humanistic in their pupil control orientation than teachers serving in schools with relatively closed climates. An additional finding was that principals were more humanistic in their pupil control ideology than

¹⁴⁹ James Stevens Bean and Wayne K. Hoy, "Pupil Control Ideology of Teachers and Instructional Climate in the Classroom", The High School Journal, Vol. 58, No. 2. (November, 1974), pp. 61-69.

¹⁵⁰ James B. Appleberry, "The Relationship Between Organizational Climate and Pupil Control Ideology of Elementary Schools", (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, 1969), pp. 43-46.

teachers. They reported that the more open the school climate, the more humanistic the pupil control orientation of the educators.¹⁵¹

Bruce Waldman (1971) conducted a study in an attempt to explore the relationship between the organizational climate and the pupil control orientation of teachers in secondary schools. Analysis of his data led him to conclude that the more open the organizational climate of a secondary school, the less custodial the pupil control orientation of the teachers. However, analysis of his data failed to confirm the prediction that "the more open the organizational climate, the less custodial the pupil control orientation of the principal."¹⁵²

In a study concerning the relationship between organizational climate, pupil control ideology, and student self-esteem, David Hinojosa found that a positive relationship existed between open and closed climates and high and low self-esteem of students respectively. The relationship was positive in that the teachers with more open climate scores had students with higher self-esteem.¹⁵³

¹⁵¹ James B. Appleberry and Wayne K. Hoy, "The Pupil Control Ideology of Professional Personnel in 'Open' and 'Closed' Elementary Schools", Educational Administration Quarterly, Vol. 5, 1969, pp. 74-85.

¹⁵² Bruce Waldman, "Organizational Climate and Pupil Control Orientation of Secondary Schools", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 32, No 5, p. 2898-A, 1971.

¹⁵³ David Hinojosa, "A Study of the Relationships Between the Organizational Climate, the Pupil Control Ideology and the Self-Esteem and Power Dimensions of the Students' Self-Concept in Selected Elementary Schools in the Corpus Christi Independent School District", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 34, No. 11, p. 6901-A, 1974.

Summary

To summarize, in this chapter the concepts and importance of the school organizational climate and pupil control ideology were discussed. Also, conceptual frameworks for both topics and for the relationship between organizational climate and pupil control ideology were presented. Both concepts have generated several studies. Therefore, some selected relevant areas of research concerning organizational climate, pupil control ideology, and the relationship between the two were also reviewed and reported.

Literature and studies pertaining to organizational climate appeared to suggest that the organizational climate is one of the major areas of concern to researchers of organizations. The organizational climate is recognized and established as being an important concept, because it directly or indirectly affects the behavior of individual members within any given organization. The review of literature also revealed that many factors combined to produce an organizational climate and there is no one single factor to which one might refer as the single source for the perceived and reported school's climate. Therefore, it is a complex concept, yet it is measurable.

Some writers view organizational climate as a consequence of an organization's task(s) and individuals' needs interaction. Halpin and Croft, the authors of the OCDQ, while acknowledging that numerous factors can affect and shape the climate of a school, contended that the school organizational climate is a product of interactions between

the school administrator and his staffs and among the teachers. They insisted that the social interaction between them is the most important prevailing factor in formation of a school organizational climate.

As the review of literature implies, among few tools of research for assessing the organizational climate of schools, the OCDQ is the most widely accepted and used of the instruments for the measurement of the organizational climates of schools. Most of the studies reviewed appeared to support the OCDQ's reliability and validity -- at the subtest level. The studies reviewed also appeared to discourage the use of the global concept -- the six discrete climates typology of the organizational climate as identified by Halpin and Croft in their original study of schools' climates in the United States. However, the literature and studies reviewed indicated that the OCDQ could be utilized in describing socio-psychological environments (the climates) in a variety of institutional settings. The OCDQ has been utilized, as a research tool, in the so-called advanced and developing countries, such as the United States, Canada, Australia, Philippines, India, Thailand, Libya, Saudi Arabia, to mention a few. The research studies indicated that the OCDQ is applicable also in developing countries.

The literature and studies reviewed indicate that: (1) the perceived organizational climate of a school is related to the position held in a school organization. That is, school administrators (principals) for example, tend to perceive their organizational climate to be more open as compared to other schools' professional

staffs; (2) it is related to the organizational, or grade level of the school within the school system; (3) it is related to the size of school, in terms of the numbers of its members, socio-economic status of the community within which a school exists and operates, and location of schools, in terms of geographic locale; and (4) the perceived school organizational climate may be related to and affect the school's professional staffs' pupil control ideologies.

Research studies concerning the link between the organizational climate and its effect on pupil achievement have produced mixed results and are inconclusive. Nevertheless, some evidence has been provided to suggest that there is a relationship between the school climate and the affective aspects of education and its effect on, for example, the student's social and personal self-concepts, level of aspirations, and attitudes about school and others. The results of studies reviewed also provide evidence to suggest that there are relationships between the school climate perception and the rate of absenteeism and tardiness of both teachers and students.

Review of literature concerning pupil control ideology indicates that almost all members of the school organization are concerned with control of students to a greater or lesser degree. Many explanations have been provided for the reason(s) why educators in general, and teachers in particular, are concerned about the control of students. Some of these explanations relate the concern to the structure and nature of educational organizations. From the review of literature and studies it becomes apparent that, in addition to the above mentioned variables, certain other organizational and/or environmental

variables, such as geographic locale, socio-economic condition of the community within which a school exists and operates, as well as certain personal characteristics of educators, such as age, sex, years of experience, value orientation, and attitudes toward their jobs and students may influence and affect their pupil control ideologies.

Among various organizational variables in the school context, as revealed by the literature and studies reviewed, organizational position, socialization process of new members within the organization, as well as organizational climate appeared to be related to control ideology of educators in general and teachers in particular.

In the final analysis, a review of literature seems to suggest that the beliefs a teacher holds tend to affect and guide his/her performance in the classroom — that is, the way a teacher organizes and operates in the classroom and the manner in which he/she interacts with students. Accordingly, how teachers view control of students does, in fact, affect his/her teaching strategies. This, in turn, affects pupil achievement and attitudes that pupils develop towards school, themselves, and others.

In light of the above mentioned speculations and findings, an investigation into the nature of Iranian secondary schools' psycho-sociological environment (the climate) and its relation to the Iranian schools' professional staff's pupil control orientation, as defined for the purpose of this study, seemed to have merit, considering the fact that such a study had not been done.

HYPOTHESES

Based on the review of the related literature, and in the light of the statement of the problem, the following hypotheses were advanced to be tested:

HO₁ There will be no statistically significant differences among the mean scores of the over-all organizational climate of schools in the city of Shiraz, Iran, and the over-all organizational climate of schools in the outlying areas, as measured by the OCDQ, based on the following variables: (1) the geographical location of the schools; (2) the organizational level or grade level of schools; (3) the gender of students attending the schools; and (4) the interactions between and among all of the above specified independent variables.

HO₂ There will be no statistically significant differences among the mean scores of the schools' administrators' perceptions of their schools' organizational climate in the city of Shiraz, Iran, and the organizational climate of schools in the outlying areas, as measured by the OCDQ, based on the following variables: (1) the geographical location of the schools; (2) the organizational or grade level of schools; (3) the gender of students attending the schools; and (4) the interactions between and among all of the above specified independent variables.

HO₃ There will be no statistically significant differences among the mean scores of the schools' teachers' perceptions of their organizational climate in the city of Shiraz, Iran, and the organizational climate of schools in the outlying areas, as measured by the OCDQ, based on the following variables: (1) the geographical location of the schools; (2) the organizational or grade level of schools; (3) the gender of students attending the schools; and (4) the interactions between and among all of the above specified independent variables.

HO₄ There will be no statistically significant differences among the mean scores of the schools' over-all pupil control ideology in the city of Shiraz, Iran, and the over-all pupil control ideology of schools in the outlying areas, as measured by the PCI Form, based on the following variables: (1) the geographical location of the schools; (2) the organizational or grade level of schools; (3) the gender of students attending the schools; and (4) the interactions between and among all of the above specified independent variables.

HO₅ There will be no statistically significant differences among the mean scores of the school administrators' pupil control ideology in the city of Shiraz, Iran, and the pupil

control ideology of school administrators in the outlying areas, as measured by the PCI Form, based on the following variables: (1) the geographical location of the schools; (2) the organizational or grade level of schools; (3) the gender of students attending the schools; and (4) the interactions between and among all of the above specified independent variables.

H0₆ There will be no statistically significant differences among the mean scores of the school teachers' pupil control ideology in the city of Shiraz, Iran, and the pupil control ideology of school teachers in the outlying areas, as measured by the PCI Form, based on the following variables: (1) the geographical location of the schools; (2) the organizational or grade level of schools; (3) the gender of students attending the schools; and (4) the interactions between and among all of the above specified independent variables.

H0₇ There will be no statistically significant relationship between the over-all organizational climate of schools, as compared to the schools' over-all pupil control ideology, the administrators' pupil control ideology, and the teachers' pupil control ideology; nor between the administrators' perception of their organizational climate as compared to the schools' overall pupil control ideology,

the administrators' pupil control ideology, and the teachers' pupil control ideology; nor between the teachers' perception of their schools' organizational climate as compared to the schools' over-all pupil control ideology, the administrators' pupil control ideology, and the teachers' pupil control ideology.

H0₈ There will be no statistically significant relationship between the eight subtests of the schools' organizational climate, as compared to the schools' over-all pupil control ideology, the administrators' pupil control ideology, and the teachers' pupil control ideology.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The design of the study as well as the location, the population involved, sampling procedures used, the procedure implemented by the investigator for data collection, descriptions of the instruments used, and the treatment of the data are presented in this chapter.

Research Design

Research design, according to Fred Kerlinger, is the plan or strategy of preparation for the collection and analysis of the data in a manner that enables the researcher to (a) obtain answers to research question(s) as objectively, accurately, and efficiently as possible and to (b) control the possible influence of extraneous variables or uncontrolled variation that might enter into and be mixed with the independent variables of interest, or factors under examination which may consequently affect the outcome of the investigation, which may in turn lead to invalid interpretations of the results, thus generating incorrect conclusions. Researchers adopt different strategies, or plans, for conducting their investigation according to the problems and purposes of their study and consideration of the feasibility of

controlling extraneous variables.¹⁵⁴

As stated previously, the primary concern of this investigator was to identify the perceptions of selected Iranian secondary schools' professional staffs with regard to their schools' organizational climate and to ascertain the pupil control ideology of the schools' professional staffs under investigation. Also, the study intended to examine if there was any relationship between the two. Furthermore, the investigator was also concerned with the assessment of the influence of three independent variables, or factors, upon the dependent variables, which include the organizational climate and the pupil control ideology of the schools and their professional staffs.

The three independent variables, each with two levels, under investigation were: the locality of the schools, the gender of the students attending the schools, and the organizational, or grade, level of the schools. In this study, these independent variables were assumed to be possible determinants of the Iranian educators' perceptions of organizational climate of their schools and their pupil control orientations. None of these variables could be manipulated and their effect upon the dependent variables could not be directly controlled and examined by the investigator, since they already existed prior to the investigator's decision to examine their effects on the school's professional staffs' perceptions of their

¹⁵⁴ Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1973), pp. 300-306; also see: Claire Selltiz, Lawrence S. Wrightsman, and Stuart W. Cook, Research Methods in Social Relations, 3rd ed., (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1976), pp. 90-102.

organizational climate and/or their pupil control ideologies.

Accordingly, the design used in this investigation was a 2x2x2 fixed-effect factorial design in the form of a quasi-experimental, or ex post facto research design.

At this point it may be appropriate to note that, unlike their colleagues in the physical sciences, most of the investigators in behavioral sciences, including sociology, psychology and education, for example, are not provided with the opportunity to conduct their studies experimentally, with absolute controls. Therefore, a distinction has been made between a "true" laboratory-type experimental design and a "quasi"-experimental, or ex post facto, research design.

The phrase "quasi"-experimental research design refers to the data collection procedures in which the investigator cannot and/or does not directly control or manipulate the independent variables or factors of interest, as in a typical laboratory experiment. In quasi-experimental inquiry, the investigator cannot assign subjects to specific groups at random — he/she may only select them randomly.¹⁵⁵

There are several different types of quasi-experimental research designs.¹⁵⁶ In some of the quasi-experimental designs, neither

¹⁵⁵ See, for example: Claire Selltiz and others, Research Methods in Social Relations, p. 127 and pp. 144-145.

¹⁵⁶ For more detailed information and distinctions between different types of quasi-experimental designs the reader is referred to: Donald T. Campbell and Julian C. Stanley, Experimental and Quasi-Experimental Designs for Research (Chicago, Ill., Rand McNally and Company, 1972); Also see: Schuyler W. Huck, William H. Cormier, and William G. Bounds Jr., Reading Statistics and Research (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1974), especially chapters 11-14.

manipulation of the independent variable(s) nor true randomization is possible. In other types of quasi-experimental research designs it is possible to use the statistical techniques to control, indirectly, the independent variables or factors of interest and examine their effects on the dependent variables.¹⁵⁷ The ex post facto research design is one type of quasi-experimental research design that is best used when the independent variables are either inherent subject characteristics, such as sex, race, attractiveness, ability to recall, or socially caused subject attributes, such as social class or socioeconomic status. It is also useful when both inherent and socially caused subject attributes are used, such as the intelligence quotient (IQ), need for achievement, attitudes, anxiety, to mention only a few. These independent variables can be measured but they cannot be directly controlled or manipulated by the investigator, while seeking to discover relationships between or among the variables involved in the study.¹⁵⁸

In short, as is often the case, many of the investigations in the educational, psychological and sociological areas of research should be done using ex post facto research design. Because investigators in these fields are working on the research problems and must deal with and examine factors or independent variables that cannot be manipulated or be controlled directly by the researcher. The

¹⁵⁷ Schuyler W. Huck and others, Reading Statistics and Research, p. 323; see also: B. J. Winer, Statistical Principles in Experimental Design, 2nd ed., (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1971), p. 752.

¹⁵⁸ Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research, p. 379.

manipulation has occurred either naturally or before the investigator has had a chance to examine the problem. However, in ex post facto research design the investigator may use statistical manipulation to indirectly control certain variables -- that is, to apply alternatively the independent variable to one or several groups or subgroups, while holding constant the others, in order to infer a possible causal influence. The factorial design is a kind of statistical method that provides indirect or statistical control that permits the investigator to examine the effects of the independent variables on the dependent variable(s) and to rule out the effect of some unwanted or uncontrolled variables.¹⁵⁹ Furthermore, the factorial design allows the investigator to examine and evaluate simultaneously the separate and combined effects of two or more independent variables on a dependent variable.¹⁶⁰

Nevertheless, because of the inability of the investigator in ex post facto research designs to directly control and manipulate the independent variables or factors of interest, the investigator is restricted to rely upon the results of statistical techniques through which to infer direction and magnitude of probable causality. Therefore, the results of ex post facto research designs should be

¹⁵⁹ George A. Ferguson, Statistical Analysis in Psychology and Education, 4th ed., (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1976), p. 221.

¹⁶⁰ B. J. Winer, Statistical Principles in Experimental Design, p. 309; also see: Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research, p. 351.

treated carefully.¹⁶¹

Location

This study was conducted on secondary schools, a combination of middle and senior high schools, in the city of Shiraz, the capital of Fars, a southern province of Iran, and its surrounding areas. The city of Shiraz can be considered to be typical and representative of one of the major Iranian urban areas because it is university oriented and has a broad cross section of population with regard to economic and social status. Furthermore, the Shiraz school district was selected as a site for the study because of the following considerations. First, the investigator's previous teaching experience at the secondary level had been in the general geographic locale. Second, the district selected for the study offered an adequate number of secondary schools, and the school teacher and administrator population (N=3848) to permit adequate and proper sampling. A third consideration was the assumed willingness and cooperation of the administrative authorities of the school district to participate in the study.

Population

Public education below the university level in Iran is provided

¹⁶¹ Ibid., p. 392.

in an organized 5-3-4 system of education with different levels known as: primary, guidance (equivalent to the U.S. middle school), and intermediate school (equivalent to U.S. senior high school). Although attempts were made by the former regime to provide co-educational schools in the early 1970's (included in co-educational schools were primary and guidance schools), this type of schools was abandoned after the establishment of the Islamic Republic of Iran and a return was made to the traditional school designed for one sex only.

Thus, the population from which the sample schools were drawn consisted of all the guidance and intermediate schools (hereafter referred to as secondary schools -- grades 6 to 12). This population (N=213) included 156 guidance or middle schools and 57 intermediate or senior high schools, located and in operation, at the time of sampling (April, 1980), in the city of Shiraz, the capital of Fars province, Iran, and its related outlying areas, with the following exceptions: (1) new schools which had not been in operation for at least one academic year; (2) schools in which the administrators in charge (the principals and vice-principals) and teachers functioning at the school(s) had not been at work together for at least one academic year at the time of the survey; and (3) vocational-technical and other types of special schools that could not be justified according to the definition of terms given in Chapter I of this report.

Sampling Procedures

Of the 213 secondary schools, thirty-seven (37) schools were

selected, using a stratified random sampling procedure. A table of random numbers was used as a means of selection. To have an equal number of schools for analytical purposes in each sub-group, initially, it was intended to choose 40 schools, five schools in each sub-class or stratum. But, since there were not more than two schools in the category of suburban (rural) girls' high schools, the total sampled number of schools was restricted to 37.

The stratification was based on the following criteria: (1) geographical location of the schools (urban-suburban or outlying area); (2) the gender of students attending the schools (boys-girls); and (3) the organizational or grade level of the schools (high-middle). These criteria were established so that schools representing both urban and suburban or outlying areas would be included in the sample. As a result, these schools were already divided into eight different groups or strata as follows:

1. Guidance schools for boys in the city of Shiraz.
2. Guidance schools for girls in the city of Shiraz.
3. Guidance schools for boys in the outlying areas' sub-districts.
4. Guidance schools for girls in the outlying areas' sub-districts.
5. Intermediate schools for boys in the city of Shiraz.
6. Intermediate schools for girls in the city of Shiraz.
7. Intermediate schools for boys in the outlying areas'

sub-districts.

8. Intermediate schools for girls in the outlying areas' sub-districts.

The following Table gives the distribution of the sample schools over the above strata.

TABLE 1 -- Distribution of the schools eligible for sampling according to the geographical location of schools, the gender of students attending schools, and the levels or types of schools.[162]

		Urban				Suburban			
		High Schools		Middle Schools		High Schools		Middle Schools	
	Total	No. of	No. of	Total	No. of	Total	No. of	Total	No. of
	No. of	Schools	Schools	No. of	Schools	No. of	Schools	No. of	Schools
	Schools.	Selected.	Schools.	Selected.	Schools.	Selected.	Schools.	Selected.	Schools.
Boys	29	5	49	5	6	5	36	5	
Girls	20	5	43	5	2	2	28	5	
Total		10		10		7		10	

162 Information concerning various types of schools was obtained from the Bureau of Educational Establishment, Budget, and Statistics of the General Office of Education of Fars Province, Feb., 1980.

Subjects

The subjects for the study included each school's principal, vice-principal (hereafter referred to as school administrators), and six to ten randomly selected teachers from each one of the sampled schools. It should be noted here that in schools where there was more than one vice-principal, only one of the vice-principals was randomly selected to be included.

In the selection of the teachers within each selected school, attention was paid to the selection of those teachers who have been in association with the principal, vice-principal, and other faculty members for at least one academic year. In schools where the number of eligible teaching staff for selection purposes, based on the previously-mentioned limitations, were less than ten, all eligible teachers were included. In the selection of the teachers, care also was taken to include those teachers who were discharging the majority of their teaching and other working responsibilities in that particular school being selected. A table of random numbers was used as a means of selection.

Data Collection Procedures

The first step in the collection of the data was to request permission from the MacMillan Publishing Company and the Administrative Committee on Research of the Pennsylvania State University, respectively, to adapt, translate the work into Farsi (the Persian language), and to use the instruments. The permissions were

granted (See Appendix C).

Originally, both instruments, the OCDQ Form IV and the PCI Form, were designed for use in the United States. Owing to either situational differences that exist between the United States and the Iranian educational system, or for idiomatic reasons, some of the items of the instruments were altered for use in the Iranian educational setting, so as not to change the basic meaning, through translation, of the items of the original instruments.

To insure that the translation and the new wording of the instruments did not change the initial concept of the item(s) which it was purported to measure, a jury panel of experts knowledgeable in both English and Farsi was formed to test the applicability of the translated version of the instruments. The three members of the panel were: (1) Mr. Mohammad S. Sadeghi, M. S., Director of the English language courses of Iran-America Society, Shiraz, Iran; (2) Mr. L. Yarmohammadi, Ph.D., Professor of English Linguistics, University of Shiraz, Iran; and (3) Mr. Akbar Masoudi, Ph.D., Dean of the College of Education, University of Shiraz, Iran.

Each of the panel members was asked, while keeping in mind the Iranian educational setting, to first read and translate the English version of the instruments, and then to compare their own translated version to the one which was translated and submitted to them by this writer. To ensure clarity in meaning of each statement, wherever clear disagreement occurred between the wording of the panel members and this writer, the panel members were contacted by the writer and asked what each statement communicated to him. Some revisions,

therefore, were made on this basis until all of the panel members agreed on the applicability of the instruments (see Appendix D for statements of approval by the panel members).

The second step in the collection of the data was to seek cooperation and support from the Director General of Education, of Fars Province, who is also the Directorate of Education of Shiraz Township or County. This presented no difficulty since this investigator was an ex-employee of the educational system and the General Director was a former collegian and colleague.

The Director General, Mr. Abul-Ahrary, was approached and the nature, purpose, and the usefulness of the study was explained to him. He commended the intention and purpose and the importance of the study and pledged his cooperation and support, providing a copy of the instruments would be submitted to his office for examination and approval. Accordingly, after the submission of a copy of the instruments, the Director General of Education gave his official endorsement to the study in the form of an official and general circular letter issued to the principals of the selected schools. While introducing the investigator, the official letter included a request asking for assistance in the collection of required data. A copy of the circular letter is attached in Appendix E.

After securing permission from the General Directorate, the investigator contacted each of the selected schools' principals and faculty members -- the teachers, to secure their approval and cooperation. The meeting with the eligible teachers for the purpose of selection, and to participate, were arranged through each school principal, to coincide with the ten (10) minutes recess between

classes. An additional 5 minutes time was granted by the principals from scheduled teaching time so that the subject and the purpose of the research questionnaires could be fully explained by the investigator.

The criteria on which the eligibility of a teacher, for the selection processes, was based was that the majority of a teacher's teaching duties should be discharged in that particular selected school. The school attendance-book was used to identify the eligible teachers for the purpose of selection.

Initially, it was intended to administer the tests during a regularly scheduled or a specially scheduled faculty meeting. However, the procedure had to be abandoned, partly because of reluctance on the part of school administrators due to the political atmosphere, which was easy to detect at the time, and partly owing to the difficulty of scheduling for the selected teachers' attendance at the special faculty (or teachers) meeting. Only two schools' principals and their faculty members voluntarily agreed to convene such a meeting. Therefore, the questionnaire packages were distributed to the selected subjects to be completed at their convenience and returned to the school principals' offices within a week from the date of distribution for the researcher to collect.

The investigator personally collected the questionnaires from each of the selected schools. Some follow-up trips were made, especially into rural areas to ensure that all questionnaires distributed were fully completed and collected. Out of the overall total of 435 distributed, the number of useful returned questionnaires

was 424. The total response of 97.5% seemed quite adequate for statistical analysis of the collected data.

Among the 424 respondents, 352 were secondary school teachers and 72 were secondary school administrators, who were employed by the Ministry of Education of Iran and were working in the Shiraz public school district.

Instruments

To fulfill the requirements of this study the investigator selected two instruments, with slight modification, to gather the needed data. The two instruments were: the Pupil Control Ideology Form, and the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire Form IV.

A. Pupil Control Ideology Form

The Pupil Control Ideology Form (PCI Form)¹⁶³ was employed to examine the pupil control orientation of the selected Iranian educators (principal, vice-principal, and teachers). This Form contains twenty statements. Responses are made to each statement on a five-point Likert-type scale and are scored from one (for strongly disagree) to five (for strongly agree). Items five (5) and thirteen (13) are reversed for scoring purposes as an attempt to prevent response-set patterns. The total scores on the instrument represent the subjects' pupil control ideology or orientation. The lower the score on the instrument, the more humanistic the pupil control ideology of the respondent. (See Appendix A).

¹⁶³ See: D.J. Willower, T. L. Eidell, and W. K. Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology, 1967.

Reliability and Validity of the PCI Form

The authors who developed the PCI Form calculated a split-half reliability coefficient by correlating even-item subscores with the odd-item subscores (N=170). They reported that the resulting Pearson product-moment coefficient was 0.91; using the Spearman-Brown formula a corrected coefficient was 0.95.

Further reliability calculations were made when data was collected from a new sample (N=55). Using the same techniques, the Pearson product-moment correlation produced a coefficient of 0.83, and application of the Spearman-Brown formula yielded a corrected coefficient of 0.91.¹⁶⁴

Validation of the PCI Form, as it is reported, was based on comparisons of the test scores of teachers judged by principals to be humanistic or custodial. Principals of seven schools (five elementary schools and two secondary schools) were asked to identify a specified number of teachers considered to be custodial or humanistic. Approximately 15 percent of the teachers in each school were identified with each type. Mean scores for each group were compared, using a t-test of the difference of the means. A one-tailed test produced a t value of 2.64, showing a difference in the expected direction at a 0.01 level of significance. Finally, a cross-validation, using a new sample (seven schools) and similar

¹⁶⁴ Willower, Terry, and Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology, p. 12.

techniques, were significant at the 0.001 level.¹⁶⁵

B. Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire

The OCDQ was developed by Halpin and Croft¹⁶⁶ to assess the organizational climate of the schools in the United States. It consists of sixty-four items that may be used to determine the organizational climate of a school as perceived by the school's staff members. Each item may be answered on a four-point, forced-choice, scale: (1) rarely occurs, (2) sometimes occurs, (3) often occurs, (4) very frequently occurs (see Appendix A). The categories of 1 to 4 are given the value of one through four for scoring. Items number 4, 8, 25, 53, and 63 are reversed for scoring as an attempt to prevent response-set patterns.

The OCDQ instrument provides eight subtests, four of which describe teachers' behavior: Disengagement, Hindrance, Esprit, and Intimacy; and four of which describe dimensions of a principal's or administrator's behavior as it is perceived by the staff members. Aloofness, Production-Emphasis, Thrust, and Consideraton. For more detail description, and definition of the eight subtests of the OCDQ, see Appendix B.

¹⁶⁵ Ibid., pp. 13-14.

¹⁶⁶ Halpin and Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools, 1963

Reliability and Validity of the OCDQ

With respect to validity of the OCDQ, Halpin and Croft did not make any effort to validate the instrument. They dismissed the need to validate the OCDQ and proclaimed the following:

... We are not quite sure against what criteria we should seek to check the climate scores.[167]...The six climates represent a taxonomy of climates, or typology. It is impossible to demonstrate the 'validity' of any taxonomy, or of any typology. The test of a typology must lie in its usefulness.[168]

However, as was reported in a previous chapter (see Chapter 2) several studies have shown that the OCDQ is sufficiently valid for research purposes, at the subtests level. Andrews, for example, using a construct validity approach in his study, found that the eight subtests of the OCDQ are valid and reliable measures of the concepts that they purport to measure.¹⁶⁹ Rosevear¹⁷⁰ found validity for the subtests of Thrust (a description of a principal's leadership behavior) and Esprit (a description of group morale and satisfaction).

¹⁶⁷ Andrew Halpin and Don Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools, p. 82.

¹⁶⁸ Andrew Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration, p.225.

¹⁶⁹ John H. M. Andrews, School Organizational Climate: Some Validity Studies, pp. 332-333.

¹⁷⁰ Carl G. Rosevear, "The Validity of Selected Subtests of the OCDQ".

In another effort to validate the OCDQ, Pritchard¹⁷¹ using the concurrent validity approach in his study, found five of the eight subtests of the OCDQ to be significantly valid, namely the Hindrance, Esprit, Production-Emphasis, Thrust, and Consideration subtests. Thomas and Slater, who utilized the OCDQ in Australian schools, also came to the conclusion that "the OCDQ does serve to discriminate between the 'tone' or 'organizational climate' of Australian primary schools."¹⁷²

Moreover, Halpin and Croft, in constructing the OCDQ, identified the eight dimensions of the OCDQ through use of factor analysis methods. The factor analytical method is in itself one of the most effective approaches to construct validation.¹⁷³ However, a careful study of the procedures by which Halpin and Croft proceeded to develop the instrument reveals that they were more concerned with the content and construct validation of the instrument than criterion-related validity.¹⁷⁴ Consequently, they concentrated their effort on the internal consistency of the subtests.

The internal consistency or reliability of the eight subtests in Halpin and Croft's study were tested in three different ways, all the

¹⁷¹ James Leon Pritchard, "Validation of the OCDQ Against Perception of Non-Faculty School Personnel".

¹⁷² Ross A. Thomas, and R. C. Slater, "The OCDQ: A Four Factor Solution for Australian Schools?"

¹⁷³ Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research, p. 468.

¹⁷⁴ Halpin and Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools, p. 49.

results of which are indicative of the independence of the subtests. As reported by the authors of the OCDQ, the first two methods were involved in the computation of: (1) the split-half reliability, corrected by the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula; and (2) the correlation coefficient between the two sets of scores obtained from (a) "the description of the climate given by the odd-numbered teachers," and (b) "that given by the even-numbered teachers." (3) The communality estimate of reliability has been the third method of estimation used. In this method the reliability of the instrument was "computed from the three-factor rotation solution for the eight subtests."¹⁷⁵

Since certain items of the instruments used to collect the needed data were adapted for use in the Iranian educational setting, when this investigator conferred with the faculty members of the selected schools to request their cooperation they asked to voluntarily complete the questionnaires on two separate occasions. This was so that the reliability of the questionnaires could be established. The professional staffs (N=46) from four different types of the selected schools, in Shiraz, including one high school for boys, one high school for girls, one middle school for boys, and one middle school for girls, responded positively. One week elapsed between the test and re-test for the purpose of estimating the reliability of the instruments used.

¹⁷⁵ Ibid.

The scores obtained from the first and second of the two instruments, the OCDQ Form and the PCI Form, were utilized to establish the reliability of the two instruments.

The Pearson product-moment coefficient raw scores formula was employed to compute the coefficient between the test and re-test scores of the eight subtests of the OCDQ Form IV, and the test and re-test scores of the PCI Form. The formula used for this coefficient can be found in almost any statistical textbook.¹⁷⁶

For the OCDQ instrument, the resulting coefficient of reliability between test and re-test of each of the eight subtest scores of the adapted OCDQ Form were as follows: Disengagement -- (0.95); Hindrance -- (0.93); Esprit -- (0.97); Intimacy -- (0.95); Aloofness -- (0.95); Production-Emphasis -- (0.95); Thrust -- (0.92); and Consideration -- (0.97).

For the PCI Form Instrument, the resulting coefficient of reliability between test and re-test was ($r = 0.96$).

It was also intended to establish the validity of the PCI Form instrument, following the same procedure used by the authors of the questionnaire. Accordingly, the four schools' administrators were asked to read carefully the description given for custodial or humanistic faculty members. Using this information, combined with their own personal knowledge of their school's staff, they were asked to identify a specified number of custodial and humanistic faculty

¹⁷⁶ See: for example: N. M. Downie and R. W. Heath, Basic Statistical Methods, 4th ed., (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1974), p. 92.

members within their schools whose ideology resembled the description. This information was to be used as a criterion for determining the validity of the adapted PCI Form. Unfortunately, the administrators in these selected schools declined to cooperate in this regard.

However, since previous research has found the PCI Form instrument to be valid and capable of assessing the pupil control orientation of the school members¹⁷⁷, it was assumed that no further validation was needed.

Treatment of the Data

Since one of the purposes of the present study was to identify and classify the organizational climate of the selected schools under investigation, the climates based on the data collected were identified through the following procedure.

The responses to the organizational climate from each individual subject included in the study were first hand-scored and totaled for the eight subtests, subtest by subtest, of the OCDQ. These scores were then taken to New Mexico State University for Dr. Don B. Croft to identify the organizational climate of the schools involved, using the original computerized program designed by Halpin and Croft in 1963.

The scores were keypunched on IBM cards and the program was run on an IBM computer at New Mexico State University. It was later

¹⁷⁷ See: for example, Robert C. Brooks, "A Study to Establish Behavioral and Other Correlates of the Pupil Control Ideology Form at the Junior and Senior High School Level", Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 38, No. 4, pp. 1762-1763-A, 1977.

discovered that, due to keypunch errors on the IBM cards, the results of the computer run were invalid and had to be redone.

Following the same procedure and the computer program used originally by Halpin and Croft, the schools' profile of organizational climate was determined at the Oklahoma University Computer Center. At this stage, each of the schools' profiles represented the average raw scores of the faculty members on the eight subtests. As a next step, these subtest scores were standardized first normatively (over 37 schools), and then ipsatively, imposing a mean of 50 and standard deviation of 10.

Using the average of normatively standardized scores of the subjects involved on the eight subtests, which represent the school's profile, the openness index of organizational climate of each school and its professional staff was determined.

In regard to questions about the usefulness of the six distinct climate classifications¹⁷⁸, the "Openness-Closedness" index of the school's climate was used to explore the relationships between pupil control orientation of the school's professional personnel in the study under investigation and the school's organizational climate.

The "Openness-Closedness" index is one of the alternative methods of ranking schools on the climate continuum which has been suggested by Don B. Croft, as a means of classification. Previous researchers have used this procedure, summing the school's scores on the Esprit and Thrust subtests and then subtracting the school's scores on

¹⁷⁸ See: Andrews, "School Organizational Climate: Some Validity Studies", p. 333.

the Disengagement subtests.¹⁷⁹

In this study, however, the Openness-Closedness index of the school's organizational climate was identified by subtracting the school's average Disengagement score from one hundred. The remainder was added to the school's average Esprit and Thrust subtest's scores. The obtained sum was then divided by three¹⁸⁰, as indicated by the following formula:

$$[(100-\text{Disengagement})+\text{Esprit}+\text{Thrust}] \div 3 = \text{OCIOOC}$$

where OCIOOC = Openness-Closedness Index of Organizational Climates. The higher the obtained result, the more open the school climate. This formula was also used to obtain the openness index of the professional staffs' (teachers, administrators) perception of their organizational climate within each school.

All of the subsequent analysis of the data in regard to the school organizational climate was based on either the openness index of the organizational climates, and/or the normatively standardized subtest scores of the school organizational climate.

¹⁷⁹ James C. Sargent, Organizational Climate of High Schools: A Study of Principal and Staff Perceptions of High School Organizational Climate, Research Monograph No. 4, (Minneapolis: Educational Research and Development Council of Twin Cities Metropolitan Area Inc., 1967), p. 5; also see: James B. Appleberry, "The Relationship Between Organizational Climate and Pupil Control Ideology of Elementary Schools", p. 29.

¹⁸⁰ This procedure was followed upon the recommendation of Dr. Don B. Croft, as the result of a personal conversation with him on Friday, October 2, 1981.

The analysis of the pupil control ideology was based on the raw scores of the pupil control orientation of the schools and their professional staffs.

To test the hypotheses of this investigation, means of the schools' professional staffs on the organizational climate and pupil control ideology were used.

As for statistical treatment for analyzing the data, three-way analysis of variance was used to test the related hypotheses of the study since more than two groups were involved in comparisons. The 0.05 level of significance was arbitrarily selected for this study since it is a common level accepted for research in behavioral science.¹⁸¹

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used to test the degree and direction of the relationships among the overall (the combined scores of teachers and administrators) openness index of school's organizational climate, the school's professional staffs' openness index of organizational climate and the pupil control ideology of the school's personnel.

The same correlation coefficient was also used to test the degree and direction of the intercorrelation between each of the eight subtests of the schools' organizational climate and the teachers', administrators', and the schools' overall pupil control ideology, respectively.

¹⁸¹ See: George A. Ferguson, Statistical Analysis in Psychology and Education, 3rd ed., (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1971), p. 149.

Summary

In this chapter a description of the design of the study, the methods and procedures used in the implementation of this investigation was explained. Also, the location, the population from which the sample schools were drawn was discussed. One section of this chapter deals with the sampled subjects from which the data was collected. Descriptions of the two instruments used to collect the needed data were also included in this chapter. Both instruments were shown to be sufficiently reliable and valid for research purposes. The methods of scoring and analyzing the data were also presented in this chapter.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA AND TESTING OF THE HYPOTHESES

In this chapter the tabulated results derived from application of the instruments described in Chapter III are presented.

In implementation of the study, the data collected was used to determine the organizational climate of the selected schools; to assess the schools' and their professional staffs' pupil control ideologies; and to examine the relationship between the two, if any. The data collected was also subjected to statistical analyses to test the research hypotheses.

The analyses of the data are reported in three sections. The first is related to testing of the eight null hypotheses which guided the research. Each hypothesis is stated and then followed by a table composed of summary data and analysis of variance data. Findings related to the eight hypotheses and other data concerning the relationships of the selected independent variables, or factors to the dependent variables are also presented in the first section of this chapter. The independent variables include: the geographical location of the schools (urban-suburban), the gender of the students attending those schools (boys-girls), and the organizational or grade level of

the schools (high-school-middle school). The dependent variables include: the schools' overall (combination of administrators and teachers scores), the administrators' (combination of principal and vice-principal), and the teachers' perceptions of their schools' organizational climates based on the openness index of the climates; and the schools' and their professional staffs' pupil control ideologies respectively.

The second section is related to the report of the findings drawn from the hypothesis testing which is considered to be the most significant.

In the final section, other relevant findings, as related to the analysis of the schools' organizational climates, pupil control ideologies, and their classifications, referred to as the supplementary analysis of the data, are reported.

To test the stated null hypotheses of this investigation, a three-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), through application of the General Linear Model (GLM)¹⁸², was computed to determine, in addition to comparison of the mean scores of the various groups involved for significant differences, the effect of the independent variables, considered separately and in combination, upon the dependent variables under investigation.

The correlation coefficient (r) was used to examine the significant relationships between the perceived organizational climate

¹⁸² See: Alice Allen Ray, (ed.), The SAS User's Guide: Statistics (Cary, North Carolina: SAS Institute Inc., 1982).

of: the teachers', the administrators', the schools' overall, and the eight subtests or dimensions of the OCDQ, respectively; and: (1) the teachers' pupil control ideology, (2) the administrators' pupil control ideology, and (3) the schools' overall pupil control ideology scores.

All statistical analysis used to test the research hypotheses in the present study were computed, using the Statistical Analysis System (SAS)¹⁸³ computer program.

The statistical model and the underlying assumptions of ANOVA (GLM) are discussed in detail by B. J. Winer¹⁸⁴, and William L. Hays¹⁸⁵, for example.

1. Results of Testing the Hypotheses

The null form of the first hypothesis was stated and tested as follows:

H₀₁ There will be no statistically significant differences among the mean scores of the overall organizational climate of schools in Shiraz, Iran, and the overall organizational climate of schools in the outlying areas, as measured by the OCDQ, based on the following variables: (1) the geographical location of the schools; (2) the organizational or grade

¹⁸³ See: Alice Allen Ray (ed.), The SAS User's Guide: Statistics, 1982; also see: Rudolf J. Freund and Ramon C. Littell, SAS For Linear Models: A Guide to the ANOVA and GLM Procedures, (SAS Institute Inc., 1981).

¹⁸⁴ B.J. Winer, Statistical Principles in Experimental Design (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1971).

¹⁸⁵ William L. Hays, Statistics, 3rd ed., (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1981).

level of schools; (3) the gender of students attending the schools; and (4) the interactions between and among all of the above mentioned independent variables.

This null hypothesis was tested for the overall (combination of administrators and teachers scores) openness index of the schools' organizational climate (N=37) with regard to the effect of the locality of the schools, the gender of the students attending the schools, and the grade or organizational level of the schools. This was accomplished through comparing mean scores of the overall openness index scores of schools within each of the eight subgroups involved. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 2. The computation of the three-way analysis of variance yielded F values that, with 1 and 29 degrees of freedom, were not significant at the 0.05 level of confidence. Therefore, according to the established level of confidence, the hypothesis could not be rejected. As the results presented in Table 2 indicate, it can be concluded that none of the three independent variables, or factors, nor any combination of them significantly affects the schools' organizational climates under investigation. However, if the level of significance used had been set at the 0.10 level, a significant difference would have been found with respect to the geographical location of the schools, between the mean scores of the overall index of the schools' organizational climates of different sub-groups.

Table 2. Summary Data and Three-Way ANOVA Data for the Schools' overall Mean Scores on the Openness Index of Organizational Climates by the Geographical Location of Schools, the Gender of Students Attending the Schools, and the Organizational Level of the Schools

Source of Variation	Sums of Squares	d.f.	Mean Squares	F Ratio
Main Effects				
Locality of School (CY)	53.89	1	53.89	3.33
School Type-Gender (ST)	2.75	1	2.75	0.17
School Level (SL)	3.81	1	3.81	0.24
Interactions				
(CY) X (ST)	22.45	1	22.45	1.40
(CY) X (SL)	0.94	1	0.94	0.06
(ST) X (SL)	12.57	1	12.57	0.78
(CY) X (ST) X (SL)	2.85	1	2.85	0.18
Error	464.78	29	16.03	
Corrected Total	549.42	36		

The second null hypothesis was stated and tested as follows:

H₀₂ There will be no statistically significant differences among the mean scores of the schools' administrators' perceptions of their schools' organizational climate in Shiraz, Iran, and the organizational climate of schools in the outlying areas, as measured by the OCDQ, based on the following variables: (1) the geographical location of the schools; (2) the organizational or grade level of schools; (3) the gender of students attending the schools; and (4) the interactions between and among all of the above mentioned independent variables.

This null hypothesis was tested for the variability of schools' administrators on their perceptions of their organizational climate. This was accomplished by comparing their mean scores on the openness index of organizational climate within each of the eight subgroups. The results of three-way ANOVA and the calculated F values are presented in Table 3. No significant differences were found to exist between the mean scores of administrators within each of the eight subgroups. The results presented in Table 3 indicate that the calculated F values for testing this hypothesis, with 1 and 29 degrees of freedom, were not significant at the 0.05 level of confidence. Therefore, this hypothesis could not be rejected. As the results in Table 3 indicate, there were no statistically significant interactions between the three independent variables, or factors, nor between any combination of them, and the dependent variable, the administrators' perception of their organizational climate. Therefore, it appears that these factors could not be considered as influential elements that would significantly affect the schools' administrators'

perceptions of their organizational climate.

Table 3. Summary Data and Three-Way ANOVA Data for the Schools' Administrators' Mean Scores on the Openness Index of Organizational Climates by the Geographical Location of Schools, the Gender of Students Attending the Schools, and the Organizational Level of the Schools

Source of Variation	Sums of Squares	d.f.	Mean Squares	F Ratio
Main Effects				
Locality of School (CY)	32.52	1	32.52	1.00
School Type-Gender (ST)	1.84	1	1.84	0.06
School Level (SL)	0.18	1	0.18	0.01
Interactions				
(CY) X (ST)	42.97	1	42.97	1.33
(CY) X (SL)	6.39	1	6.39	0.20
(ST) X (SL)	5.98	1	5.98	0.18
(CY) X (ST) X (SL)	17.10	1	17.10	0.53
Error	940.51	29	32.43	
Corrected Total	1027.33	36		

The third null hypothesis was stated and tested as follows:

- H₀₃ There will be no statistically significant differences among the mean scores of the schools' teachers' perceptions of their organizational climate in Shiraz, Iran, and the organizational climate of schools in the outlying areas, as measured by the OCDQ, based on the following variables: (1) the geographical location of the schools; (2) the organizational or grade level of schools; (3) the gender of students attending the schools; and (4) the interactions between and among all of the above specified independent variables.

This null hypothesis was tested for the variability of the schools' teachers on their perceptions of their organizational climate. This was accomplished by comparing their mean scores on the openness index of organizational climate among different categories of teachers. As illustrated in Table 4, at the 0.05 level of significance, it was found that the mean scores of the teachers in different subgroups were significantly different with regard to geographical location of the schools. The computed F ratio, for testing the main effects of the geographical location of schools upon the teachers' perception of their organizational climate, based on the openness index, was 7.14; indicating that with 1 and 29 degrees of freedom, it is significant at the 0.05 level. Therefore, this portion of the hypothesis must be rejected. It can be concluded then, that the locality of the schools appears to affect the teachers' perception of their schools' organizational climate. However, no significant differences were found to exist between the teachers' mean scores of the openness index of the schools' organizational climate with respect to the gender of students and the organizational or grade level of

schools.

Table 4. Summary Data and Three-Way ANOVA Data for the Schools' Teachers' Mean Scores on the Openness Index of Organizational Climates by the Geographical Location of Schools, the Gender of Students Attending the Schools, and the Organizational Level of the Schools

Source of Variation	Sums of Squares	d.f.	Mean Squares	F Ratio
Main Effects				
Locality of School (CY)	80.55	1	80.55	7.14*
School Type-Gender (ST)	3.84	1	3.84	0.34
School Level (SL)	12.10	1	12.10	1.07
Interactions				
(CY) X (ST)	8.47	1	8.47	0.75
(CY) X (SL)	0.35	1	0.35	0.03
(ST) X (SL)	21.58	1	21.58	1.91
(CY) X (ST) X (SL)	0.57	1	0.57	0.05
Error	327.19	29	11.28	
Corrected Total	451.69	36		

* Significant at 0.05 level.

The fourth null hypothesis was stated and tested as follows:

HO₄ There will be no statistically significant differences among the mean scores of the schools' overall pupil control ideology in Shiraz, Iran, and the overall pupil control ideology of schools in the outlying areas, as measured by the PCI Form, based on the following variables: (1) the geographical location of the schools; (2) the organizational or grade level of schools; (3) the gender of students attending the schools; and (4) the interactions between and among all of the above specified independent variables.

This null hypothesis was tested for the schools' overall (combination of administrators and teachers scores) pupil control ideology (N=37) with respect to the effect of the locality of the schools, the gender of the students attending the schools, and the organizational or grade level of schools. The results of this analysis are reported in Table 5. At the 0.05 level of confidence, no significant differences were found to exist between the mean scores of the overall schools' pupil control ideology in the different subgroups involved in the study.

The mean score for the urban schools (N=20) was 60.70 and for the suburban schools (N=17) the mean score was 62.19.¹⁸⁶ Since the calculated F values for testing this null hypothesis, with 1 and 29 degrees of freedom, were not significant at the established level of significance, the hypothesis could not be rejected. As indicated by

¹⁸⁶ The Sampled Iranian Subjects' Mean Scores on the OCDQ and PCI forms are set out in Appendices I and J, respectively.

the data contained in Table 5, none of the three independent variables or factors, considered separately, or in combination, seemed to affect significantly the pupil control orientation of the schools.

Table 5. Summary Data and Three-Way ANOVA Data for the Schools' overall Mean Scores on Pupil Control Ideology by the Geographical Location of Schools, the Gender of Students Attending the Schools, and the Organizational Level of the Schools

Source of Variation	Sums of Squares	d.f.	Mean Squares	F Ratio
Main Effects				
Locality of School (CY)	17.92	1	17.92	1.06
School Type-Gender (ST)	11.03	1	11.03	0.66
School Level (SL)	1.16	1	1.16	0.07
Interactions				
(CY) X (ST)	25.81	1	25.81	1.54
(CY) X (SL)	2.31	1	2.31	0.14
(ST) X (SL)	17.11	1	17.11	1.02
(CY) X (ST) X (SL)	4.23	1	4.23	0.25
Error	488.10	29	16.83	
Corrected Total	581.46	36		

The fifth null hypothesis was stated and tested as follows:

- H₀₅ There will be no statistically significant differences among the mean scores of the school administrators' pupil control ideology in Shiraz, Iran, and the pupil control ideology of school administrators in the outlying areas, as measured by the PCI Form, based on the following variables (1) the geographical location of the schools; (2) the organizational or grade level of schools; (3) the gender of students attending the schools; and (4) the interactions between and among all of the above specified independent variables.

This null hypothesis was tested for the variability of schools' administrators on their pupil control ideology. This was accomplished by comparing the mean scores of the schools' administrators within each of the eight subgroups. No statistically significant differences were found to exist between the mean scores of the eight groups as indicated by the data contained in Table 6. The calculated F values for testing this hypothesis, with 1 and 29 degrees of freedom, were not significant at the 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the hypothesis could not be rejected.

The urban schools' administrators' mean score on pupil control ideology was 60.90, and for the suburban schools the mean score was 62.65. As the results in Table 6 indicate, none of the three independent variables, considered separately, or in combination, seemed to significantly affect the pupil control orientation of the school administrators. It appears that, therefore, these variables, or factors, could not be considered as major factors affecting the pupil control ideology of the schools' administrators under investigation.

Table 6. Summary Data and Three-Way ANOVA Data for the Schools' Administrators' Mean Scores on Pupil Control Ideology by the Geographical Location of Schools, the Gender of Students Attending the Schools, and the Organizational Level of the Schools

Source of Variation	Sums of Squares	d.f.	Mean Squares	F Ratio
Main Effects				
Locality of School (CY)	25.79	1	25.79	0.56
School Type-Gender (ST)	0.19	1	0.19	0.00
School Level (SL)	30.40	1	30.40	0.66
Interactions				
(CY) X (ST)	88.95	1	88.95	1.92
(CY) X (SL)	18.95	1	18.95	0.41
(ST) X (SL)	24.34	1	24.34	0.53
(CY) X (ST) X (SL)	6.82	1	6.82	0.15
Error	1341.90	29	46.27	
Corrected Total	1557.92	36		

The sixth null hypothesis was stated and tested as follows:

H₀₆ There will be no statistically significant differences among the mean scores of the school teachers' pupil control ideology in Shiraz, Iran, and the pupil control ideology of school teachers in the outlying areas, as measured by the PCI Form, based on the following variables: (1) the geographical location of the schools; (2) the organizational or grade level of schools; (3) the gender of students attending the schools; and (4) the interactions between and among all of the above specified variables.

This null hypothesis was tested for the variability of school teachers on their pupil control ideology. This was accomplished by comparing the mean scores of teachers' pupil control ideology among various subgroups of teachers. As indicated in Table 7, at the 0.05 level of significance, no statistically significant differences were found to exist between either the teachers' mean scores on the pupil control ideology with respect to the geographical location and the grade level of the schools; nor between the teachers' mean scores of pupil control ideology with respect to the interactions between and among the three independent variables. But, it was found that the mean scores of the teachers in various subgroups were significantly different with regard to the gender of the students attending the schools. The calculated F ratio of the main effects of schools type according to the gender of students attending them was 4.55 ($P \leq 0.05$). This indicates that when the other two independent variables, the locality of schools and organizational level of schools, were controlled there was a significant difference in the pupil control ideology scores of the secondary school teachers according to the sex

of the students that they taught.¹⁸⁷

Table 7. Summary Data and Three-Way ANOVA Data for the Schools' Teachers' Mean Scores on the Openness Index of Organizational Climates by the Geographical Location of Schools, the Gender of Students Attending the Schools, and the Organizational Level of the Schools

Source of Variation	Sums of Squares	d.f.	Mean Squares	F Ratio
Main Effects				
Locality of School (CY)	11.49	1	11.49	1.36
School Type-Gender (ST)	38.49	1	38.49	4.55*
School Level (SL)	11.27	1	11.27	1.33
Interactions				
(CY) X (ST)	0.54	1	0.54	0.06
(CY) X (SL)	1.71	1	1.71	0.26
(ST) X (SL)	11.16	1	11.16	1.32
(CY) X (ST) X (SL)	2.25	1	2.25	0.27
Error	245.22	29	8.46	
Corrected Total	333.13	36		

* Significant at 0.05 level.

¹⁸⁷ The mean scores of combined urban and suburban subgroups of Teachers' Pupil Control Ideology, with regard to the gender of students they taught are presented in Appendix J.

The seventh null hypothesis was stated and tested as follows:

H₀ There will be no statistically significant relationship between the over-all organizational climate of schools, as compared to the schools' over-all pupil control ideology, the administrators' pupil control ideology, and the teachers' pupil control ideology; nor between the administrators' perception of their organizational climate as compared to the schools' over-all pupil control ideology, the administrators' pupil control ideology, and the teachers' pupil control ideology; nor between the teachers' perception of their schools' organizational climate as compared to the schools' over-all pupil control ideology, the administrators' pupil control ideology, and the teachers' pupil control ideology.

To test this hypothesis, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r) analytical procedure was used. A coefficient of correlation was computed between the mean scores of various subgroups involved on the two variables: the perceived organizational climate and the pupil control ideology.

The summary results for testing this hypothesis are shown in Table 8. As the results presented in Table 8 indicated, no significant relationships were found to exist between the schools' over-all mean scores on the openness index of organizational climate and the schools' over-all pupil control ideology.

When this hypothesis was tested for the administrators and the teachers respectively, no significant relationships were found between the mean scores of the administrators' and teachers' perception of their organizational climate, based on the openness index, and their pupil control ideology of the two respectively.

Since none of the computed r showed statistically significant

relationships to exist between the two variables, according to the previously established level of significance, the hypothesis could not be rejected.

Table 8. Correlations Among the Schools' Overall, the Administrators', and the Teachers' Mean Scores on Pupil Control Ideology and the Schools' Overall, the Administrators' and the Teachers' Mean Scores on the Openness-Index of Their School's Organizational Climate.

No. of Schools 37	OOPI	AOPI	TOPI	SPCI	APCI	TPCI
OOPI ^a	1.00	0.92*	0.82*	-0.04	-0.03	-0.03
AOPI ^b		1.00	0.53**	-0.01	0.02	-0.06
TOPI ^c			1.00	-0.07	-0.10	0.03
SPCI ^d				1.00	0.93*	0.63*
APCI ^e					1.00	0.30
TPCI ^f						1.00

^aSchools' Overall Openness Index of Organizational Climate.

^bAdministrators' Openness Index of Organizational Climate.

^cTeachers' Openness Index of Organizational Climate.

^dSchools' Overall Pupil Control Ideology.

^eAdministrators' Pupil Control Ideology.

^fTeachers' Pupil Control Ideology.

Note: * Significant at 0.001 level.
** Significant at 0.01 level.

The eighth null hypothesis was stated and tested as follows:

HO₈ There will be no statistically significant relationships between the eight subtests of the schools' organizational climate, as compared to the schools' over-all pupil control ideology, the Administrators' pupil control ideology, and the teachers' pupil control ideology.

This hypothesis was tested to determine if significant relationships existed between the schools' over-all, the administrators', and the teachers' mean scores of pupil control ideology, respectively, and the eight dimensions or subtests' scores of the schools' organizational climate, as measured by the OCDQ.

The calculated coefficient of correlations between the mean scores of the various groups on pupil control ideology and the mean scores of the eight subtests of the organizational climate of the schools (N=37) are shown in Table 9. As illustrated in Table 9, no statistically significant relationships were found to exist between the schools' over-all pupil control ideology scores and the eight dimensions of the schools' organizational climate, at the designated level of significance. However, if the level of significance used was set at 0.1, a moderate to low relationship would be found to exist between the schools' over-all pupil control ideology and the Aloofness subtest of the organizational climate ($r=0.30$).

When this hypothesis was tested for administrators, no significant relationships were found to exist between the administrators' pupil control ideology and the eight subtests of the schools' organizational climate. The results are shown in Table 9.

This hypothesis was also tested for relationships between the teachers' pupil control ideology and the eight subtests of the schools' organizational climate. As indicated in Table 9, no significant relationships were found to exist. However, if the level of significance was set at 0.1, the results would show, again, that there would be a moderate to low relationship between the teachers' pupil control ideology and the subtest of aloofness of the schools' organizational climate ($r = 0.30$).

Table 9. Correlations Among the Mean Scores of the Schools' Overall, and Their Professional Staffs' on Pupil Control Ideology and the Schools' Overall, the Administrators', and the Teachers' Mean Scores on the eight Subtests of the Organizational Climate (Normatively Standardized). N = 37.

O.C. SUBTESTS	SPCI	APCI	TPCI
DIS.	-0.06	-0.04	-0.07
HIN.	0.25	0.24	0.15
ESP.	-0.15	-0.10	-0.19
INT.	-0.16	-0.13	-0.15
ALO.	0.30*	0.23	0.30*
PRO.	0.23	0.18	0.22
THR.	0.01	-0.01	0.05
CON.	-0.10	-0.11	-0.02

Note: * Not significant at 0.05 level, but would be if the level of significance used was set at 0.1 level.

II. Major Findings of the Study

The results of the hypothesis testing were reported in the preceding section of this chapter. In this section major findings drawn from the testing of the hypotheses are presented.

With regard to the organizational climate of the selected schools, based on the responses of all reference groups (administrators and teachers) in each of the selected schools, no statistically significant differences were found to exist between the mean scores of the over-all schools' organizational climates in the eight subgroups involved in the urban and suburban area schools. As the results of the analysis of the data indicate, none of the three independent variables, when considered separately and in combination, appeared to affect significantly the over-all schools' organizational climates.

Considering only the responses of the schools' administrators, no statistically significant differences were found to exist between the mean scores of administrators within each of the eight subgroups. There was not a statistically significant interaction between the three independent variables, or factors studied, considered separately or in combination, and the schools' organizational climates as perceived by the schools' administrators.

No statistically significant differences were found to exist between the mean scores of the teachers grouped within each of the eight subgroups with regard to the gender of students attending the

schools and the organizational or grade level of the schools. However, it was observed that the mean scores of teachers in different subgroups were significantly different with respect to the geographic location of the schools, demonstrating that the locality of the schools appears to affect the teachers' perceptions of their schools' organizational climates.

No statistical tests were performed on the data for comparison of the mean scores of the teachers in different subgroups. Nevertheless, the inspection of the teachers' mean scores, with respect to the schools' organizational climate, based on the openness index of the schools' climate, in urban and suburban areas revealed that the urban schools' teachers' mean scores (combination of Middle and Senior high schools for boys and girls), as a group, was higher ($N=198$, $\bar{x} = 50.77$, with a standard deviation of 3.33) than their counterparts in suburban areas ($N = 154$, $\bar{x} = 47.68$, $SD = 3.27$). This demonstrates that the urban schools' teachers, in general, perceived their organizational climates to be more open as compared to the suburban schools' teachers.

When the combination of the boys and girls high schools teachers' mean scores in the urban area was checked against their counterparts in suburban areas, it was observed that the high school teachers in urban areas ($N = 100$, $\bar{x} = 50.05$, $SD = 3.52$) were perceiving their schools' organizational climates to be more open than the high school teachers serving in suburban areas' schools ($N = 61$, $\bar{x} = 48.01$, $SD = 3.82$).

Examination of the mean scores of the combined middle schools'

teachers, for both boys and girls, in the urban area as compared to the mean scores of their counterparts in suburban areas, revealed that the urban middle schools' teachers, as a group, generally perceived their organizational climates to be more open ($N = 98$, $\bar{x} = 51.47$, $SD = 3.19$) than the suburban middle schools' teachers ($N=93$, $\bar{x} = 48.17$, $SD = 2.72$).

Inspection of the mean scores of the teaching staffs of the combination of boys and girls middle schools in urban and suburban areas, as compared to the mean scores of their respective administrators, revealed that the middle schools' administrators in both the urban ($N = 20$, $\bar{x} = 52.97$, $SD = 5.00$) and the suburban schools ($N = 18$, $\bar{x} = 51.89$, with a standard deviation of 6.27) perceived their schools' organizational climates to be more open than the teachers in both the urban middle schools ($N = 98$, $\bar{x} = 51.47$, $SD = 3.19$) and outlying areas' middle schools ($N = 93$, $\bar{x} = 48.17$, $SD = 2.72$) respectively.

The high schools' teaching staff's mean scores, with respect to the schools' organizational climate, in both the urban high schools (a combination of boys and girls schools, $N = 100$, $\bar{x} = 50.07$, $SD = 3.50$) and outlying areas' high schools (a combination of boys and girls schools, $N = 61$, $\bar{x} = 47.54$, $SD = 3.68$) were lower than their respective administrators. The urban high schools' administrators' mean scores were ($N = 20$, $\bar{x} = 53.70$, $SD = 5.50$); and the outlying areas' high schools' administrators' mean scores were ($N = 15$, $\bar{x} = 51.73$, with a standard deviation of 5.09). This indicated that the high schools' administrators, in general, perceived their school as

being more open than their respective teachers. However, the urban high schools' teachers ($N = 100$, $\bar{x} = 50.07$) indicated that they perceived their schools' organizational climate as being more open than their counterparts in the outlying areas' high schools ($N = 61$, $\bar{x} = 47.54$).

Examination of the mean scores of the combination of boys and girls high schools in the urban area, as compared to the mean scores of boys and girls high schools in suburban areas, revealed that the combination of high schools in the urban area ($N = 10$, $\bar{x} = 51.88$, $SD = 4.13$) scored higher than the high schools in the outlying areas ($N = 7$, $\bar{x} = 49.63$, $SD = 3.83$), indicating that the urban high schools' professional staffs, in general, perceived their organizational climates to be more open than their counterparts in the suburban areas.

When the combination of boys and girls middle schools in the urban area were checked against the middle schools in outlying areas, the urban middle schools' mean score was higher ($N = 10$, $\bar{x} = 52.22$, $SD = 3.84$) than the middle schools in outlying areas ($N = 10$, $\bar{x} = 50.03$, $SD = 3.80$). Accordingly, the urban middle schools appeared to be perceived as being more open by their professional staffs as compared to their counterparts in the suburban middle schools.

However, inspection of the index of openness of the schools' climates revealed that the urban schools' (a combination of middle and senior high schools for boys and girls) mean scores, in general, were higher ($N = 20$, $\bar{x} = 52.05$, $SD = 3.89$) than schools in suburban areas ($N = 17$, $\bar{x} = 49.86$, $SD = 3.69$), indicating that the urban schools

professional staffs perceived their organizational climate to be more open than their counterparts in outlying areas. It also revealed that the high schools (a combination of boys and girls schools in urban and suburban areas) scored lower ($N = 17$, $\bar{x} = 50.95$, with a standard deviation of 4.05) than the combination of middle schools ($N = 20$, $\bar{x} = 51.12$, $SD = 3.88$), indicating that the middle schools' professional staffs perceived their organizational climate as being slightly more open than the high schools' professional staff.

With respect to the pupil control orientation of the selected schools and their professional staffs' pupil control ideologies, based on the responses of all reference groups in each of the selected schools, no statistically significant differences were found to exist between the mean scores of the over-all (the combined responses of all individual subjects selected within each one of the schools involved in the study) schools' pupil control ideology in the eight subgroups involved in urban and suburban area schools. As the results of the analysis of the data indicates, none of the three independent variables, considered separately and in combination, appeared to affect significantly the over-all schools' pupil control orientation.

However, examination of the mean scores of the combination of high and middle schools for boys and girls in both the urban and suburban area schools revealed that the urban schools, in general, ($N = 20$, $\bar{x} = 60.81$, with a standard deviation of = 2.39) scored lower than the combination of the suburban schools ($N = 17$, $\bar{x} = 62.02$, and $SD = 3.23$), indicating that the urban schools are more humanistically,

though not significantly so, oriented than the outlying area schools.

When the mean scores of pupil control ideology of the combination of boys and girls high schools in the urban areas were compared to their counterparts in outlying areas, it was observed that the suburban area high schools ($N = 7$, $\bar{x} = 62.00$, $SD = 4.16$) scored slightly higher than the urban high schools ($N = 10$, $\bar{x} = 60.89$, $SD = 2.61$), indicating that the urban high schools were more inclined toward a humanistic orientation than their counterparts in the outlying areas.

Inspection of the mean scores of the pupil control ideology of the combination of suburban and urban areas' boys high schools ($N = 10$, $\bar{x} = 62.44$, $SD = 3.37$) as compared to the combination of suburban and urban areas' girls high schools ($N = 7$, $\bar{x} = 59.51$, $SD = 2.41$) revealed that the girls high schools were more humanistically oriented than the boys high schools.

When the mean scores of the pupil control ideology of boys and girls high schools in the urban area were compared, again, high schools for girls scored lower ($N = 5$, $\bar{x} = 59.00$, $SD = 2.72$) than the boys high schools ($N = 5$, $\bar{x} = 62.37$, $SD = 0.87$). The same was true when boys and girls high schools in outlying areas were compared. The boys high schools' mean scores on the PCI were higher ($N = 5$, $\bar{x} = 62.49$, $SD = 4.98$) than the girls high schools ($N = 2$, $\bar{x} = 60.78$, $SD = 0.82$). By means of comparison, these scores demonstrate that the girls high schools, in general, were more disposed towards a humanistic orientation than the boys high schools.

Comparison of the combination of boys and girls middle schools'

mean scores on pupil control ideology revealed that the combination of middle schools in outlying areas scored higher ($N = 10$, $\bar{x} = 62.03$, $SD = 2.63$), though not significantly, than the middle schools' combination in urban areas ($N = 10$, $\bar{x} = 60.92$, $SD = 2.29$). This indicated that the middle schools in outlying areas are more custodially oriented than their counterparts in urban areas.

Examination of the mean scores of boys and girls middle schools on pupil control ideology in urban and suburban areas, respectively, indicate that the urban girls middle schools ($N = 5$, $\bar{x} = 60.50$, $SD = 2.46$) scored lower than their counterparts in urban boys middle schools ($N = 5$, $\bar{x} = 61.33$, $SD = 2.31$), suburban girls middle schools ($N = 5$, $\bar{x} = 61.75$, $SD = 2.06$), and suburban boys middle schools ($N = 5$, $\bar{x} = 62.30$, $SD = 3.35$), respectively.

When considering only the responses of the schools' administrators, no statistically significant differences were found to exist between the mean scores of the administrators' pupil control ideologies within each of the eight subgroups. No statistically significant interactions were observed to exist between the three independent variables studied, considered separately or in combination, and the schools' administrators' pupil control ideology.

However, examination of the schools' administrators' pupil control ideology mean scores of both levels of boys and girls schools in urban areas ($N = 40$, $\bar{x} = 60.90$ with a standard deviation of 8.59) as compared to the pupil control ideology mean scores of the schools' administrators in both levels of boys and girls schools in outlying areas ($N = 32$, $\bar{x} = 62.16$, $SD = 8.36$) indicate that, in general, the

suburban schools' administrators are more inclined toward a custodial orientation than their counterparts in the urban schools.

When the pupil control ideology mean scores of urban high (combination of boys and girls) schools' administrators were checked against their counterparts in outlying areas, there were no apparent differences in their pupil control orientation between the urban high schools' administrators ($N = 20$, $\bar{x} = 62.60$, $SD = 8.12$) and the suburban high schools' administrators ($N = 14$, $\bar{x} = 62.36$, $SD = 8.84$). But, inspection of the mean scores of the schools' administrators on pupil control ideology in urban and outlying areas, respectively, in relation to the gender of the students attending the schools, indicate that the girls urban high schools' administrators ($N = 10$, $\bar{x} = 59.60$, $SD = 9.69$), in general, are more humanistically oriented than their counterparts in suburban boys high schools ($N = 10$, $\bar{x} = 61.70$, $SD = 9.49$), suburban girls high schools ($N = 4$, $\bar{x} = 64.00$, $SD = 8.00$), and urban boys high schools ($N = 10$, $\bar{x} = 65.60$, $SD = 5.04$) respectively.

Inspection of the mean scores of the middle schools' administrators' pupil control ideology showed that there were differences, though not statistically significant, between the urban middle schools' administrators, combination of boys and girls ($N = 20$, $\bar{x} = 59.2$, $SD = 8.91$) and the suburban middle schools' administrators ($N = 18$, $\bar{x} = 62.00$, $SD = 7.88$). This indicates that the middle schools' administrators in urban areas are less inclined toward a custodial orientation than their counterparts in outlying areas.

No statistically significant differences were found to exist between the mean scores of teachers grouped within each of the eight

subgroups with respect to the geographical location, and the organizational level of the schools. However, it was found that the mean scores of teachers in different subgroups were significantly different with regard to the gender of the students attending the schools. This demonstrates that the gender of the students taught appears to affect the pupil control orientation of the teachers.

In general, the teachers in boys schools, a combination of middle and high schools in urban and outlying areas ($N = 194$, $\bar{x} = 62.13$, $SD = 8.30$) scored higher than their counterparts in the combination of girls schools ($N = 158$, $\bar{x} = 60.31$, $SD = 8.31$), indicating that the teachers serving in the boys schools are inclined to have a more custodial orientation than their counterparts in girls schools.

Further inspection of the teachers' pupil control ideology, with regard to the locality of the schools, revealed that the urban school teachers, in general, scored slightly, though not significantly, lower ($N = 198$, $\bar{x} = 60.79$, $SD = 9.63$) than their counterparts in outlying areas ($N = 154$, $\bar{x} = 61.89$, $SD = 8.45$). When the urban high schools (boys and girls) teachers' pupil control ideology ($N = 100$, $\bar{x} = 60.31$, $SD = 8.56$) was checked against their counterparts in outlying areas ($N = 98$, $\bar{x} = 61.80$, $SD = 7.78$) virtually no difference was found between the two.

With respect to the grade or organizational level of the schools, when the mean scores of the teachers' pupil control ideology in the boys and girls high schools and middle schools in urban and outlying areas, respectively, were checked against one another, it showed that the teachers in girls' urban high schools ($N = 50$, $\bar{x} = 58.88$, $SD =$

8.09) scored lower than their counterparts in the suburban girls high schools ($N = 17$, $\bar{x} = 60.06$, $SD = 8.12$), urban girls middle schools ($N = 48$, $\bar{x} = 60.85$, $SD = 8.55$), suburban girls middle schools ($N = 43$, $\bar{x} = 61.44$, $SD = 8.40$), urban boys middle schools ($N = 50$, $\bar{x} = 61.68$, $SD = 7.44$), urban boys high schools ($N = 50$, $\bar{x} = 61.78$, $SD = 8.85$), suburban boys high schools ($N = 44$, $\bar{x} = 62.48$, $SD = 7.63$), and suburban boys middle schools ($N = 50$, $\bar{x} = 62.66$, $SD = 8.26$), respectively. This indicates that the teachers in girls urban high schools are more humanistically oriented than their counterparts.

No statistically significant relationships were found to exist between the schools', administrators', and teachers', respectively, mean scores on the Openness Index of organizational climates and the pupil control orientation of the schools' and their professional staffs.

When tested to determine if significant relationships existed between the schools', and their professional staffs' mean scores on pupil control ideology and the eight subtests, or dimensions of the schools' organizational climate, no statistically significant relationships were found to exist at the established level of confidence ($P \leq 0.05$).

III. Supplementary Analysis of the Data

One of the main concerns of this investigation was to identify, based on the perception of the schools' professional staff, the organizational climate of the selected secondary schools and to classify the schools' climates accordingly.

Halpin and Croft, in their original study of schools' organizational climates, identified, by means of factorial analysis of the eight subtests of the OCDQ, six categories of schools' organizational climates and ranked them on a continuum basis from "open" to "closed". The six categories are as follows: Open, Autonomous, Controlled, Familiar, Paternal, and Closed (for a full description of the six categories, see Appendix B).

The two extreme classifications, "Open" and "Closed" were described by Halpin and Croft as follows: The school with an open climate is described as having high scores on the Esprit, Thrust and Consideration subtests, an average score on the Intimacy subtest, and low scores on the Hindrance, Disengagement, Aloofness and Production-Emphasis subtests. To the contrary, the school with a closed climate has low scores on the Esprit, Thrust and Consideration subtests, a moderate score on the Intimacy subtest, and high scores on the Disengagement, Hindrance, Aloofness and Production-Emphasis subtests.¹⁸⁸

According to this type of classification, out of the thirty-seven

¹⁸⁸ Halpin and Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools, pp. 60-66.

(37) selected schools included in this study, ten (10) schools, or 27 percent could be identified as being within the "open" category; six (6) schools, or 16 percent, could fall within the "Autonomous" climate; seven (7) schools, or 19 percent, as "Controlled" climate, and three (3) schools, or 8 percent of the total would fall within the "Familiar" type of climate. The remaining eleven (11) schools, or 30 percent of the total could be identified as having a "Closed" climate.

But, as mentioned in a previous section (see chapter 3, p. 109-110, in this study, the index of openness-closedness of a school organizational climate, one of the alternative methods of ranking schools on the climate continuum, was used as a means of classification of schools' organizational climates. In this context, the organizational climates of the schools under investigation (N = 37) were identified as follows:

Of the thirty-seven (37) schools, twenty-two schools, or 59 percent of the total number studied, were perceived as having a "relatively open" climate by their professional staffs. The remaining fifteen (15) schools, or 41 percent of the total number, were perceived by their professional staffs as having a "relatively closed" climate. The mean scores of relatively open schools (N = 22) was 53.67, with a standard deviation of 2.14. For the relatively closed schools (N = 15) the mean score was 47.24, with a standard deviation of 2.51. The graphically represented profiles of the "relatively open" and "relatively closed" schools, based on the openness-closedness index of the organizational climates of the schools under investigation are presented in Figure 1.

But, when the doubly standardized schools profile scores of the schools under investigation ($N = 37$) was used to identify the organizational climates, the schools were found to be almost equally divided. Out of the 37 schools, based on the doubly standardized schools' profile scores and according to the mean subtests scores of the relatively open and relatively closed schools, nineteen (19), or 51 percent, of the total schools included in the study were perceived by their professional staffs as having a "relatively open" climate, while the remaining eighteen (18), or 49 percent of the total number studied, were perceived as having a "relatively closed" climate. The graphically represented profiles of the relatively open and relatively closed schools, based on the doubly standardized schools' mean subtests' scores on organizational climates, are presented in Figure 2.

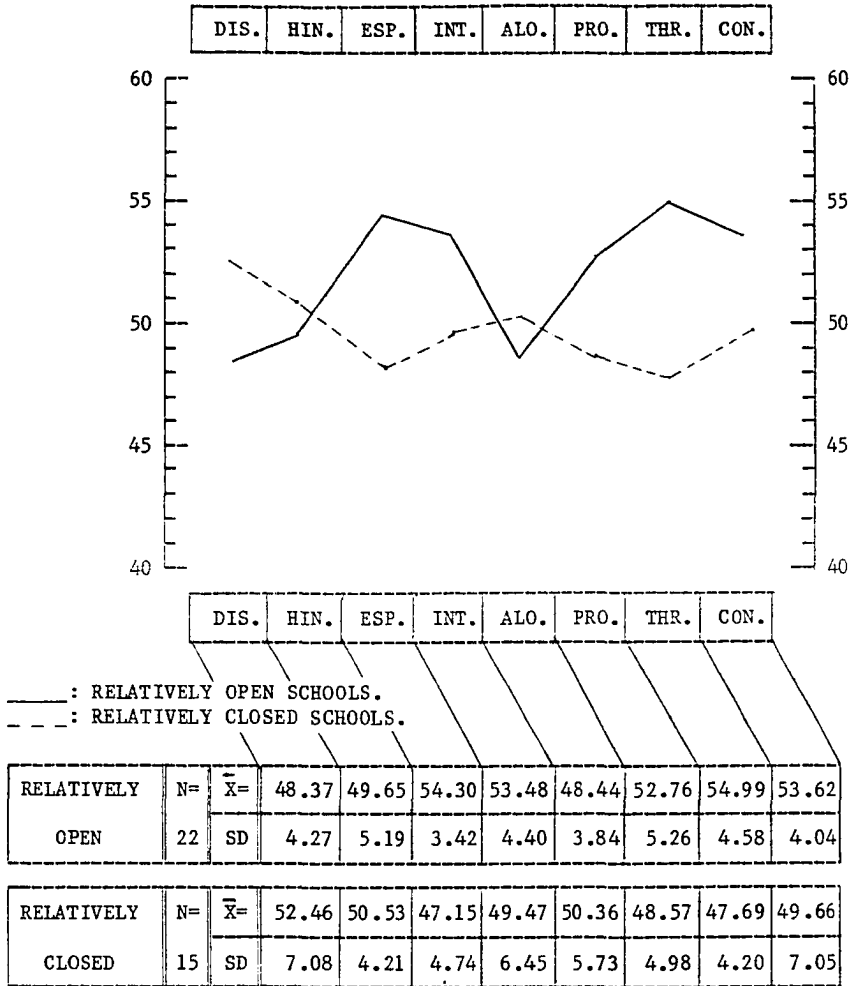


Figure 1. Profile of the Relatively Open and Relatively Closed climates of the selected Iranian secondary schools as identified through the Openness-Closedness Index of the organizational climate, based on the normatively standardized mean subtests' scores.

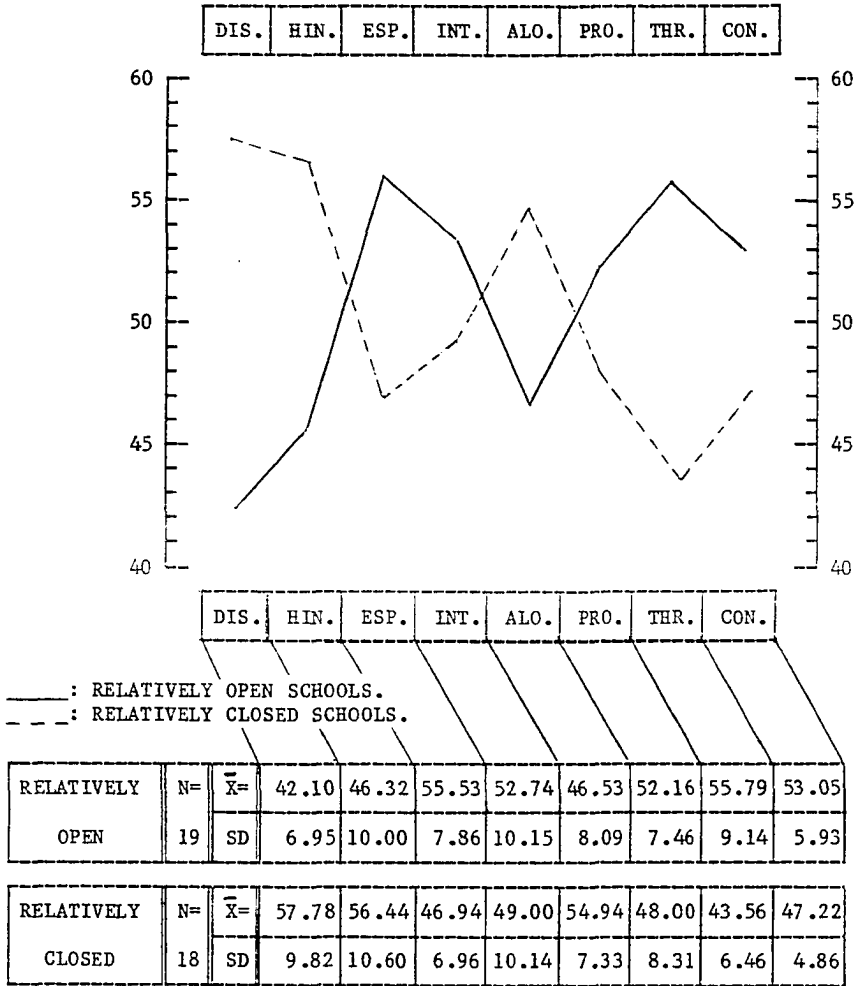


Figure 2. Profile of the Relatively Open and Relatively Closed climates of the selected Iranian secondary schools as identified through the Openness-Closedness Index of the organizational climate, based on the doubly standardized mean subtests' scores.

A comparison of these two profiles: (1) the schools' profiles whose relative openness or closedness of their climates were identified by means of the openness index of organizational climates, and (2) the schools' profile whose relative openness or closedness of their climate were identified according to their doubly standardized mean scores on the eight dimensions of the organizational climate, revealed that they are comparable procedures in the identification of the schools' organizational climate. The openness-index of Organizational Climate as a means of classification of schools' organizational climates on a continuum basis, to some extent, compares favorably with the prototypical profile of a schools' organizational climate developed and described by Halpin and Croft in their original study.

Since the public educational system in Iran used to be highly centralized and the administrative processes, teachers' training and staffing procedures, curriculum, financing and budgeting, and other related functions of the public school system were, and to some extent still are, almost uniform throughout the country, one could logically assume that all schools would have a monolithic climate, either "relatively open" or "relatively closed" if measured on a continuum. This study does not address this issue because the schools' scores were internally standardized. Therefore, any comparison to a larger entity is inappropriate.

With regard to pupil control orientation of the selected schools and their professional staffs' pupil control ideologies, based on the responses of the subjects involved, it was observed that the schools'

professional staffs could be identified as belonging to three different groups as follows:

(1) A number of schools' professional staffs, according to their scores, could be identified as "humanistically oriented." Out of a total of 352 teachers involved in the study, the number of teachers identified as being humanistic were 78, or 21.16 percent of the total; with a mean score of 47.89 and a standard deviation of 4.95. Of seventy-two (72) schools' administrators involved in the study, a total of 17, or 23.61 percent, were identified as being "humanistic." The mean score of the humanistic administrators was 50.06 with a standard deviation of 4.06. Their raw scores, for both groups, ranged from a low of 36 to a high of 55 on a scale of 20 to 100 (see Appendices G and H).

(2) The number of teachers identified as being "custodially oriented" was 70, or 19.89 percent of the total; with a mean score of 72.63 and a standard deviation of 4.10. The number of schools' administrators identified as being custodial was 24, or 33.34 percent of the total; with a mean score of 70.79 and a standard deviation of 2.64. Their raw scores, for both groups, ranged from a low of 68 to a high of 85 on a scale of 20 to 100 (see Appendices G and H).

(3) The third group was identified as being a "composite or hybrid" of the two former groups. The composite or hybrid referred to those who could not precisely be identified as being either humanistic or custodial, had scores either leaning towards the humanistic group or the custodial group, as indicated in Appendices G and H. The third group's raw scores ranged from 56 to 67 on a scale of 20 to 100. The

mean score of the composite teachers (N = 204) was 61.79 with a standard deviation of 3.27; and, for the composite schools' administrators (N = 31) the mean score was 60.48 with a standard deviation of 3.26.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Overview of the Study

This study was undertaken to identify and classify the organizational climates of the selected Iranian Secondary schools (combination of middle and high schools) and to ascertain the pupil control ideology of the schools' professional staffs (administrators and teachers). Also, this study was designed to examine the relationships, if any, between the two variables. Furthermore, the investigator was concerned with the influence of three independent variables, or factors, upon the dependent variables: the organizational climate and the pupil control orientation of the schools' professional staffs. The three independent variables, each having two levels, were: the geographical location (urban-suburban), the gender of the students (boys and girls), and the organizational or grade level of the schools (Middle-Senior High).

This study was conducted on secondary schools in the city of Shiraz and its outlying areas, of Fars Province, Iran.

To achieve the purposes of this investigation, of the total number of 213 existing secondary schools in operation during the

academic year 1980-81, thirty-seven (37) middle and high schools for boys and girls located in Shiraz and its outlying areas were selected through stratified random sampling procedure. The stratification was based on the following criteria: geographical locations of the schools, the gender of students attending the schools, and the organizational level (or grade level) of the schools. The schools were therefore divided into eight subgroups. From each of these subgroups, a total number of five schools were selected, with the exception of suburban girls high schools. In this subgroup there were only two high schools in operation. Both schools were included.

In each of the selected schools between six to twelve subjects were randomly selected for the study. As a result, the total number of subjects involved in the study was 435, consisting of seventy-three (73) school administrators and three hundred sixty-two (362) members of teaching staffs.

The two instruments used to collect the needed data were the OCDQ Form IV and the PCI Form. Both instruments were used with the permission of the authors. The instruments were adapted and translated into Farsi (the Persian language) for use in the Iranian school setting.

The adapted instruments were submitted to a panel of three persons, experts in the Farsi and English languages, for approval and validation of the translations. As an exploratory step in determining the reliability of the adapted instruments, the responses of a number of schools' professional staffs ($N = 46$), representative of four different types of urban schools were used. Application of the

test-retest between each of the eight subtests' scores of the adapted OCDQ Form produced correlation coefficients as follows: Disengagement (0.96), Hindrance (0.93), Esprit (0.97), Intimacy (0.95), Aloofness (0.95), Production-Emphasis (0.95), Thrust (0.92), and Consideration (0.97). And, for the PCI Form instrument, the resulting coefficient of reliability between the test and retest was ($r = 0.96$).

The instruments were distributed among the subjects of the study to be completed and returned within a week. Out of 435 questionnaires distributed, 424 usable questionnaires, or 97.5 percent of the total were collected. Data from the questionnaires were used to determine the schools' organizational climates and the pupil control orientation of the schools' professional staffs. The data collected was also used to test the stated hypotheses and other related statistics.

The data was analyzed through a three-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test of significant differences, through application of the General Linear Model (GLM), between the mean scores of the schools' and their professional staffs' perceptions of organizational climate and the mean scores of the schools' and their professionals' pupil control orientations.

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r) was used to examine the relationships between the schools' and their professional staffs' perceptions of organizational climate, and their pupil control orientations. The level of significance was set at the 0.05 level of confidence.

Findings

As a result of the analysis of the data, the major findings of the study can be summarized as follows:

In this study the Index of Openness-Closedness of schools' organizational climate was used as a means of identifying and classifying a school's and its professional staffs' perceptions of organizational climate on a continuum basis. In this context, it was observed that out of thirty-seven (37) schools in the sample, twenty-two (22) schools or 59 percent of the total number studied were perceived as having a relatively open climate by their professional staffs. The remaining fifteen (15) schools or 41 percent were perceived by their professional staffs as having a relatively closed climate.

With regard to the pupil control orientation of the selected schools and their professional staffs' pupil control ideologies, it was observed that the sampled Iranian schools' professional staffs could be identified as belonging to three different groups as follows:

Humanistic group — The number of schools' administrators identified as being humanistic was seventeen (17), or 23.61 percent of a total number of seventy-two (72). The number of teachers identified as being humanistic was seventy-eight (78), or 21.2 percent of a total number of 352 — with the raw scores for the humanistic group ranging from a low of 36 to a high of 55 on a scale from 20 to 100.

Custodial group — The number of administrators identified as being custodial was twenty-four (24), or 33.34 percent of a total

number of seventy-two (72). The number of teachers identified as being custodial was seventy (70), or 19.89 percent of a total number of 352 — with the raw scores for the custodial group ranging from a low of 68 to a high of 85 on a scale of 20 to 100.

Composite group — The third group was identified as being a composite or hybrid of the two former groups because this group's scores were midrange between the humanistic and custodial groups, and therefore could not precisely be placed in either group. The number of composite schools' administrators was thirty-one (31) or 43.06 percent of the total number of seventy-two (72). The number of the composite teachers was two hundred and four (204), or 57.95 percent of the total number of 352 — with the raw scores for this group ranging from a low of 56 to a high of 67, on a scale from 20 to 100.

No statistically significant differences were found to exist between the mean scores of the over-all schools' organizational climates in the eight subgroups involved in the urban and suburban areas' schools. The main effects variables of the geographical location of the schools, the gender of students attending the schools, and the organizational or grade level of the schools, when considered separately and in first and second ordered interacting combinations of the factors, were not found to have a statistically significant effect upon the over-all sampled Iranian schools' organizational climates.

No statistically significant differences were found to exist between the mean scores of administrators' perceptions of their schools' organizational climates. The main effects variables of the geographical location of the schools, the gender of students attending

the schools, and the organizational or grade level of the schools, when considered separately and in first and second ordered interacting combinations of the factors, were not found to statistically affect the selected Iranian schools' administrators' perceptions of their organizational climate.

Significant differences were found to exist between the mean scores of teachers' perceptions of their organizational climate in different subgroups in relation to the geographical locations of the schools. Of the three independent variables examined, only the geographical location of the schools was found to have a statistically significant relationship to the sampled Iranian teachers' perceptions of their organizational climate. No significant relationships appeared to exist between the gender of students, the organizational or grade level of the schools, considered separately or in combination, and the school teachers' perceptions of their school's organizational climate. As a result of the examinations of the mean scores of the different subgroups involved in the study, it was observed that the schools' teachers serving in urban area schools, in general, perceived their schools' organizational climate to be more open than the teachers serving in suburban area schools.

No statistically significant differences were found to exist between the mean scores of the over-all schools' pupil control ideology in the eight subgroups involved in the urban and suburban areas' schools. The main effects variables of the geographical location of the schools, the gender of the students attending the schools, and the organizational or grade level of the schools, when

considered separately and in first and second order interacting combinations, were not found to have a significant effect upon the over-all pupil control orientations of the schools.

No statistically significant differences were found to exist between the mean scores of schools administrators' pupil control ideologies. The main effects variables of the geographical location of the schools, the gender of students attending the schools, and the organizational or grade level of the schools, when considered separately and when considered in first and second order interacting combinations, were not found to be significantly related to, or seen as having an effect on, the sampled Iranian schools' administrators' pupil control ideologies.

Significant differences were found between the mean scores of teachers' pupil control ideologies in different subgroups in relation to the gender of students attending the schools. Of the three independent variables examined, only the gender of the students attending the schools was found to be significantly related to, or seen as having an effect on, the sampled Iranian teachers' pupil control ideologies. No significant relationships appeared to exist between the geographical location of the schools, the organizational or grade level of the schools, when considered separately or in combination, and the school teachers' pupil control ideologies. As a result of the examination of the mean scores of the different subgroups involved, it was found that teachers serving in boys schools, in general, were inclined to have a more custodial orientation than their counterparts in girls schools.

No significant relationships were found to exist among: (a) the schools' over-all, (b) the administrators', and (c) the teachers' mean scores on Openness Index of organizational climate, respectively, and their mean scores on pupil control ideologies, in that order.

No significant relationships were found to exist among: (a) the schools' over-all, (b) the administrators', and (c) the teachers' mean scores on pupil control ideology, respectively, and the eight dimensions, or subtests' of the organizational climate, in that order.

Conclusions

Based on the data collected and analyzed, and according to the evidence obtained from this investigation the following conclusions have been reached:

Due to the differences in cultural and educational setting and procedures between the United States and Iran, some minor modifications were made, for idiomatic reasons, to the instruments (the OCDQ Form IV and the PCI Form) used in this study. Nevertheless, based on the results obtained from the exploratory tests for the assessment of the reliability of the two instruments it can be concluded that:

(a) The instruments proved to be highly reliable for the purposes for which they were designed and consequently, (b) the two instruments might appropriately be utilized by others as a device for assessing the schools' members' perceptions of the organizational climate and to identify the pupil control ideologies of the schools'

professional staffs.

Based on the data collected and analyzed, of all three independent variables, or factors, examined in this study, only the geographical location of the schools appeared to have an influence on the sampled Iranian teachers' perceptions of their organizational climate. No statistically significant relationships were found to exist between the gender of the students attending the schools, nor between the organizational or grade level of the schools, individually or in combination, and the sampled schools' teachers' perceptions of their school's organizational climate.

Of the three independent variables examined, only the gender of the students attending the schools seemed to be a factor affecting the sampled Iranian teachers' pupil control ideologies. Neither the geographical location of the schools, nor the organizational or grade level of the schools, individually or in combination, appeared to be significantly related to or have any major effect on the pupil control ideologies of the sampled Iranian teachers.

None of the independent variables studied, when considered separately or in combination, appeared to be significantly related to or have any major effect on the selected Iranian schools' administrators' perceptions of their organizational climates and/or their pupil control ideologies.

On the basis of the findings of this study it can also be concluded that there are no apparent significant relationships between the schools' professional staff's pupil control ideology and the general concept of the organizational climate of the schools as

identified by the openness index of the climate; neither are there significant relationships between the schools' professional staffs' pupil control ideologies and the eight subtests, or dimensions of the organizational climate, as measured by the OCDQ Form IV and the PCI Form.

Recommendations

The review of the literature, findings and conclusions of other studies, cited in previous chapters, and of this study provide the basis for the following recommendations.

This investigation was the first of its kind ever conducted in Iran. Along with the lack of previous research with which to compare the results, other external factors which might have had an impact on the results of this study should also be taken into consideration. Among the probable external influences the following are noticeable: First, the needed data was collected through the instruments which were originally designed and developed for use in the United States. The two instruments (the OCDQ Form IV and the PCI form) were slightly modified, for idiomatic reasons, to correspond to the general conditions and procedures typical to the Iranian setting. Second, the general time period during which the data was collected (April through May 1980), coincided with the post-revolutionary political atmosphere, and the beginnings of educational reforms in Iran, which might also be considered to have had an impact on the subjects' responses to the questionnaires. Accordingly, it is suggested that:

1. This research be replicated, in its entirety in the same area, to see whether or not the results stand the test of time.

2. Since this investigation did not find appreciable relationships to exist between either the schools' organizational climate in general terms, based on the openness index, or between the eight dimensions (or subtests) of the schools' organizational climate and pupil control ideology of the Iranian schools and their professional staffs, it is further suggested that a research investigation of the same type and magnitude be conducted, using a different geographical region of Iran, to ascertain: first, the applicability of the instruments used in Iran; second, to examine the validity of the PCI Form; and third, to explore, once again, the relationships of the same factors or independent variables of interest in this investigation to the Iranian educators' perceptions of their organizational climates and their pupil control ideologies.

3. Additional empirical investigation needs to be done to examine whether or not any relationships exist between the pupil control ideology, organizational climate, and the educators' demographic variables such as: age, gender, years of experience, and level of education, for example.

4. Further research should be done to assess the effect of the economic conditions of the communities in which the schools are located, since the economic factor may have an influence upon the schools' professional staffs' perceptions of their organizational climates and their pupil control ideologies.

5. As noted earlier, one significant aspect of this

investigation was that the results of this research may be helpful to the Iranian public school system in the preparation of both pre-service and in-service training programs for school teachers, administrators, and other pertinent educational staffs (see: Chapter One, p. 16). The results of this investigation have some implication for the Iranian educators as well as Iranian officials in charge of the educational system for the preparation of training programs for the schools' professional staffs.

In general, as the results of this investigation revealed, (1) there are a number of schools' professional staffs among the Iranian educators that are more custodially oriented, with respect to their pupil control ideology, than the others; (2) there are a number of Iranian educators that are not satisfied with the climate of their working environment. Should future research confirm these findings, the following suggestions would seem appropriate:

(a) This condition might be altered by the institution of a carefully designed pre-service and in-service education program, for school administrators and teachers, aimed at helping them to re-evaluate their own leadership, teaching behavior, and interpersonal relationships in the schools and classrooms.

As for teachers, a program of this kind might help them to become more sensitive to the needs, interests and aspirations of their students which might lead to the students' development, and help teachers to develop skills necessary to maintain a dynamic balance between freedom and control in the classroom.

(b) It is also recommended that Iranian officials consider the

need for an institution for the training of school administrators to develop the necessary skills for administrative affairs, evaluation of the staff's performance and other related functions, with emphasis being placed on human relations, leadership initiation and consideration, in addition to supervision and inspection.

6. While taking into consideration the importance of the pre-service training of future educators, especially teachers, the in-service training of them should not be neglected. Research studies have indicated that, among other variables such as an individual's personality, his value orientation, and situational condition under which an educator performs, the student-teaching experiences and the socialization process within the school and through the veteran educators seem to be important determinants in shaping the pupil control orientation of prospective and novice teachers. Together, these variables, the student-teaching experiences and the process of socialization within the school, as they start their professional careers, provide opportunities for prospective and novice teachers which ultimately tend to change teachers' views concerning classroom management to a more traditional and custodial orientation.

Therefore, a further recommendation is to provide for the implementation of a program to identify those school administrators and teachers, presently employed, who are humanistically oriented and assign them to the schools in which pre-service and in-service administrator-teacher-training practices take place in order to provide the pre- and in-service educators with positive role models and a humanistically oriented environment in which to learn.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

GENERAL INFORMATION

Dear Colleague,

The present investigation is an essential part of the research project "the identification and examination of the relationships of organizational climate and pupil control ideology of professional staffs of the selected secondary schools in the city of Shiraz, and its related outlying school districts, Fars province, Iran", undertaken by the investigator--an Iranian student at the Oklahoma University, Norman, Oklahoma, U.S.A.

The purposes of this study are to examine the working atmosphere, or climate of schools, and to explore the personal ideology or opinion of the school professional staffs with respect to the control of their students, and to discover the possible link, if any, between the two.

Since it was not practicable to conduct a total survey to obtain the relevant data, a random sample of 37 schools has been selected and your school, and therefore you, has fallen into this randomly selected sample.

On the following pages, a number of statements about the school setting are presented which describes some typical conditions within school organization. You will recognize that the statements are of such a nature that there are no correct or incorrect answers. We are interested only in your frank opinion of them. So, please, do not evaluate the items in terms of "good" or "bad" behavior, but read each item carefully and respond in terms of how well the statement describes your school.

Although your responses will become part of the project data, they remain strictly confidential, and no individual or school will be named in any part of this study. Specific instructions and space for your answers are provided on a separate form(s).

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Manoochehr Niroomandi

BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION SHEET

Instructions:

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

1. Present position (specify as indicated)

<u>Guidance Cycle</u>	<u>Intermediate Level</u>
() Principal	() Principal
() Vice-principal	() Vice-principal
() Teacher	() Teacher

2. Sex () Male () Female

3. Age (Nearest birthday): _____

4. Amount of education

- () High school and/or Normal Teachers Training
 () Less than Baccalaureate (fough-i-dinlow)
 () Baccalaureate degree
 () Graduate work (no advance degree)
 () Master's degree (or equivalent)
 () Graduate work beyond Master's degree (no advance degree)
 () Others (please specify) _____

5. Experience as an educator (including this academic year)

_____ Total number years as teacher
 _____ Total number years as principal, vice-principal

6. Number of years teaching experience in this district (including this academic year) _____

7. Number of years experience as an administrator in this district
 (including this academic year) _____

8. If teacher, how many years have you taught under the present principal
 (including this academic year) _____

9. What is your average class size:

() less than 20; () 21-25; () 26-30; () 31-35; () 41-45;
 () 46-50; () 50----

10. Present grade level teaching assignment

<u>Guidance Cycle</u>	<u>Intermediate Level</u>
<input type="checkbox"/> Grade 6	<input type="checkbox"/> Grade 9
<input type="checkbox"/> Grade 7	<input type="checkbox"/> Grade 10
<input type="checkbox"/> Grade 8	<input type="checkbox"/> Grade 11
<input type="checkbox"/> Others	<input type="checkbox"/> Grade 12

INSTRUMENTS

ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE (Form IV)

Instructions:

Following are some statements about school setting. Please indicate the extent to which each statement characterizes your school by placing an " X " on the number in the answer sheet, which corresponds to the number beside the appropriate response, at the right of each statement.

The four possible choices of the descriptive scale on which to rate the following items are:

- Rarely Occurs ----- (1)
- Sometimes Occurs ----- (2)
- Often Occurs ----- (3)
- Very Frequently Occurs --- (4)

Printed below is an example of a typical item found in the questionnaire:

Teachers call each other by their first names. 1 2 X 4

In this example the respondent marked alternative (3) to show that the interpersonal relationship described by this item "often occurs" at this school. Of course, any of the other alternatives could be selected, depending upon how often the behavior described by the item does, indeed, occur in your school

Please mark your response clearly, as in the example. Please make sure that you marked every item.

1. Teacher's closest friends are other faculty members at this school. 1 2 3 4
2. The mannerisms of teachers at this school are annoying. 1 2 3 4
3. Teachers spend time after school with students who have individual problems. 1 2 3 4
4. Instructions for the operation of teaching aids are available. 1 2 3 4
5. Teachers invite other faculty members to visit them at home. 1 2 3 4

Rarely Occurs ----- (1)
 Sometimes Occurs ----- (2)
 Often Occurs ----- (3)
 Very Frequently Occurs ---- (4)

- 6. There is a minority group of teachers who always oppose the majority. 1 2 3 4
- 7* Supplementary books are available for classroom use.. . 1 2 3 4
- 8* Sufficient time is given to prepare reports requested by the principal. 1 2 3 4
- 9. Teachers know the family background of other faculty members. 1 2 3 4
- 10. Teachers exert group pressure on nonconforming faculty members. 1 2 3 4
- 11. In faculty meetings, there is the feeling of "let's get things done." 1 2 3 4
- 12. Administrative paper work is burdensome at this school. 1 2 3 4
- 13. Teachers talk about their personal life to other faculty members. 1 2 3 4
- 14. Teachers seek special favors from the principal. . . . 1 2 3 4
- 15* Materials required by teachers are readily available for use in classroom. 1 2 3 4
- 16. Student progress reports require too much work. 1 2 3 4
- 17* Teachers enjoy socializing together during school time. 1 2 3 4
- 18. Teachers interrupt other faculty members who are talking in staff meetings. 1 2 3 4
- 19. Most of the teachers here accept the faults of their colleagues. 1 2 3 4
- 20* Teachers have to attend too many meetings. 1 2 3 4
- 21. There is considerable laughter when teachers gather informally. 1 2 3 4
- 22. Teachers ask nonsensical questions in faculty meetings. 1 2 3 4

Rarely Occurs ----- (1)
 Sometimes Occurs ----- (2)
 Often Occurs ----- (3)
 Very Frequently Occurs ----- (4)

- 23. Custodial services are available when needed. 1 2 3 4
- 24. Routine duties interfere with the job of teaching. . . 1 2 3 4
- 25* Teachers prepare reports requested by the principal
 by themselves rather than in consultation with their
 colleagues. 1 2 3 4
- 26. Teachers ramble when they talk in faculty meetings. . . 1 2 3 4
- 27. Teachers at this school show much spirit. 1 2 3 4
- 28. The principal goes out of his way to help teachers. . . 1 2 3 4
- 29. The principal helps teachers solve personal problems. . 1 2 3 4
- 30* Teachers at this school keep to themselves. 1 2 3 4
- 31. The teachers accomplish their work with great
 vim, vigor, and pleasure. 1 2 3 4
- 32. The principal sets an example by working hard
 himself. 1 2 3 4
- 33. The principal does personal favors for teachers. . . . 1 2 3 4
- 34* Teachers usually drink tea, or soft drinks
 by themselves in their special classroom. 1 2 3 4
- 35. The morale of the teachers is high. 1 2 3 4
- 36. The principal uses constructive criticism. 1 2 3 4
- 37. The principal stays after school to help
 teachers finish their work. 1 2 3 4
- 38. Teachers socialize together in small select groups. . . 1 2 3 4
- 39. The principal makes all class-scheduling decisions. . . 1 2 3 4
- 40. Teachers are contacted by the principal each day. . . . 1 2 3 4
- 41. The principal is well prepared when he speaks
 at school functions. 1 2 3 4
- 42. The principal helps staff members settle minor
 differences. 1 2 3 4

Rarely Occurs ----- (1)
 Sometimes Occurs ----- (2)
 Often Occurs ----- (3)
 Very Frequently Occurs ---- (4)

- 43. The principal schedules the work for the teachers. 1 2 3 4
- 44. Teachers leave the ground during the school day. 1 2 3 4
- 45. Teachers help select what courses will be taught. 1 2 3 4
- 46. The principal corrects teachers mistakes. 1 2 3 4
- 47. The principal talks a great deal. 1 2 3 4
- 48. The principal explains his reason for criticism
to teachers. 1 2 3 4
- 49.* The principal tries to help teachers by providing
opportunities for them to gain more money through
overtime work and special duties. 1 2 3 4
- 50. Extra duty for teachers is posted conspicuously. 1 2 3 4
- 51. The rules set by the principal are never questioned. 1 2 3 4
- 52. The principal looks out for the personal welfare
of teachers. 1 2 3 4
- 53. School secretarial service is available for
teachers' use. 1 2 3 4
- 54. The principal runs the faculty meeting like a
business conference. 1 2 3 4
- 55. The principal is in the building before the
teachers arrive. 1 2 3 4
- 56. Teachers work together preparing reports
requested by the principal. 1 2 3 4
- 57. Faculty meetings are organized according to a
tight agenda. 1 2 3 4
- 58. Faculty meetings are mainly principal-report
meetings. 1 2 3 4
- 59. The principal tells teachers of new ideas he
run across. 1 2 3 4
- 60.* Teachers talk about transferring from this school. 1 2 3 4

Rarely Occurs ----- (1)
 Sometimes Occurs ----- (2)
 Often Occurs ----- (3)
 Very Frequently Occurs ----- (4)

61. The principal checks the subject-matter ability
 of teachers. 1 2 3 4
62. The principal is easy to understand. 1 2 3 4
- 63* The teachers are informed of the results of an
 inspection of the school. 1 2 3 4
64. The principal insures that teachers work to
 their full capacity.

* Items whose expression was slightly modified or changed due to situational differences that exist between the U.S. and Iranian educational systems and for idiomatic reasons.

PUPIL CONTROL IDEOLOGY INSTRUMENT

Instructions:

Following are twenty statements about school, educators, and pupils. Please indicate your personal opinion about each statement by placing an "X" on the number in the answer sheet, which corresponds to the number beside the appropriate response, at the right of each statement. The five possible choices of the descriptive scale on which to rate the following items are:

Strongly Agree ---- (5)
 Agree ----- (4)
 Undecided ----- (3)
 Disagree ----- (2)
 Strongly Disagree -- (1)

- | | | | | | | |
|-----|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1.* | It is desirable to require pupils to sit in assigned seats during each classroom session. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2. | Pupils are usually not capable of solving their problems through logical reasoning. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 3. | Directing sarcastic remarks toward a defiant pupil is a good disciplinary technique. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 4. | Beginning teachers are not likely to maintain strict enough control over their pupils. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 5. | Teachers should consider revision of their teaching methods if these are criticized by their pupils. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 6. | The best principals give unquestioning support to teachers in disciplining pupils. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 7. | Pupil should not be permitted to contradict the statements of a teacher in class. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 8. | It is justifiable to have pupils learn many facts about a subject even if they have no immediate application. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 9. | Too much pupil time is spent on guidance and activities and too little on academic preparation. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 10. | Being friendly with pupils often leads them to become too familiar. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

Strongly Agree ---- (5)
 Agree ----- (4)
 Undecided ----- (3)
 Disagree ----- (2)
 Strongly Disagree -- (1)

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 11. It is more important for pupils to learn to obey rules than that they make their own decisions. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 12.* Students-teachers cooperation to work-out rules governing behavior in the classrooms is an acceptable notion, but should not over-run the teachers' authority. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 13. Pupils can be trusted to work together without supervision. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 14. If a pupil uses obscene or profane language in school, it must be considered a moral offense. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 15. If pupils are allowed to use the laboratory without getting permission, this privilege will be abused. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 16. A few pupils are just young hoodlums and should be treated accordingly. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 17. It is often necessary to remind pupils that their status in school differs from that of teachers. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 18. A pupil who destroys school material or property should be severely punished. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 19. Pupils cannot perceive the difference between democracy and anarchy in the classroom. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 20. Pupils often misbehave in order to make the teacher look bad. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

* These items have been modified due to situational differences that exist between Iranian school system and those of the United States.

APPENDIX B

Definitions of the Eight Subtests (Dimensions) of the
Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire*Teachers' Behavior

1. Disengagement:

Indicates that the teachers do not work well together. They pull in different directions with respect to the task; they gripe and bicker among themselves.

2. Hindrance:

Refers to the teachers' feeling that the principal burdens them with routine duties, committee demands, and other requirements which the teachers construe as unnecessary busy-work.

3. Esprit:

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

4. Intimacy:

Refers to teachers' enjoyment of friendly social relations with each other.

Principals' Behavior

5. Aloofness:

Refers to behavior by the principal which is characterized as formal and impersonal. He "goes by the book" and prefers to be guided by rules and policies rather than to deal with the teachers in an informal, face-to-face situation.

6. Production Emphasis:

Refers to behavior by the principal which is characterized by close supervision of the staff. He is highly directive and task-oriented.

* Definitions related to Organizational Climate are taken from: Andrew W. Halpin, and Don B. Croft, "The Organizational Climate of School", Administrator's Notebook, Vol. XI, Number 7, (March 1963).

7. Thrust:

Refers to behavior marked not by close supervision of the teachers, but by the principal's attempt to motivate the teachers through the example which he personally sets. He does not ask the teachers to give of themselves anything more than he willingly gives of himself; his behavior, though starkly task-oriented, is nonetheless viewed favorably by the teachers.

8. Consideration:

Refers to behavior by the principal which is characterized by an inclination to treat the teachers "humanly", to try to do a little something extra for them in human terms.

Halpin and Croft identified six distinct organizational climates and, on the basis of the subtests scores, described them in the following manner:

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

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

3. The controlled climate is characterized best as impersonal and highly task-oriented. The group's behavior is directed toward task-accomplishment, while relatively little attention is given to behavior oriented to social-needs satisfaction. Esprit is fairly high, but it reflects achievement at some expense to social-needs satisfaction. This climate lacks openness, or "authenticity" of behavior, because the group is disproportionately preoccupied with task achievement.

4. The familiar climate is highly personal, but uncontrolled. The members of this organization satisfy their social needs, but pay relatively little attention to social control in respect to task accomplishment. Accordingly, esprit is not extremely high

simply because the group members secure little satisfaction from task achievement. Hence, much of the behavior within this climate can be construed as "inauthentic".

5. The paternal climate is characterized as one in which the principal constrains the emergence of leadership acts from the group and attempts to initiate most of the acts himself. The leadership skills within the group are not used to supplement the principal's own ability to initiate leadership acts. Accordingly, some leadership acts are not even attempted. In short, little satisfaction is obtained in respect to either achievement or social needs; hence, esprit among the members is relatively low.

6. The closed climate is characterized by a high degree of apathy on the part of all members of the organization. The organization is not "moving"; esprit is low because the group members secure neither social-needs satisfaction nor the satisfaction that comes from task achievement. The members behavior can be construed as "inauthentic"; indeed, the organization seems to be stagnant.

Terms Related to Pupil Control Ideology**

Custodial

The professional staff of the school with a custodial pupil control orientation stereotypes their students in terms of appearance, behavior, and parents social status. These personnel view behavior in moralistic terms instead of attempting to understand it. Their relationships with students are on an impersonal basis. Students are perceived as irresponsible and undisciplined persons who must be controlled through punitive sanctions. The professional personnel who hold a custodial orientation conceive of the school as an autocratic organization with rigid pupil-staff status hierarchy—the flow of power and communication is unilateral downward. Students must accept the decision of teachers and administrator(s) without question. The professional personnel holding a custodial viewpoint are imbued with pessimism and watchful mistrust. A school with professional personnel holding a custodial orientation is the school which provides a rigid and highly controlled setting concerned primarily with maintenance of order.

Humanistic

The professional personnel of a school with a humanistic pupil control orientation conceive of the school as an educational community in which students learn through cooperative interaction and experience. In such a situation learning and behavior are

viewed in psychological and sociological terms, not moralistic terms. The professional staff of a school who hold a humanistic view are optimistic in that, through close personal relationship with students and positive aspects of friendship and respect, students will be self-disciplined, rather than disciplined. They are optimistic in that flexibility in status and rules leads to a democratic classroom climate. The professional personnel of a school with a humanistic orientation stress the importance of the individuality of each student and the creation of an atmosphere to meet the wide range of students' needs and individual patterns of growth.

** Terms related to Pupil Control Ideology are adapted from: Donald J. Willower, Terry L. Eidell, and Wayne K. Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology. The Pennsylvania State University Studies No. 24 (University Park: Pennsylvania State University, 1967).

APPENDIX C

PERMISSIONS TO USE, ADAPT, AND TRANSLATE THE INSTRUMENTS:
THE OCDQ FORM IV AND THE PCI FORM

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866 Third Avenue, New York, N. Y. 10022

International Rights Department

March 4, 1980

Mr. Manoochehr Niroomandi
33403 Sweet Gum
Magnolia, Texas 77355

Re: Permission Agreement #697

Dear Mr. Niroomandi:

Enclosed is a fully executed copy of the above mentioned
permissions agreement for your records.

The fee of \$35.00 has been received and we thank you for
your prompt remittance.

Sincerely,



Janis Krause
International Rights Representative

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Date Mar 3 '80

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Title THEORY AND RESEARCH IN ADMINISTRATION Author Halpin, Andrew W.

Selection: "Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ)"

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International Rights Department

April 13, 1983

Mr. Manoochehr Niroomandi
A-8 Neimann Apts.
Norman, Oklahoma 73069

Re: Permission Agreement #697

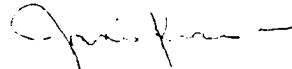
Dear Mr. Niroomandi:

Thank you for your letter of March 24th concerning our Permission Agreement #697 which allowed you to translate into Farsi, for research purposes, the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) taken from THEORY AND RESEARCH IN ADMINISTRATION by Dr. Andrew W. Halpin.

We will agree to renew this permission agreement and this letter may be used as our formal approval. The permission fee of \$35.00 has been received and credited.

We hope that your research project is successful.

Sincerely,



Janis Krause
Supervisor, International Rights

Manoochehr Niroozmandi
A-E Neimann Apts.
Norman, Okla. 73069
Jan. 28, 1980

The Administrative Committee on Research
207 Old Main
The Pennsylvania State University
University Park, Pa. 16802

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN:

Dear Sir;

Respectfully, I am a graduate student from Oklahoma University, Norman, Oklahoma, and at the present time I am involved in the process of conducting a study which deals with the relationship between the organizational climate and pupil control ideology of the professional staff in the selected secondary schools in Shiraz, Iran.

As part of my research project, I shall have to use the Pupil Control Ideology Form V (PCI Form V) which was developed by Drs. Donald J. Willbarger, Terry L. Eideell, and Wayne K., as reported in "The School and Pupil Control Ideology, Studies NO. 24 (1967).

Therefore, I would appreciate your permission to use the (PCI Form V). However, it might be appropriate at this point to mention that since I plan to use the instrument in other country than the United States, the instrument should be translated into Farsi (the Persian language). Therefore, I also would appreciate if you granted me authorization to do so.

I would gladly reimburse you for the permission and any other expenses incurred.

Hoping to hear from you at your earliest convenience, I remain,

Mr. Niroozmandi:

Very truly yours,

If your use of the above form is for research, in either English or Farsi, you have our permission to duplicate the form, providing, of course, that you cite the Willow book as the source giving author, title, publisher and place and date of publication. Should you later wish to publish and sell a work using this form, you will have to seek additional permission...and, depending on the manner of use, you might have to pay a fee. However, for research purposes, please go ahead and use the form with our and the authors' blessing.

Manoochehr Niroozmandi
M. Niroozmandi

Chris W. Kenters

Chris W. Kenters
Director-The Pennsylvania State University Press
215 Wagner Bldg
University Park, Pennsylvania 16801



DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION • SUPERVISION AND ADULT EDUCATION
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION • 10 SEMINARY PLACE • NEW BRUNSWICK • NEW JERSEY 08903

August 16, 1979

Mr. Manoochehr Niroomandi
A-8 Neimann Apartments
Norman, OK 73069

Dear Mr. Niroomandi:

You do have my permission to use the PCI Form in your research; however, I would appreciate it if you would send me a copy of the results of your research.

I think it might be possible to modify the instrument slightly in order to accommodate the use of the instrument in Iran. Of course, any change in the instrument has the potential to affect both the reliability and validity of the measure. In fact, even if the instrument were not modified, you would still have the question of reliability and validity for the Iranian population. I suggest that you do some validity tests on your subjects. Why not replicate some of the procedures used in the original PCI study (Willower, Eidell and Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology, Penn State Press, 1967)?

My telephone number is (201) 932-7626. Professor Willower can be contacted at the College of Education, Penn State University, University Park, PA 16802 (814-865-1488).

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read "Wayne K. Hoy".

Wayne K. Hoy
Chairperson

lmk

APPENDIX D

CERTIFICATIONS OF THE PANEL MEMBERS WITH RESPECT TO THE
APPROPRIATENESS OF THE TRANSLATED VERSION
OF THE INSTRUMENTS USED

College of Education
SHIRAZ UNIVERSITY
Shiraz, Iran

April 6/1980

To Whom It May Concern :

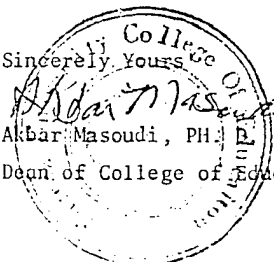
This is to certify that Mr. Manouchehr Niroomandi had just come to Iran to collect data for his doctoral dissertation that we met and talked about his research tool, a well constructed questionnaire . Since groups of teachers and administrators were expected to complete the questionnaire, a committee of three of educators and experts in persian language, in which I had the pleasure of serving as a member, was formed to translate it into persian.

The translation of the questionnaire is, without doubt, reliable. We pretested and revised it to eliminate ambiguities and inadequate wording.

Mr. Niroomandi's complete command of research, his ability to organize complex data and managerial concepts will surely enable him to write about the analysis of the data clearly and forcefully. And his work will surely add to our Knowledge about the Iranian system of school administration.

I wish Mr. Niroomandi great success in his future educational career.

Sincerely Yours
Akbar Masoudi
Akbar Masoudi, Ph.D.
Dean of College of Education.

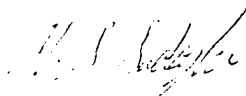


April 7, 1980

To Whom It May Concern:

This is to certify that I was a member of the Panel and the translation of Mr. Manouchehr Niroumandi's questionnaire was approved as being perfectly acceptable.

M. S. Sadeghi



Director Of Courses

Iran America Society Shiraz

April 6, 1980

The Questionnaire "Pupil Control Ideology Instrument" was reviewed and the translation of the text into Persian was compared with the original.

Persian
I found the translation accurate and acceptable.

L. Zarmohammadi
Professor of English Linguistics
Shiraz University
Iran

The "OCDQ Instrument" was received
by me and the Persian translation was
compared with the English original.
I found the translation accurate
and acceptable.

L. Yarmohadi
Prof. of English Linguistics
Shiraz University
Iran

APPENDIX E

THE EXACT PERSIAN (FARSI) COPY AND THE ENGLISH TRANSLATION OF THE CIRCULAR LETTER OF INTRODUCTION OF THE DIRECTOR GENERAL OF FARIS PROVINCE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS, IRAN, WHICH WAS SENT TO EACH ONE OF THE SELECTED "SECONDARY" SCHOOLS IN THE SHIRAZ COUNTY PUBLIC SCHOOL DISTRICTS.

دولت جمهوری اسلامی ایران

بسمه تعالی ————— ۸۴۳۹۴-۵۸/۱۲/۲۷

ریاست محترم دبیرستان مدرسه راهنمایی


بدینوسیله آقای منوچهر نیریزند که جهت دکترای خود احتیاج به تحقیقات

در واحدهای آموزشی شهرستان شیراز دارند • معرفی می‌نماید •

مقتنی است همکاری لازم را معمول دارید • ب.ض

ابوالا حراری

از طرف مدیرکل آموزش و پرورش انقلاب اسلامی فارس



The Islamic Republic of Iran

IN THE NAME OF GOD

NO. 84394
Date: 1358/12/27
(March 3, 1980)

The honourable director of ----- High School, -----
Guidance (Middle) School,

Hereby, Mr. Manoochehr Niroomandi, who, for the purpose of
obtaining his doctoral degree, needs to make inquiry into the
Shiraz County Educational Institutions, is introduced.

Your collaboration in this regard is requested.

Abol-Ahrari

In Place of, The Director General of
the Islamic Revolutionary
Department of Education of Fars

A TRANSLATED COPY OF CONFIRMATION BY THE DEPARTMENT OF
RESEARCHES AND CURRICULUM DESIGNING OF THE MINISTRY OF
EDUCATION AS TO UNIQUENESS OF THIS RESEARCH STUDY AS
IT PERTAINS TO IRAN.

تاریخ ۱۳۹۱/۱۱/۱۸

شماره ۹۶۹۶۳۳۳۳ -

پیوست -



آقای منوچهر نیریروندی

پاسخ نامه مورخ ۵۶/۱۱/۱۸ بدینوسیله
به اطلاع میرساند تاکنون روی موضوع بررسی جـو
سازمانی واید تولوزی معلمین ومسئولین اداری -
مدارس راهنمایی ومتوسطه عمدهی در رابطه با روش کنترل
و اد ارد کلاسها ومدارس ایران در دفتر تحقیقات وبرنامه
ریزی وزارت آموزش وبرورش تحقیقی جدی صورت نگرفته
است .

سید محمد کاظم نائینی

مدیرکل دفتر تحقیقات وبرنامه ریزی


۱۹/۱۱/۹۱

The Islamic Republic
of Iran
Ministry of Education

Date: 1359/11/19
NO. 4966/T.B.
Attached: -----

Dear Mr. Manoochehr Niroomandi,

In response to your letter dated 1359/11/18, A.H. (Feb. 7, 1980), this is to inform you that our record in the Office of Researches and Curriculum Designing in the Ministry of Education indicates that no serious research has been done so far on the subjects dealing with the Organizational Climate and/or the teachers' and administrators' ideologies at High Schools and Guidance Schools with respect to the method of control and management of the classes and the schools in Iran.

Sayed Mohammed Kazem Naini

Director General of
the Office of Researches
and Curriculum Designing

Signature
Feb. 8, 1980

APPENDIX F

ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE PROFILE SCORES FOR THIRTY-SEVEN SCHOOLS

<u>School Number</u>	<u>Dis.</u>	<u>Min.</u>	<u>Ess.</u>	<u>Int.</u>	<u>Alc.</u>	<u>Pro.</u>	<u>Thr.</u>	<u>Con.</u>
1	48	55	39	38	44	61	64	54
2	54	64	47	38	59	38	44	58
3	46	31	56	52	42	59	60	58
4	55	66	49	58	56	36	39	46
5	60	65	56	34	51	46	51	42
6	43	38	55	58	39	48	63	60
7	46	43	60	52	55	61	31	55
8	72	56	43	47	52	40	45	50
9	41	43	49	48	42	53	70	60
10	34	42	62	48	45	57	56	60
11	51	50	62	64	50	46	31	50
12	60	66	41	35	52	57	49	44
13	52	36	52	36	49	54	64	60
14	37	41	50	41	53	61	65	56
15	61	65	39	47	59	40	45	43
16	37	41	65	64	52	47	50	47
17	33	43	44	63	60	54	57	51
18	73	41	50	55	43	47	48	43
19	44	36	67	55	49	46	61	47
20	29	46	51	59	50	54	61	53
21	48	46	44	35	61	67	52	50
22	44	33	58	44	49	53	60	63
23	58	39	41	45	67	60	45	49
24	74	44	47	50	53	47	49	41
25	44	70	49	53	59	45	40	43
26	68	56	42	34	55	48	49	50
27	48	47	62	35	61	62	42	48
28	60	60	37	56	62	46	41	41
29	49	61	66	53	48	44	34	49
30	53	50	51	61	65	50	34	40
31	30	61	54	58	52	58	46	45
32	49	64	59	57	36	40	44	55
33	62	65	42	58	37	46	48	46
34	41	70	45	60	53	44	43	49
35	41	51	64	62	34	48	54	51
36	49	56	46	69	49	35	55	45
37	46	55	56	62	30	57	54	46

APPENDIX G

PUPIL CONTROL IDEOLOGY SCORES OF HUMANISTIC, COMPOSITE, AND CUSTODIAL SCHOOLS' ADMINISTRATORS

Humanistic			Composite			Custodial		
School NO.	Position	Score	School NO.	Position	Score	School NO.	Position	Score
6	V.P.**	53	2	P.*	63	1	P.	70
7	P.	49	"	V.P.	64	"	V.P.	70
10	P.	55	3	P.	61	4	P.	71
"	V.P.	47	"	V.P.	67	5	V.P.	71
12	V.P.	54	4	V.P.	56	6	P.	75
13	P.	55	5	P.	63	7	V.P.	70
15	V.P.	51	8	P.	58	9	V.P.	72
18	P.	47	"	V.P.	60	11	P.	68
19	V.P.	44	9	P.	57	14	P.	72
20	P.	40	11	V.P.	60	16	P.	74
22	P.	52	12	P.	59	17	P.	68
24	P.	53	13	V.P.	60	21	P.	77
25	V.P.	49	14	V.P.	60	"	V.P.	74
27	P.	52	15	P.	57	23	V.P.	68
29	P.	47	16	V.P.	62	26	P.	68
32	P.	51	17	V.P.	66	"	V.P.	68
35	P.	52	18	V.P.	65	27	V.P.	68
			19	P.	63	30	P.	68
			20	V.P.	59	"	V.P.	70
			22	V.P.	60	31	P.	71
			23	P.	62	"	V.P.	68
			24	V.P.	66	34	P.	73
			25	P.	56	35	V.P.	71
			28	P.	59	36	P.	74
			"	V.P.	56			
			29	V.P.	57			
			32	V.P.	58			
			33	P.	59			
			34	V.P.	65			
			37	P.	61			
			"	V.P.	56			

* School building principal

** Vice-principal

APPENDIX II

PUPIL CONTROL IDEOLOGY SCORES OF HUMANISTIC, COMPOSITE, AND CUSTODIAL SCHOOLS' TEACHERS

School NO.	Humanistic				Composite								Custodial			
1	55	41	50		63	62	63	61	60					71	71	
2	47	54			64	63	63	63	62	60				70	75	
3	47				62	60	58	66	64	62	65	63	65	--		
4	44	51	54		60	59	64	66						74	82	80
5	51	54	50	55	67	61	67							71	69	78
6	52	42	54		63	61	58	57	63	66				69		
7	54	55			58	58	59	60	56	63	66			79		
8	50	50	52		65	58	60	64	67	62	61			--		
9	51	53	52		62	62	64	62	56					80	68	
10	43	50	51	36	61	58	66	61	67	59				--		
11	--				56	64	67	57	58	65	67	58	61	74		
12	51	54	51	53	63	57	64	67	60					76		
13	52	52			63	58	64	62	67	59				74	68	
14	46				64	56	63	65	59	60				75	76	76
15	54	52			61	61	60	58	56	56				72	72	
16	46	42	45		63	57	61	62	56	56				69		
17	--				64	65	60	56	57	67	65	67		68	70	
18	55	48	55	52	60	62	59							80	71	71
19	41	51	52		62	60	62							69	70	70
20	48				65	59	64	62						68	70	71
21	--				62	67	64							69	72	73
22	54				67	64	61	56	67	63	62	58	66	--		

APPENDIX H -- (continued)

School NO.	Humanistic	Composite	Custodial
23	54	62 66 61 64 66 63	71 70 68
24	--	63 64 57 63 56 61 56 67 62	--
25	37 46 43	60 59	70 75 70
26	48 43 53	64 63 61 67 61	79
27	55 54	59 64 62 67 62 59	--
28	--	61 66 67 56 60 64	72 85 74 77
29	38 47 49	58 62 63 62 62	75 73
30	55 51 54	66 57 62 58	70 70 68
31	--	65 56 60 60 60 64 66 62	71 69
32	43 55 54 51	66 66 59	81 68 75
33	--	58 58 58 61	70
34	50 54 37 50	65 60 65 67 65	69
35	55 54	66 56 57 60 57	78 71
36	55 53	66 61 56 65 66	81 72 69
37	47 54	59 64 63 63 63	72 72

APPENDIX I

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE SAMPLED IRANIAN SCHOOLS, ADMINISTRATORS, AND TEACHERS
ON THE OPENNESS INDEX OF THE SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE IN URBAN AND SUBURBAN
AREAS' SCHOOLS ACCORDING TO THE GRADE LEVEL AND STUDENTS' GENDER

Schools Based On Grade Level	Urban						Suburban					
	Boys			Girls			Boys			Girls		
High School	n	X	SD	n	X	SD	n	X	SD	n	X	SD
		Sch. #	1		Sch. #	6		Sch. #	21		Sch. #	26
Teachers	10	50.29	6.68	10	52.70	5.99	7	48.30	3.93	9	43.78	6.57
Administrators	2	57.63	10.43	2	55.83	8.69	2	58.97	2.25	2	42.75	5.02
Sch. Over-all	12	53.96	7.39	12	54.23	6.14	9	53.63	5.86	11	43.26	6.10
		Sch. #	2		Sch. #	7		Sch. #	22		Sch. #	27
Teachers	10	48.65	8.85	10	48.85	7.03	10	54.49	4.64	8	48.91	5.45
Administrators	2	49.12	3.82	2	56.79	9.61	2	53.65	7.03	2	54.91	0.35
Sch. Over-all	12	48.88	8.09	12	52.82	7.64	12	54.07	4.72	10	50.91	5.43
		Sch. #	3		Sch. #	8		Sch. #	23			
Teachers	10	54.12	2.93	10	42.26	6.94	10	43.85	4.84			
Administrators	2	53.68	6.70	2	45.17	0.77	2	51.77	2.94			
Sch. Over-all	12	53.90	3.33	12	43.72	6.38	12	47.81	5.43			
		Sch. #	4		Sch. #	9		Sch. #	24			
Teachers	10	48.10	7.18	10	52.47	11.04	9	47.60	5.27			
Administrators	2	48.32	16.89	2	64.40	3.41	2	48.91	5.93			
Sch. Over-all	12	48.21	8.26	12	58.44	11.06	11	48.26	6.92			

APPENDIX I -- (continued)

Schools Based On Grade Level	Urban						Suburban					
	Boys			Girls			Boys			Girls		
	n	X	SD	n	X	SD	n	X	SD	n	X	SD
High School	Sch. # 5			Sch. # 10			Sch. # 25					
Teachers	10	49.64	9.80	10	53.60	6.31	8	45.81	5.02			
Administrators	2	51.46	2.48	2	54.56	6.21	2	51.15	1.68			
Sch. Over-all	12	50.55	8.93	12	54.08	6.02	10	48.48	5.00			
Middle School	Sch. # 11			Sch. # 16			Sch. # 28			Sch. # 33		
Teachers	10	49.95	6.60	10	56.82	6.90	10	44.49	5.25	10	43.58	3.32
Administrators	2	47.30	15.90	2	54.66	1.31	2	38.12	0.07	2	52.62	1.60
Sch. Over-all	12	48.62	7.73	12	55.74	6.31	12	41.30	5.35	12	48.10	4.84
	Sch. # 12			Sch. # 17			Sch. # 29			Sch. # 34		
Teachers	10	46.57	5.05	10	51.81	7.20	10	47.14	7.98	9	48.78	3.86
Administrators	2	48.22	5.17	2	54.52	8.38	2	60.17	2.44	2	50.64	11.62
Sch. Over-all	12	47.41	4.87	12	53.16	4.27	12	53.66	8.85	11	49.71	5.10
	Sch. # 13			Sch. # 18			Sch. # 30			Sch. # 35		
Teachers	10	50.36	3.97	10	48.51	6.13	10	46.35	7.13	9	50.85	5.42
Administrators	2	57.44	4.59	2	43.97	3.08	2	51.61	1.71	2	57.72	1.24
Sch. Over-all	12	53.90	4.74	12	46.24	5.89	12	48.98	6.78	11	54.28	5.60

APPENDIX I -- (continued)

Schools Based On Grade Level	Urban						Suburban					
	Boys			Girls			Boys			Girls		
Middle School	n	X	SD	n	X	SD	n	X	SD	n	X	SD
	Sch. # 14			Sch. # 19			Sch. # 31			Sch. # 36		
Teachers	10	53.67	5.40	10	52.25	9.05	10	49.85	6.32	5	49.80	4.74
Administrators	2	53.72	3.75	2	58.74	1.08	2	58.45	1.23	1	50.81	0.00
School Over-all	12	53.69	5.00	12	55.50	8.58	12	54.15	6.64	6	50.30	4.26
	Sch. # 15			Sch. # 20			Sch. # 32			Sch. # 37		
Teachers	10	47.93	5.17	8	56.81	3.74	10	50.50	8.17	10	50.38	5.42
Administrators	2	52.82	5.86	2	58.33	5.83	2	49.85	0.04	1	48.79	0.00
School Over-all	12	50.37	6.98	10	57.57	3.88	11	50.18	7.40	11	49.59	5.16

APPENDIX J

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE SAMPLED IRANIAN SCHOOLS, ADMINISTRATORS, AND TEACHERS
ON PUPIL CONTROL IDEOLOGY SCALE IN URBAN AND SUBURBAN AREAS SCHOOLS
ACCORDING TO THE GRADE LEVEL AND STUDENTS' GENDER

Schools Based On Grade Level	Urban						Suburban					
	Boys			Girls			Boys			Girls		
	n	X	SD	n	X	SD	n	X	SD	n	X	SD
High School												
		Sch. # 1		Sch. # 6		Sch. # 21		Sch. # 26				
Teachers	10	59.70	9.13	10	58.50	7.82	7	68.14	4.06	9	59.89	10.72
Administrators	2	70.00	0.00	2	64.00	15.56	2	75.50	2.12	2	68.00	0.00
Sch. Over-all	12	64.85	9.18	12	61.25	8.75	9	71.82	4.84	11	63.94	10.13
		Sch. # 2		Sch. # 7		Sch. # 22		Sch. # 27				
Teachers	10	62.10	7.69	10	60.80	7.35	10	61.80	4.57	8	60.25	4.40
Administrators	2	63.50	0.71	2	59.50	14.85	2	56.00	5.66	2	60.00	11.31
Sch. Over-all	12	62.80	6.98	12	60.15	8.03	12	58.90	5.00	10	60.13	5.41
		Sch. # 3		Sch. # 8		Sch. # 23						
Teachers	10	61.20	5.55	10	52.90	6.24	10	64.50	4.95			
Administrators	2	64.00	4.24	2	59.00	1.41	2	65.00	4.24			
Sch. Over-all	12	62.60	5.30	12	55.95	5.66	12	64.75	4.66			
		Sch. # 4		Sch. # 9		Sch. # 24						
Teachers	10	63.40	12.43	10	61.00	8.77	9	61.00	3.87			
Administrators	2	63.50	10.61	2	64.50	10.61	2	59.50	9.19			
Sch. Over-all	12	62.45	11.69	12	62.75	8.66	11	60.25	4.56			

APPENDIX J -- (continued)

Schools Based On Grade Level	Urban						Suburban					
	Boys			Girls			Boys			Girls		
	n	X	SD	n	X	SD	n	X	SD	n	X	SD
High School	Sch. # 5			Sch. # 10			Sch. # 25					
Teachers	10	62.30	9.51	10	55.20	10.04	8	57.50	14.09			
Administrators	2	67.00	5.66	2	51.00	5.66	2	52.50	4.95			
Sch. Over-all	12	63.65	8.96	12	53.10	9.39	10	55.00	12.25			
Middle School	Sch. # 11			Sch. # 16			Sch. # 28			Sch. # 33		
Teachers	10	62.70	5.74	10	55.70	8.79	10	68.20	8.82	10	58.20	10.21
Administrators	2	64.00	5.66	2	68.00	8.49	2	57.50	2.12	2	69.00	5.66
Sch. Over-all	12	63.35	5.48	12	61.85	9.63	12	62.85	9.02	12	63.60	10.29
	Sch. # 12			Sch. # 17			Sch. # 29			Sch. # 34		
Teachers	10	59.60	8.06	10	63.90	4.72	10	58.90	11.45	9	61.56	8.58
Administrators	2	56.50	3.54	2	67.00	1.41	2	52.00	7.07	2	61.50	13.44
Sch. Over-all	12	58.05	7.46	12	65.45	4.46	12	55.45	10.91	11	61.53	8.57
	Sch. # 13			Sch. # 18			Sch. # 30			Sch. # 35		
Teachers	10	61.90	6.95	10	61.30	9.93	10	61.10	7.05	9	61.89	7.94
Administrators	2	57.50	3.54	2	56.00	12.73	2	69.00	1.41	2	58.50	3.54
Sch. Over-all	12	59.70	6.60	12	58.65	10.00	12	65.05	7.10	11	60.19	7.32

APPENDIX J -- (continued)

Schools Based On Grade Level	Urban						Suburban					
	Boys			Girls			Boys			Girls		
Middle School	n	X	SD	n	X	SD	n	X	SD	n	X	SD
	Sch. # 14			Sch. # 19			Sch. # 31			Sch. # 36		
Teachers	10	64.00	9.66	10	60.50	9.76	10	63.30	4.60	5	61.00	5.20
Administrators	2	66.00	8.49	2	53.50	13.44	2	69.50	2.12	1	59.00	0.00
Sch. Over-all	12	65.00	9.14	12	57.00	10.08	12	66.40	4.85	6	60.00	4.72
	Sch. # 15			Sch. # 20			Sch. # 32			Sch. # 37		
Teachers	10	60.20	6.88	8	63.38	7.95	10	61.80	11.55	10	64.40	8.57
Administrators	2	54.00	4.24	2	49.50	13.44	2	54.50	4.95	1	74.00	0.00
Sch. Over-all	12	57.10	6.79	10	56.44	9.84	12	58.15	10.93	11	69.59	8.63

VITA

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