DOCUMENT RESUME

BD 089 431

EA 006 018

AUTHOR

Mullen, David J.

TITLE

The School Organizational Development Questionnaire

(SODQ) -- A Diagnostic Study of the Human

Organization in Schools.

PUB DATE

Apr 74

GRANT NOTE NE-G-00-3-0197

40p.; Paper presented at American Educational

Research Association Annual Meeting (59th, Chicago,

Illinois, April 15-19, 1974)

EDRS PRICE
DESCRIPTORS

MF-\$0.75 HC-\$1.85 PLUS POSTAGE

Educational Research; Human Relations; *Informal

Organization; Organizational Climate; *Organizational Development; *Questionnaires; *Research Projects;

*School Organization; Schools; Social Systems;

Systems Concepts

ABSTRACT

It is the identification of the crucial variables and means of measuring them wherein lies a major problem related to the organization, administration, and the productive effectiveness of schools. The purpose of this study is to further refine a means of measuring and diagnosing dysfunctions in school systems in relationship to the variables identified. It aims to determine the nature of school organizational processes as measured by the School Organizational Development Questionnaire (SODQ) across the wide spectrum of different school organizations. More specifically, the study intends to (1) investigate in a number of school systems of various sizes in various regions of the United States discrepancies in school organizational processes at various levels of the school system and with different segments of the school population; (2) provide participating institutions with the result of the study for their own purposes in school organizational development: (3) provide the documentation necessary for replicating the study; and (4) determine the measurement characteristics of the SODQ. (Overall pale copy.) (Author/WM)



U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH.
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRO
DUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM
THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGIN.
ATING IT POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS
STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRE
SENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

THE SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT QUESTIONNAIRE(SODQ) - A DIAGNOSTIC STUDY OF THE HUMAN ORGANIZATION IN SCHOOLS

by

Dr. David J. Mullen Professor of Educational Administration University of Georgia Athens, Georgia 30602

The study presented herein is being performed pursuant to a grant from the National Institute of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Grant NE-G-00-3-0197, Proposal No. 3-0476. However, the opinions expressed herein do not necessarily reflect the position or policy of the National Institute of Education, and no official endorsement by the National Institute of Education should be inferred.

> "PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS COPY RIGHTED MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

TO ERIC AND ORGANIZATIONS OFFRATING UNDER AGREEMENTS WITH THE NATIONAL IN-STITUTE OF EDUCATION FURTHER REPRO-DUCTION OUTSIDE THE ERIC SYSTEM RE-QUIRES PERMISSION OF THE COPYRIGHT

Session Number 11.04

9 14 M 1294



Introduction

John Gardner (1963) in his book, <u>Self-Removal</u> states that the tides of change that move society on to new solutions of catastrophes run deeper than the swirling events of the day. He claims that one of the deep tidal currents - perhaps the most fateful - is the movement over recent centuries toward the creation of even larger, more complex, and more highly organized social groupings. It is a vital trend with great implications for the schools and the other institutions in our society, for continuous growth depends ultimately upon the individual and the groups to which he belongs.

The tidal current of large organizations as a fact of life in educational institutions gives rise to the need for looking closely at the organization and administration of schools. John Miner (1967, p. 87) started a research project in an attempt to establish selection procedures for school administrators and ended his study by stressing organizational character, because the data could not be explained in terms of the occupation based selection models with which he began the study.

It is this problem of awareness that studies of organizational character such as those presented in Part 3 can overcome. By applying a clinical approach to the analysis of organizations, using appropriate measurement techniques, it is possible to describe the character of a particular school district at a point in time. Given this knowledge of existing structures, steps can be taken to introduce change, if this seems appropriate.

... An analogous diagnostic or descriptive process at the level of the crucial variables may well be a necessary condition for organizational change as well. Just as salient aspects of his personality are often hidden from an individual's awareness, so apparently are many crucial variables of organizational character hidden from the weathers [Miner, 1967, p. 86].



It is the identification of the crucial variables and means of measuring them wherein lies a major problem related to the organization, administration and the productive effectiveness of schools. It is the purpose of the study being described to further refine a means of measuring and diagnosing dysfunctions in school systems in relationship to the variables identified.

Classical Theory of Organization

The classical theory of organization and administration emerged in the first quarter of the present century. Writers such as Dennison (1931), Culick and Urwick (1937), Urwick (1994), Mooney (1997) and Taylor (1948) built their theories about organizations and the administrative processes around such basic constructs as: task specialization, chain of command, unity of direction, and span of control. These classical theories were built around two fundamental ideas: the basic constructs identified above and the concept of "economic man;" that is, people work primarily for the economic rewards which the organization provides.

In the classical view there is a pyramidal structure with power centered in the hands of these at the top of the pyramid. The old army structure best represents this line and staff organization and the flow of authority from the top to the bottom.

Human Relations Theory

Whereas the classical theory might be viewed as fundamentally structuralist in design; the human relations theory might be viewed as antistructuralist. Another way of stating these differences is by pointing out that the classical theorists emphasize the formal aspects of organization and the human relations theorists emphasize the informal structure.



The move to a human relations emphasis began with the discovery of the "Hawthorne Effect." Elton Mayo (koethlisberger & Dickson, 1942) showed the existence of an entirely different panorama of how people function in organizations.

In schools this discovery of the importance of the group took the form of "democratic supervision" and to a lesser degree "democratic administration." In the 1950's many educational authorities emphasized the human relations approach in their writings. Kimball Wiles (1950), W. A. Yauch (1949), John Bartky (1953), Harold Spears (1953) and Gordon Mackenzie (1954) are among the respected authorities who advocated the human relations approach.

A Modern Synthesis

l'aber and Shearron (1970, p. 97) claim that modern organizational theory began when equal attention was first given to formal and informal organization, when the first scholar began to put the contributions from bureaucratic theory, scientific management, and human relations in proper perspective. The first writer to make this attempt was Chester Barnard (1938) in his book. The Functions of the Executive.

Barnard pointed out that the classical theory of organization as defined by its proponents is unworkable. According to him, the organization functions through the interactions of individuals. People bring the formal organization into action and to study and understand organizations, one must know about the satisfactions which individuals receive from the organization, the relationship of the formal and informal organization, and the importance of communication. Barnard stressed the point that there are important differences between effectiveness and efficiency.

Mayo and Rocthlisherger, in their Western Electric studies, brought the informal organization to the attention of the theorists, but Barnard was the



first theorist to generalize this discovery. Barnard claimed that the informal organization had to be taken into account in all organization settings. The classical theorists missed this point that Barnard made so well that no matter how well the formal organization is planned, the activities and interactions of all its members (informal organization) will not conform strictly to the blueprint. Once formal organizations are established, they inevitably create and nourish informal organizations.

Argyris (1957) in his book <u>Personality</u> and <u>Organization</u> repeatedly makes the point that whenever the goals, values, or norms of the informal organization are in opposition to those of the formal, the results are disruptive. Argyris argues for a "Reality-Centered" leadership style which should attempt to bring congruence between formal organization demands and informal organization needs.

On the basis of Barnard's work, one might reasonably define the formal organization as a system of conscious, coordinated activities; whereas, the informal organization is unconscious, indefinite, and unstructured. Barnard showed how intimate the relationship is between the two. These theories of Barnard were further developed by Herbert A. Simon (1947) in his book.

Administrative Behavior. Simon expanded Barnard's ideas about authority and the formal organization by dealing with the way that the organization influences the decisions of the individual. Some of these modes of influence include: authority, communication, training, efficiency, and organizational loyalty. Authority according to Simon involves an expectation of obedience by one and a willingness to obey by another.

In the field of industrial management, McCregor, Blake and Mouton, Likert and Argyris among other authorities have been conducting research and writing about ways to bring the formal and the informal organization into a viable



relationship. Some prominent theorists attempting to do the same thing in educational administration have been among others Getzels, Guba, Griffiths, Hemphill, and Halpin.

Robert Owens (1970, p. 46) in his book Organizational Rehavior in Schools claims that present day views of organizations generally represent some kind of synthesis of two earlier-held concepts: the formal organization and the informal organization. He believes that we have passed through two periods of sharply differing ideas about organizational theory and that the present period represents a synthesis of earlier points of views and new knowledge and understanding.

The present view then holds that schools are in reality complex organizations which have two specific characteristics: the formal structure of the organization and the informal structure. Schools are viewed as open social systems. Open systems are characterized by input-output relationships with their environment and according to Griffeths (1959, pp. 116-117) open systems are further characterized by:

- 1. tending to maintain themselves in steady states,
- 2. being self-regulating,
- 3. displaying equifinality; that is, identical results can be obtained from different initial conditions,
- 4. operating, in part, through the dynamic interplay of subsystems which operate as functional processes,
- 5. maintaining, in part, their steady states through feedback processes.

The Getzels-Guba (1957, pp. 423-441) model which describes the organization as a social system having an organizational (nomothetic) and a personal (idiographic) dimension has been used as the theoretical framework for a number of school organizational studies. Some of these studies are discribed by Getzels (1968) in the book <u>Educational Administration as a</u>

Social Process which he has co-authored with Lipham and Campbell. Chris Argyris (1957, 1964) has identified dimensions similar to the idiographic



and nomothetic and has used this framework to investigate organizational behavior in industry. The principal investigator of this proposed study has applied Argyris' framework to the study of organizational behavior in schools (Byrnes & Mullen, 1959).

General systems theory is designed to be an all-inclusive way to view the interrelationships among various elements and the whole in much the same way as Gestalt psychology does. Gordon Hearn (1958, p. 38) states that general system theorists believe that it is possible to represent all forms of animate and inanimate matter as systems. Applications of systems theory to industrial management has been promoted by British scholars at the Tavistock Institute. One of the ideas growing out of the Tavistock studies (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1970) is that of a sociotechnical system. According to this view, any productive organization or part thereof is a combination of technology and a social system. Technology includes task requirements, physical layout, equipment available, and the like. The social system is the system of relationships among people who must perform the tasks.

The modern view states in essence that school organizations should be considered as technical and as social systems interacting within a general systems framework. Individuals in social relationships make up the psychosocial subsystem. The general atmosphere is affected by many variables; some integral, some peripheral. Societal culture sets an overall framework; educational mores and practices have an impact; and many other variables are peculiar to the specific educational organization. Technology and structure affect educational organizational productivity, as do the attitudes and morale of the students and starf involved.

Modern organizational theory to attempted a synthesis of scientific or classical management and human resource. Amatai Etzioni (1964, p. 49) has



summarized the contribution of modern theory by stating that it has broadened its concern to include:

- 1. Both formal and informal elements of the organization and their articulation;
- 2. The scope of informal groups and the relations between such groups inside and outside the organizations;
- 3. Both lower and higher ranks;
- 4. Both social and material rewards and their effects on each other;
- 5. The interaction between the organization and its environment;
- 6. Both work and nonwork organizations.

Etzioni claims that this broader view enriches the study of any single element by providing a context within which to place it and points of reference for judging its importance to the organization.

In dealing with both the formal and informal elements of the organization and their articulation, the theoretical model (given on page 15 of the proposal) developed by Rensis Likert and the research which Likert's model has generated appear to give the most productive guidance for developing the model synthesis in school organizations. The School Organizational Development Questionnaire (SODQ) which will be described later in this paper has grown out of the Likert model and deals with both formal (causal) and informal (intervening) variables with both lower and higher school ranks.

Organizational Effectiveness

Systems theory is showing promise in evaluating organizations. Owens (1970, p. 55) points out that traditionally, organizations - including schools - have been evaluated in terms of goals set for them. Since it is a rare occasion when an organization fully achieves all of its goals, this goal-model evaluation of organizations only tends to the evaluation almost always negative in tone. Etzioni (1964, pp. 16-17) states that low effectiveness is a general characteristic of organizations. He describes goal-model evaluation as:



... analogous to an electrical engineer who would rate all light bulbs "ineffective" since they convert only about 5 percent of their electrical energy into light, the rest being "wasted" on heat [Etzioni, 1964, pp. 16-17].

Chris Argyris (1964, p. 123) uses the concept of organization effectiveness in much the same way that Miles (1965, p. 17) and Bennis (1966, p. 44) use the term organizational health. For Argyris effectiveness hinge's on the organization's ability to: achieve its goals, maintain itself internally, and adapt to its environment. Organizational health or effectiveness according to these writers refers to the processes through which the organization approaches problems. Most of the techniques which have been used for measuring the effectiveness of an organization have been characterized by some kind of self-study approach. Ozens (1970, p. 170) lists some of the kinds of survey data which would be meaningful to the study of organizational health of schools;

- 1. How decisions are made and how they should be made
- Morale
- 3. The relationships between teachers and principals
- 4. How the school relates to the community
- 5. Communication its adequacy and clarity
- 6. Organizational climate
- 7. How satisfied people are with their roles in the school and why
- 8. Goals of the school and how to interpret them.

The system model for evaluating effectiveness adds a dimension which has been largely neglected; i.e., an examination of the operating relationships that must exist in order for the organization to function effectively. This means that there is a need to establish the organizational processes which determine the effectiveness of the operating relationships.

To date, it does not appear that such processes have been established and tested in educational organizations. The instrumentation available to even study any aspect of organizational effectiveness is almost completely lacking. The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire developed by



Malpin and Croft (1963) and 🕟 Stern-Steinhoff (Steinhoff, 1965) Organizational Climate Index represent the major techniques available for assessing the organizational climate of schools in a systematic way. The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire has generated hundreds of studies in this country and many abroad, but these studies have been primarily correlational in nature. In addition, Halpin and Croft give no hint as to what might be done in a particular situation in order to attain a desirable climate. Andrew Hayes (1972, p. 6) in his recent study "A Reappraisal of the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire" states that the OCDQ does not seem to be applicable to urban schools. Haves also points out that the OCDQ items which are meant to be indicators of a construct are beginning to be inadequate because of the passage of time. Great changes have occurred in the schools and in society since the OCDQ was constructed. A process such as decisionmaking never changes, but a particular example of a decision made by a school administrator can only be reacted to in relationship to the situation and time in which it occurs. Some of the same criticisms of "time binding" items and the question of how the information obtained might be useful for increasing the effectiveness of the organization are also applicable to the Stern-Steinhoff Organizational Climate Index. Some other cautions have been raised about the use of the OCDQ. Watkins (1969, pp. 46-60) and also Carver and Sergiovanni (1969) point out that this instrument was developed for elementary schools and may not be appropriate for other school settings. The instrument tends not to be valid for large elementary schools and certainly not for large secondary schools. It is argued that the referent-point principal needs to be changed to someone closer to the teachers.

An additional problem related to determing organizational effectiveness in schools with the existing instruments is that none of these instruments



even attempt to measure the effect that the school organization has on students. It may well be that student organizational dysfunction is of far greater significance to the school organization than that or any other group in the school.

Another problem with the existing instruments is that they focus primarily on the climate of the school, but fail to take into account that the climate of a particular school is certainly strongly influenced by the total school system climate. There is a need to consider the organizational health of the total system as well as the health of the subsystems.

In order to deal more effectively with organizational health, it seems now, that a systems approach is the most appropriate. In taking a systems approach students need to be included in the population which is being surveyed and some attempt needs to be made to approach the examination of organizational effectiveness through critical processes rather than "time-binding" acts which in a fast changing society become archaic as soon as they are stated.

Ransis Likert's Model for Increasing Organizational Effectiveness

Over a period of many years Likert has been conducting research in industry about factors in the structural, psycho-social, and managerial subsystems which contribute to increased organizational effectiveness. He describes this research and some of the results obtained in two books - New Patterns of Management (1961) and The Human Organization (1967).

Based upon the principle and practices of the managers who are achieving the best results, Likert (1961, pp. 97-118) reveals a newer theory of organization and management. The following section contains an abstract of some of the overall characteristics of Likert's theory and a general integrating principle which he feels can be useful in attempts to apply it.



The highest producing managers use all of the technical resources of the classical theories of management as completely as do the low producing managers, but in quite different ways. The difference is that high producing managers use motives which they believe are important to influencing human behavior; whereas the low producing managers more often use direction, control, and motivation through the exercise of their status authority and the application of hierarchial and other economic pressures. In escence, by tapping the full strength of all ego, economic and group motives, the high producing managers have developed their organizations into highly motivated, cooperative social systems wherein members of the organization pull concertedly toward commonly accepted goals which they have helped to establish.

How do these high-producing managers do this? One clue gathered from the data shows that treating people as "human beings" rather than "cogs in a machine" is a variable highly related to the attitudes and motivation of the subordinate at every level in the organization.

Likert (1961, p. 102) shows through his studies and points out that similar data from other studies reveal that subordinates react favorably to experiences which they feel are supportive and contribute to their sense of importance and personal worth. Likert also points out that these findings are supported by substantial research on personality development and group behavior. Everyone wants to feel that he has a place in the world and deserves appreciation, recognition, influence, a feeling of accomplishment, and a sense of dignity and importance with other people. According to Likert research findings indicate that the general patterns of operations of the high producing managers more often referent the following characteristics:

1. A preponderance of favorable attitudes on the part of each member of the organization toward all the other members, toward superiors, toward the work, toward the organization - toward all aspects of the job. These favorable attitudes



reflect a high level of mutual confidence and trust throughout the organization. The members feel a high degree of identification with the organization and its objectives and a high sense of involvement in achieving them. As a consequence, the performance goals are high and dissatisfaction may occur whenever achievement fall short of goals set.

- 2. This highly motivated, cooperative orientation toward the organization and its objectives is achieved by capitalizing on all the major motivational forces which exist in an organizational setting. Reliance is not placed solely on the economic motive of buying a man's time and using control and authority as the organizing and coordinating principle of the organization. On the contrary, the following motives are all used fully and in such a way that they function in a cumulative and reinforcing manner and yield favorable attitudes:
 - .. The ego motives.
 - .. The security motives.
 - .. Curiosity, creativity, and the desire for new experiences.
 - .. The companie motives.

By tapping all the motives which yield favorable and cooperative attitudes, maximum motivation oriented toward realizing the organization's goals, as well as the needs of each member of the organization, is achieved.

- 3. The successful organization consists of a tightly knit, effectively functioning social system. This social system is made up of interlocking work groups with a high degree of group loyalty among the members and favorable attitudes and trust between superiors and subordinates. Sensitivity to others and skill in personal interaction and the functioning of groups are also present. These skills permit effective participation in decisions on common problems. Communication is efficient and effective. There is a flow from one part of the organization to another of all the relevant information important for each decision and action. The leadership in the organization has developed a highly effective social system for interaction and mutual influence.
- 4. Measurements of organizational performance are used primarily for self-guidance rather than for superimposed control. Participation and involvement in decisions is a habitual part of the leadership processes. This kind of decision making requires the sharing of available measurements and if additional information or measurements are needed, steps are taken to obtain them.

High producing managers use the above mentioned motivating forces and other processes by recognizing that they are likely to be discerning and reinforcing when each individual in the organization feels that his



interactions with others are of such a character that they convey to the individual a feeling of support and recognition for his importance and worth as a person.

Not only is it important to use relevant motives, but it is also essential to recognize that an individual's reaction to any situation is always a function, not of the absolute character of the interaction, but of his perception of it. "It is how he sees things that count, not objective reality [Likert, 1961, p. 102]." Individuals in an organization interpret interactions between themselves and the organization in terms of their background and culture, their experience and expectations.

The principle of supportive relationships stated by Likert is:

The leadership and other processes of the organization must be such as to insure a maximum probability that in all interactions and all relationships with the organization each member will, in light of his background, values, and expectations, view the experience as supportive and one which builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance [Likert, 1961, p. 103].

What Likert and others have been discovering through research studies is that the supportive-participative management system achieves higher, or at least equal, productivity levels with fewer of the resentments, hostilities, grievances and breakdowns inherent in management systems using the traditional principles of administration.

In light of these findings Likert raises an important question.

If this pattern is so consistent, why is it that the majority of supervisors, managers, and top company officers have not arrived at these same conclusions based upon their own experiences [Likert, 1961, p. 61]?

His answer is that most organizations deal with inadequate measurement processes. Organizations too often secure measurements dealing only with end result variables such as production, sales, profits and percentages of net earnings to sales. Likert states that there is another class of variables



which significantly influence the end result ones. The other variables are seriously neglected in present measurement practices.

The organizational variables are defined by Likert in the following manner.

Causal variables include the structure of the organization and management's policies, decisions, business and leadership strategies, skills and behavior.

The "intervening" variables reflect the internal state and health of the organization, e.g., the loyalties, attitudes, motivations, performance goals, and perceptions of all members and their collective capacity for effective interaction, communication, and decision making.

The "end-result" variables are dependent variables which reflect the achievements of the organization, such as its productivity, costs, scrap loss, and earnings [Likert, 1967, p. 29].

The interrelationships of these variables are portrayed by Likert (1967, p. 75) on the attached form. (See Form A.) According to Likert (1967, pp. 76-77) the causal variables can be altered or modified and they are independent variables. The intervening variables are produced largely by the causal variables and they in turn have an influence upon the endresult variables. Likert (1967, p. 77) also claims that the variables as shown schematically on Form A reveal a direction of causality and the importance of an especially important variable, time.



FORM A

If a manager has:

Well-organized plan of operation High performance goals High technical competence

and if the manager manages via: SYSTEMS 1 or 2 SYSTEM 4 (direct pressure for (stresses the importance and Causal. results, including carrot dignity of individuals, group Variables and stick and other pracmethods of supervision and tices of the traditional overlapping groups involved system) in decision-making) organization will display: Less group loyalty Greater group loyalty Lower performance goals Higher performance goals Greater conflict and less Greater cooperation cooperation More technical assistance to Less technical assistance peers Intervening to peers Less feeling of unreasonable Variables Greater feeling of unreapressure sonable pressure Hore favorable attitudes Less favorable attitudes toward superiors toward superiors Higher motivation to produce Lower motivation to produce and his organization will reach: Lower production levels Higher production levels Higher costs of production Lower cost of production Lower quality of product Higher quality of product Less satisfaction to members Greater satisfaction to members End-Result Varlables of the organization and to of the organization and to the public it serves the public it serves

Likert, R., The human organization: Its management and value, New York: McGraw Hill, 1967, p. 76.



To get a more accurate picture of organizational health and productivity, it is important to be able to show what is happening with regard to the causal variables such as management philosophy, supervisory behavior, and organizational structure; intervening variables such as attitudes, expectations and motivational forces; and end-result variables such as program, cost and achievement. Likert (1967, Appendix II, pp. 197-211) has developed a "Profile of Organizational Characteristics" which plot eight organizational processes and sub-categories for each along a continuum ranging from System I (exploitive-authoritarian) to System II (benevolent-authoritarian) to System III (consultative) to System IV (participative). The processes and sub-categories as listed below are identified by Likert (1967, p. 143) as being causal, largely causal or intervening.

1. Leadership processes used

1.1	Extent to which superiors have confidence	Causal
1.2	and trust in subordinates Extent to which subordinates in turn have	Intervening
1.3	confidence and trust in superiors Extent to which superiors display suppor-	Causal
	tive behavior toward others	C
1.4	Extent to which superiors behave so that subordinates feel free to discuss impor-	Causal
	tant things about their jobs with their immediate superior	
1.5	Extent to which immediate superior in solving	Causal
	job problems generally tries to get subordinates ideas and opinions and make construc-	
	tive use of them	

2. Character of motivational forces

21	Underlying motives tapped	Causal
2.2	Manner in which motives are used	Causal
2.3	Kinds of attitudes developed toward organization and its goals	Intervening
2.4	Extent to which motivational forces conflict with or reinforce one another	Intervening
2.5	Amount of responsibility felt by each member of organization for achieving organization's goals	Intervening
2.6	Attitudes toward other members of the organization	Intervening
2.7	Satisfaction derived	Intervening



3. Character of communication process

3,1	Amount of interaction and communication aimed at achieving organization's objectives	Intervening
3.2 3.3	Direction of information flow	Intervening
	3.31 Where initiated 3.32 Extent to which superiors willingly	Intervening Caucal
	share information with subordinates	
	3.33 Extent to which communications are accepted by subordinates	Intervening
3.4	Upward communication	
	3.41 Adequacy of upward communication via line organization	Intervening
•	3.42 Subordinates' feeling of responsibility for initiating accurate upward communication	Intervening
	3.43 Forces leading to accurate or distorted information upward	Intervening
	3.44 Accuracy of upward communication via	Intervening
	3.45 Need for supplementary upward communication system	Intervening
3.5	Sideward communication, its adequacy and accuracy	Intervening
3.6	Psychological closeness of superiors to subordinates (i.e., friendliness between	Largely Causal
	superiors and subordinates)	
	3.61 How well does superior know and under- stand problems faced by subordinates	Intervening
	3.62 How accurate are the perceptions by superiors and subordinates of each other	Intervening
	-	

4. Character of inter-action-influence process

Amount and character of interaction	Largely Causal
Amount of cooperative teamwork present	Intervening
Extent to which subordinates can	Intervening
influence the goals, methods, and	And the second s
activity of their units and departments	
4.31 As seen by superiors	Intervening
4.32 As seen by subordinates	Intervening
Amount of actual influence which superiors	Intervening
can exercise over the goals, activities,	
and methods of their units and departments	
Extent to which an effective structure exists	Causal
enabling one part of organization to exert	**************************************
influence upon other parts	•
	Extent to which subordinates can influence the goals, methods, and activity of their units and departments 4.31 As seen by superiors 4.32 As seen by subordinates Amount of actual influence which superiors can exercise over the goals, activities, and methods of their units and departments Extent to which an effective structure exists enabling one part of organization to exert

5. Character of decision-making process

5.1	At what level in organization are decisions	Lar
	formerly made?	B
5.2	How adequate and accurate is the information	I

5.2 How adequate and accurate is the information available for decision making at the place where decisions are made?

Largely Causal

Intervening



5.3 To what extent are decision makers aware of Intervening problems, particularly those at lower levels in the organization? 5.4 Extent to which technical and professional Intervening knowledge is used in decision making 5.5 Are decisions made at the best level in the organization as far as 5.51 Availability of the most adequate and Intervening accurate information bearing on the decision 5.52 The metivational consequences (i.e., Intervening does the decision making process help to create the necessary motivations in those persons who have to carry out the decision?) 5.6 To what extent are subordinates involved Largely Causal in decisions related to their work? 5.7 Is decision making based on man-to-man or Largely Causal group pattern of operation? Does it encourage or discourage teamwork? Character of goal setting or ordering 6.1 Manner in which usually done Causa1 6.2 To what extent do the different Intervening hierarchial levels tend to strive for high performance goals? 6.3 Are there forces to accept, resist, or Intervening reject goals? 7. Character of control processes 7.1 At what hierarchial levels in organization Largely Casual does major or primary concern exist with regard to the performance of the control function? 7.2 How accurate are the measurements and infor-Intervening mation used to guide and perform the control function, and to what extent do forces exist in the organization to distort and falsify this information? 7.3 Extent to which the review and control Largely Causal functions are concentrated 7.4 Extent to which there is an informal Intervening organization present and supporting or opposing goals of formal organization Intervening Extent to which control data (e.g., accounting, productivity, cost, etc.) are used for self-guidance or group problem solving by managers and non-supervisory employees, or used by superiors in a punitive, policing manner



8. Performance goals and training

8.1 Level of performance goals which superiors seek to have organization achieve

Intervening

8.2 Extent to which you have been given the management training you desire

Intervening

8.3 Adequacy of training resources provided to assist you in training your subordinates

Intervening

Likert has used these above variables to develop an instrument called the "Likert Profile of a School." Hall (1972, pp. 586-590) recently reported a study which compares the Halpin and Croft's organizational climates and Likert and Likert's organizational systems. Hall's findings are interesting to note in this comparison.

The positively significant relationship found between organizational climates classified by the OCDQ and organizational systems classified by the Profile of a School supports the concept that the organizational model from which the OCDQ was developed is comparable to that from which the Profile of a School was developed.

It appears that organizational structures do differ along certain lines, which supports attempts to classify them. All of the schools classified by the OCDQ as open were classified as either system III or system IV by the Likert Profile, but only nine of the thirty schools classified as closed by the OCDQ belonged to systems I and II according to the Likert questionnaire. Analysis of available data gave no explanation for these phenomena [Hall, 1972, p. 589].

The important contribution of the Likert model, however, does not lie in it being able to discriminate whether a school organization is a system I, II, III, or IV type, but its value is that it can permit diagnosis of dysfunctions of a system and provide direction for the development of organization health. The Likert organizational model is an open systems one, it meets almost all eight areas for data gathering called for by Owens (1970, p. 170) and listed on page 8 of this paper. Even more importantly, hared on over 20 years of research by Likert and his associates, it ident; organizational processes which can provide direction for improving ganizational effectiveness.



The School Organizational Development Questionnaire - S O D Q

The writer of this paper began in the summer of 1970 to develop an instrument based upon the Likert model. The purpose for the development of such an instrument was not to characterize the climate of schools, but it was to develop an instrument which could be used to find out where the discrepancies are in critical organizational processes and at what level and with which groups in the school organization. The notion is that diagnosis can provide clues to treatment. This notion is not dissimilar to the medical approach to health and treatment of sickness. The theoretical underpinnings for this idea of the need for diagnosis in the realm of organizational behavior comes from Chris Argyris (1964, p. 57).

Let us pause to make it clear that we are not suggesting that all organizations suppress individuals' self-expression nor that all individuals desire psychological success. The basic hypothesis is that the organization will tend to develop unintended consequences when there is a lack of congruency between individual needs and organizational demands. Although we have focused on the incongruency between the need for psychological success and the requirements of the lower levels of organization, this is not the only possible incongruency. We predict the same unintended consequences will occur if the individual does not desire to experience psychological success and the organization requires an individual to do so.

On the other hand, the unintended adaptive activities already discussed should not tend to exist where there is a significant degree of congruency between individual needs and organizational demands - for example, if the individual does need to experience psychological success and the organization requires it, and if the individual does not desire to experience psychological success and the organization makes it difficult to do so.

Another notion that the investigator had was that students comprised the majority population in school organizations and that any measure of organizational effectiveness must include an attempt to investigate incongruencies or discrepancies between student needs and organizational demands. We are all too familiar with the adaptive behaviors and perhaps have not begun to realize fully the unintended consequences that school



organizations are causing because of the neglect of including students in our organizational studies. If organizational theory is even close to mirroring reality when it stresses the importance of the informal organization, then we can ill afford to ignore the fact that students play a major role in determining the effectiveness of a school organization.

Another impetus underlying the development of a diagnostic organizational instrument and for including students in the study of the school organization came from the literature dealing with "OD", Organizational Development. Lewin (1958, pp. 197-211) laid the groundwork for an evolving managerial change strategy called organizational development when he developed the notion that individual and group change is most effective when norms and standards regulating member behavior are changed. Bennis (1969, p. 2) defines organization development as a complex educational strategy intended to change the beliefs, attitudes, values, and structure of organizations so that they can better adapt to new technologies, markets, challenges and the dizzying rate of change itself. He believes that through the collection and feedback of relevant data to relevant people, more choices become available and hence better decisions are made. Organization development is the name that Beckhard (1969, p. 7) and others are attaching to total-system, planned-change efforts for coping with some of the current problems facing managers in modern organizational life. The strategies used by OD agents are: diagnosis, foci of attention with relevant groups and intervention.

Using these concepts of total system involvement (including students) and the need to diagnose malfunctions in the organizational processes developed by Likert, the writer constructed the first version of the SODQ. He started by taking each of the fifty-one statements about system IV in the Likert "Profile of Organizational Characteristics" and restating these items



so as to be applicable to school situations. Pretests were conducted and the instrument was readied to be tried out in a public school system.

An organization development project was initiated in two Georgia school systems and as a part of this OD effort the SODQ was administered to all students in grades 7 through 12 and all certified staff in each of the school systems. These were both rural school systems in the mid-castern portion of the state. A total of 2,640 students and 712 certified staff responded to the SODQ. An oblique rotational factor analytic treatment was applied to the data supplied by these two school systems. Of the eight theorized factors in the Likert model, five could be identified from factor analysis of the SODQ responses.

The instrument was revised on the basis of the factor analysis in the fall of 1971 by deleting items not identifiable with one of the five factors. The instrument was used again in another school system. In this project, 1,954 students (grades 7-12) and 502 certified staff responded to the SODQ. The oblique rotational factor analytic treatment was again applied. Again, the remaining item scores loaded in a pattern defining five factors as before.

In order to get at a further breakdown in data analysis to include subjects and departments, the format of the SODQ was revised and the instrument was again tested in the spring of 1972. This time a single high school was choosen in the north-western section of the state. The SODQ was administered to 344 students randomly selected from grades 9-12 from various subject areas and departments of the school. The total certified staff (44) also took the SODQ in this modified form.

The SODQ has been given a limited field test as described in the situations above. The purposes of the field tests have been two fold. One purpose has been to test the use of the instrument in providing data which school systems can use to plan interventions which help increase their effectiveness as school organizations. In each case the data from the SODQ did



give information which was useful in describing dysfunctional organizational processes at specific organizational levels. The investigator was also able to use the Likert model to make suggestions about interventions which might be useful to increase organizational effectiveness. No attempt has been made to do follow up studies in these systems. The other purpose of the field tests was developmental by design. Through the use of the SODQ in the studies described above, it was hoped that the instrument could be developed and readied for a broader use and application.

Three of the original eight organizational processes are presented below as "Overarching Processes." The remaining five of the original eight are described as "Processes Tapped by the School Organizational Development Questionnaire." The Likert System IV items are listed and a summary of the factor structure of the SODQ with factor loadings for items is given.

Organizational Processes to be Considered in Developing School Organizations

I. Overarching Processes

- 1.0 Goal Setting or Ordering
 - 1.1 manner except in emergencies, goals are established by means of group participation including community participation
 - 1.2 high performance goals high goals sought by all levels with lower levels sometimes pressing for higher goals than top levels
 - 1.3 acceptance of goals both overtly and covertly

2.0 Motivational Forces

- 2.1 full use of economic, ego and other motives
- 2.2 manner goals are reached rather than through fear and suppression, power is used to develop independence
- 2.3 kinds of attitudes favorable to achieving organizational goals
- 2.4 reinforcing forces rather than conflicting ones "Win-Win"
- 2.5 amount of responsibility felt for achieving organizational noals
- 2.6 attitudes toward other members of organization



- 3.0 Performance Goals and Training
 - 3.1 level of performance goals which supervisors seek to have organization achieve - extremely high goals
 - training receive a great deal of training of kind helpful and desired
 - adequacy of training resources excellent resources are provided

II. Processes Tapped by the School Organizational Development Questionnaire

1.0 Leadership Process

- 1.1 confidence and trust in subordinates
- 1.2 confidence and trust in superiors
- 1.3 superiors display supportive behavior
 1.4 superiors behave so subordinates feel free to discuss
- 1.5 superiors try to get ideas

Items in SODQ

12 Items - 1, 4, 5, 9, 11, 13, 15, 18, 23, 26, 32, 35

.467	1.	Your leaders have faith and trust in you.	Causal
.502	ц.	Your leaders work with you in such a way that you	Causal
		like to do what they expect you to do.	
.608	5.	You have faith and trust in your leaders.	
.652	9.	Your leaders treat you in ways which make you feel important.	Causal
.919	11.	Your leaders know how it is from your point of view.	Causa1
.654	13.	You know how things are from your leaders' point of view.	
.695	15.	You feel close to your leaders.	
.695	18.	You feel friendly with your leaders.	•
.620	23.	You share your feelings with your leaders.	
.620	26.	You share your problems with your leaders.	
.420	32,	Your leaders share their feelings with you. Largel	y Causal
.420	35.		y Causal

2.0 Interaction - Influence Process

- 2.1 extensive, friendly high confidence and trust
- 2.2 substantial cooperative team work
- 2.3 subordinates can influence goals, methods and activities
 - 2.31 great deal as seen by superiors
 - 2.32 great amount through formal and informal as seen by subordinates
- amount of influence which superiors can exercise over goals, activity and methoda
- 2.5 highly effective structure enabling influence in all directions

Factor loadings



Items	in	SODO
7 (01112)	T 11	OUDQ

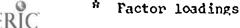
*	7 1	tems - 2, 6, 16, 24, 31, 36, 39	
.877	2.	Team work is used to improve things.	Causal
.743	6.	Your leaders use what they know about "how you are doing" to help you improve.	Causal
.813	. 16.	Your leaders leave you free to control your behavior.	
.390	24.	You are able to improve things.	
.411	31.	You have the chance to show concern for others.	
.411	36.	You are encouraged to give help to others to make things better.	
.439	. 39.	High standards are set.	Causal

3.0 Decision-Making Process

- 3.1 decision making widely done throughout organization although well integrated through linking process of overlapping groups
- complete and accurate information based on measurement at the place where decisions are made
- decision makers aware of problems particularly those 3.3 in lower levels of organization
- decisions made at the best level in the organization as far as:
 - availability of the most adequate and accurate information bearing on the decision - group decision processes tend to push decisions to point where information is most adequate or to pass relevant information to the decision making point
 - 3.42 decision making process helps to create the necessary motivations in those persons who have to carry out the decisions
- 3.5 technical and professional knowledge anywhere in the organization is used in decision making
- 3.6 subordinates are involved fully in all decisions related to their work
- 3.7 decision making largely based on group pattern, encourages teamwork

Items in SODQ

*	11 1	tems - 3, 7, 10, 17, 19, 21, 27, 30, 33, 37, 40	
.518	3.	You can take part in improving things.	
.383	7.	The way decisions are made helps you to feel part of a team.	Causal
.732	10.	You take a part in making decisions which affect you.	Causal
.485	17.	You share in having control.	<u>Causal</u>





.723	19.	You feel that you can bring about changes in policies.	
.723	21.	You can bring about changes in how things are done.	<u>Causal</u>
.723	27.	You can bring about changes in what is done.	Causal
.714	30.	Things which affect you are developed by you or others in your peer group.	Causal
.517	33.	You communicate with leaders to help improve things.	
.741	37.	Decisions are made by those close to the problem source.	
.428	40.	Things are organized so that your views help frame decisions.	

4.0 Control Process

4.1 level at which concern for control function operates - concern for performance of control functions likely to be felt throughout organization

4.2 accuracy of measurements used to guide control function strong pressures to obtain complete and accurate information to guide own behavior and behavior of own and
related work groups; hence information and measurements
tend to be complete and accurate

4.3 concentration of control functions - review and control done at all levels with lower units at times imposing more vigorous reviews and tighter controls than top management

4.4 informal organization - informal and formal organizations are one and the same; hence all social forces support efforts to achieve organization's goals

4.5 extent to which control data (accounting, productivity, cost, achievement, etc.) are used for self-guidance and for coordinated problem solving and guidance, not used punitively

Items in SODQ

*	5 I	tems - 14, 25, 29, 41, 44
.603	14.	You accept the standards set for you.
698	25.	You try to reach expected standards.
.423	29.	You treat your leaders in ways which cause them to feel that you trust them.
.625	41. 44,	You give true information about yourself pour leaders. Your present accept the standards set.

5.0 Communication resess

5.1 amount of interaction and communication aimed at achieving organizations objectives - with individuals and groups

5.2 direction of information flow 5.21 down, up and with peers



- 5.31 initiated at all levels
 5.32 superiors willingly share information
 5.33 communications generally accepted but if not-openly questioned
- 5.4 upward communication
 - 5.41 a great deal

5.3 downward communication

- 5.42 considerable responsibility felt by all
- 5.43 powerful forces to communicate accurately upward
- 5.44 accurate information upward not just what boss wants to hear
- 5.45 no need for spy system or other
- 5.5 sideward communication good; no competition between peers
- 5.6 friendliness between superiors and subordinates
 - 5.61 superior knows and understands problems
 - 5.62 superiors and subordinates perceive and understand each other accurately

Items in SODQ

		A CONTRACTOR OF THE PARTY OF TH	
ਮ	9 I	tems - 8, 12, 20, 22, 28, 34, 38, 42, 43	
.499	.8.	Facts from those who "KNOW" are used to make decisions.	
.540	12.	You or your peers take part to help make decisions.	
.537		Ideas for ways to improve things come from all concerned.	
.582	22.	When your leaders know your ideas they try to use them.	Causal
501	28.	Your leaders provide opportunity to work with your peers in close and friendly ways.	Causal
.614	34.	Your leaders try to get your ideas.	Causal
.530		The people who make decisions which affect you are aware of the things you face.	
.534	42.	Your leaders try to get you to reach high standards.	Causal
.490	43.	You give true information about yourself to your leaders.	.

* Factor loadings

Purpose of Study Presently Being Conducted

The general purpose of the present study being initiated is to determine the nature of the school organizational processes as measured by the School Organizational Development Questionnaire (SODQ) across the wide spectrum of different school organizations. More specifically, the study intends:

1. To investigate, in a number of school systems of various sizes in various regions of the United States, discrepancies in school



- organizational processes at various levels of the school system and with different segments of the school population.
- 2. To provide participating institutions with the result of the study for their own purposes in school organizational development.
- 3. To provide the documentation necessary for replicating the study.
- 4. To determine the measurement characteristics of the SODQ; i.e., answers to questions of reliability and validity.

It is not within the scope of the present study to deal with relationships of the SODQ with instructional outcomes, developmental phenomena, learning processes, personality variables, or socialization phenomena. However, when this study is completed in 1976 and the measurement characteristics of the SODQ have been determined on a national representative sample, there is a need to use such an instrument to deal with relationships to learning outcomes and other related variables. Many of us have long suspected that these relationships between organizational settings and learning productivity are vital but lack of proper instrumentation has kept research from advancing in these areas.



REFERENCES

- Argyris, C. Integrating the individual and the organization. New York: Wiley & Sons, 1964.
- Argyris, C. Personality and organization. New York: Harper, 1957.
- Barnard, C. The functions of the executive. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1938.
- Bartky, J. Supervision as human relations. New York: D. C. Heath, 1953.
- Beckhard, R. Strategies of organization development. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison Wesley, 1969
- Bennis, W. Changing organizations. New York: McGraw Hill, 1966.
- Bennis W. Organization development: Its nature, origins and prospects.

 Reading, Hassachusetts: Addison Wesley, 1969.
- Blake, R. R. & Mouton, J. S. Corporate excellence through grid organization development. Houston, Texas: Gulf Publishing Co., 1958.
- Byrnes, M., & Mullen, D. Organizational behavior: A case study of the fusion process in a secondary school. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959.
- Carver, F. D., & Sergiovanni, T. Some notes on the OCDQ, Journal of Educational Administration. Vol. 7, No. 1, May, 1969.
- Dennison, H. Organization engineering. New York: McGraw Hill, 1931.
- Etzioni, A. Modern organizations. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1964.
- Faber, C. F., & Shearron, G. F. Elementary school administration: Theory and practice. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1970.
- Gardner, J. Self-renewal. New York: Harper, 1963.
- Getzels, J., & Guba, E. Social behavior and the administrative process, School Review. LXV, Winter, 1957.
- Getzels, J., Lipham, J., & Campbell, R. Educational administration as a social process. New York: Harper & Row, 1968.
- Griffiths, D. Administrative theory, in Robert L. Ebel et.al., (Eds.).
 4th edition Encyclopedia of educational research. London: Mac Millan Co., 1969.
- Griffiths, D. The nature and meaning of theory, in Griffiths, (ed.)

 Administrative theory. New York: Application Century Crofts, 1959.



- Guba, E. G. Research in internal administration What do we know? in R. P. Campbell and J. M. Lipham, (eds.) Administrative Theory as a Guide to Action. Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1960.
- Gulick, L., & Urwick, L. (Eds.) Papers on the science of administration.

 New York: Institute of Public Administration, Columbia University,
 1937.
- Hall, J. W. A comparison of Halpin and Croft's organizational climates and Likert and Likert's organizational systems. Administrative Science Quarterly, December, 1972, Vol. 17, (4), 586-90.
- Halpin, A. W. Theory and research in administration. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1966.
- Halpin, A. W., & Croft, D. B. The organizational climate of schools.

 Midwest Administrative Center, The University of Chicago, 1963.
- Hayes, A. A reappraisal of the organizational climate description questionnaire. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Georgia, 1972.
- Hearn, G. Theory building in social work. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1958.
- Hemphill, J. K., Griffiths, D. E., & Frederiksen, N. Administrative performance and personality. New York: T. C. Columbia University, 1962.
- Kast, F. E., & Rosenzweig, J. E. Organization and management: 'A systems approach. New York: McGraw Hill, 1970.
- Lewin, K. Group decisions and social change. In E. E. Macoby, T. M. Newcomb, and E. L. Hartley (Eds.), Readings in social psychology. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1958.
- Likert, R. The human organization: Its management and value. New York: McGraw Hill, 1967.
- Likert, R. New patterns of management. New York: McGraw Hill, 1961.
- Mackenzie, G., Carey, S., & Associates. <u>Instructional leadership</u>. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1954.
- McGregor, D. The professional manager. New York: McGraw Hill, 1967.
- Miles, M. E. Planned change and organizational health: Figure and ground, in Richard : Carlson, et.al., Change processes in public schools.
- Miner, J. The sool administrator and organizational character. Eugene, Oregon: The Center for Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon, 1967.



- Mooney, J. D. The principles of organization. New York: Harpers, 1947.
- Owens, R. Organizational behavior in schools. New Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc., 1970.
- Roethlisberger, F., & Dickon, J. Management and the worker. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1942.
- Simon, H. A. Administrative behavior. New York: Macmillan, 1947.
- Spears, H. Improving the supervision of instruction. New York: Prentice Hall, 1953.
- Steinhoff, C. K. <u>Organizational climate in a public school system</u>. USOE Cooperative Research Program Contract No. OE-4-225, Project No. S-083, Syracuse University, 1965.
- Taylor, F. W. Scientific management. New York: Harpers, 1948.
- Urwick, L. The elements of administration. New York: Harpers, 1947.
- Watkins, F. J. The OCDQ an application and some implications. Educational Administration Quarterly, Vol. 4, Spring, 1968.
- Wiles, K. Supervision for better schools. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1950.
- Yauch, W. Improving human relations in school administration. New York: Harpers, 1949.



SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT QUESTIONNAIRE (SODQ)

by
David J. Mullen
and
Thomas M. Goolsby, Jr.
University of Georgia
Athens, Georgia 30602

Form A - Public Schools

TO THE RESPONDENT:

The most important part of any organization is the people who make it up. Researchers have discovered that there are certain organizational processes such as confidence and trust in leadership, communication, decision-making, etc. which affect the success of that organization in achieving its goals.

This questionnaire (the SODQ) is constructed and administered to determine how you feel these key processes are handled in this organization and how you think they should be handled. There are no right or wrong answers. The information provided by the questionnaire will be used by your school to see where the majority of the people in this situation think improvement needs to be made.

The SODQ is intended to be completely confidential. Results will be summarized for groups, faculty, students, etc. In no instance will responses of individuals be reported. The questionnaire should ordinarily not take any longer than 50 minutes to complete.

Copyright © 1974
David J. Mullen
and
Thomas M. Goolsby, Jr.
All Rights Reserved

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS COPY-RIGHTED MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

TO ERIC AND AGAINTATIONS OPPAITING UNDER AGREEMENTS WITH THE NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION. FURTHER REPRODUCTION OUTSIDE THE ERIC SYSTEM RECUIRES PERMISSION OF THE COPYRIGHT OWNER."

This questionnaire is based upon Rensis Likert's "Profile of Organizational Characteristics."

Likert, R. The Human Organization: Its Management and Value. New York: McGraw Hill, 1967, pp. 197-211.



Use only a soft lead pencil to blacken the circle that shows your answer. Do not make any other marks on this questionnaire. Erase all mistakes completely.

100. Subject area or department - Mark one

Students: Mark the subject area as directed by the person administering this questionnaire.

Teaching Staff: Mark the subject area in which you teach 3 or more classes. (Self-contained classroom teachers or those teaching less than 3 classes in an area mark the area of your greatest interest.)

- Language Arts Reading, English, Spelling,
 Literature, Writing, Speech, Foreign Language, Library Science, etc.
- Social Studies History, Gov't., Political Science, Philosophy, Geography, Psychology, etc.
- Science General Science, Physical Science, Earth Science, Chemistry, Physics, etc.
- Mathematics General Math, Consumer Math, Algebra, Trigonometry, Geometry, etc.
- O Health, P.E., Safety Drug Education, Health,
 Physical Education, Driver Education, etc.
- Child Care, Foods, Clothing, Cosmetology,
 Drafting, Metal, Wood, Electricity, Mechanics,
 etc.
- Vocational Educational · Bookkeeping, Typing, Shorthand, Agriculture, VOT, DCT, Career Education, etc.
- Orchestra, Choir, etc.

101. Position - Mark the one that best describes your role.

- O Student
- O Teacher
- Area Coordinator or Dept, Head
- Other certified staff (principal, asst. principal, counselor, librarian, etc.)
- O Non-certified staff (teacher alde, etc.)

102. Race or Family	Background - Mark one
O Black O White Oriental	 American Indian Puerto Rican Mexican American Cuban
103. <u>Sex</u> O Male O Female	
104. Age - Mark age	at last birthday.
Students	Staff Under 20 20 to 29 30 to 39 40 to 49 50 to 59 60 or over
STUDE	NTS Only
105. Mark your grad	<u>le</u>
5678	O 9 O 10 O 11 O 12
STAI	FF Only

106. Years of Experience in Education

O Under 5 years

5 to 9 years

10 to 19 years

20 or more years

If you have not written the name of the school, city and state on top of the front cover, please do that now before you continue.

DIRECTIONS

STUD	ENTS:
	Subject Area
	Answer all items at the subject area level. Mark to show how you feel things are and how the teacher acts
	in the subject (Lang. Arts, Social Studies, Science, Math, etc.) which you checked in item 100 on p. 2.
	Overall School
	Answer all items at the overall school - principal level. Mark to show how you feel things are in the overall
	school and how those who run the school, especially the principal and his staff, act.
	Overall System
	Answer all Items at the overall system - superintendent level. Mark to show how you feel things are at the
	system level and how the person and his staff directly above the principal act.
TEAC	CHERS:
	Subject Area
	Mark to show how you feel things are in this department and how the area coordinator (leader) acts for the
	subject area which you checked in item 100 on p. 2. (Do not respond if you do not have an area coordinator.)
	Overall School
	Answer all items at the overall school - principal level. Mark to show how you feel things are in the overall
	school and how those who run the school, especially the principal and his staff, act.
	Overall System
•	Answer all items at the overall system a superintendent level. Mark to show how you leet things are as the
(3)	system level and how the person and his staff directly above the principal act.
ARE	A COORDINATORS, DEPT. HEADS, OTHER CERTIFIED, AND NON-CERTIFIED STAFF:
	Overall School
_	Answer all items at the overall school - principal level. Mark to show how you feel things are in the 60- rall
	school and how those who run the school, especially the principal, act.
	Overall System
	Answer all items at the overall system - superintendent level; Mark to show how you feel things are at the
Ð	system level and now the perion and his stall directly above the principal act.
PRIN	ICIPAL:
	Overall System
	Answer all Items at the overall system = superintendent level. Mark to show how you leet it A to the at the same
	system level and how the person and his staff directly above the principal act;
Y	ou are to mark each statement for the level that applies to you (see above) like the example below. When you are
no	ot sure about a statement at a level for either part (is or should be) then mark your answer as "I Don't Know."
	Respond to the shaded columns as follows: SUBJECT AREA OVERALL SCHOOL OVERALL SYSTEM
	OR DEPARTMENT PRINCIPAL SUPERINTENDENTS
	STORETTS LEVEL LEVEL

Respond to the shaded columns as follows: Students D D B	SUBJE OR DEL		MEN		ERAL PRIN LE		\L	DL Y	09) \$01	H		351 861	W.	1	
Teachers	I Day 1 in	Almont News	Somethings	Vest Other	Tunit kin	Munit News	Sometimes	You Olle	Almus Alway						
Your leaders* provide chances for you to work with your peers** in friendly ways.	is should be	0	0	000		0	0	•	o •	0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	10 TO

The example above is marked to show that leaders (principal and his staff) provide chances for you to work with your peers in friendly ways "Sometimes" at the OVERALL SCHOOL PRINCIPAL LEVEL, but they should try to provide chances "Very Often."

*Leaders: OVERALL SYSTEM SUPERINTENDENT LEVEL

OVERALL SCHOOL PRINCIPAL LEVEL

SUBJECT AREA (Students only)

DEPARTMENT LEVEL (Teachers only)

- The person and his staff directly above the principal.
- The principal and his staff.
- The teacher(s) for the subject which you checked in item 100 on p. 2.
- The area coordinator or dept. head for the subject checked on p. 2.
- **Peers: Those people who are in the same type of position as you in this school. (Student peers are other students.)

emember, use only a soft lead pencil and erase completely. Don't make any marks other than your answers on this booklet.

Ciny questions?

You may turn the page and begin work.

Page 3

		SUBJE OR DEF		ME	٠.		RIN	L SC CIPA VEL	\L	١.	10	ERI	LL S NTE EVE	NDE		\	
	Statement	1 Don't King	Almost Ne	Sometime	Very Offer.	Almost Alway	1 Don't Kno	Ilmost News.	Sometimes	very offer.	Almost Alway	T Don't Kare	Almost New	Sometime	Very Office	Altrost Alver	Shemi
1.	Your leaders have faith and trust in you.	is should be	0 0	0 0	0	0 0	0 0	İ	0	0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0
2,	Teanaw. A is used to improve things.	is should be	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0		0		0 0	0 0	0 0		0 0	0 0	C
3,	You can take part in improving things.	is should be	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	1	0	0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0		C
4.	Your leaders work with you in such a way that you like to do what they expect you to do.	is should be	0	0 0	0	0 0	0 0	0	0	0		0 0		0	0 0	0	C
5.	You have faith and trust in your leaders.	is should be	0	0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0	0	0	0 0	0	0 0		0 0		C
6.	Your leaders use what they know about "how you are doing" to help you improve.	is should be	0	0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0	0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0	C
7.	Decisions are made through teamwork.	is should be	0	0	0	0	0	0 0	0	0	0	0		0	0		0
8.	Facts from those who KNOW are used to make decisions.	is should be	0	0	0			0 0	0	0	0	0	0.0		100	0.0	C
9.	Your leaders treat you in ways which make you feel important.	is should be	0	0 0	0 0	0	0 0		0 0	0	0 0	0 0	0 0) 0 : 0	0 0		C
10.	You take a part in making decisions which affect you.	is	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
11.	Your leaders know how it is from your point of view.	should be	0 0 (0	0 0 (0	0 0 (0	0 0 0	0	0	0	0-0-4	10.	0 0 1		K. O. L
12.	You or your peers take part to help make decisions.	should be	0 0	0	0 0 (0		#35V 7501	0 0 (0 0 (77.5		92.5	0 0	0	
13.	You know how things are from your leaders' point of lew.	should be is should be	0 0 0	0 0 0		0 0 0	0 0 0		0 0 0	3.9	0 0 (200	0.700		0 0	33 33	0 0 3

		SUBJE OR DEE		[ME			PRIN	L SC CIPA VEL	\L	DL \	OV SUI		LLS NTE EVE		em nt		
		I Don't King	Almost New	Sometime	Ven Otter	Almost Alway	1 Don 1 King	Almost Neve:	Sometimes	Very Office.	Almost Alway	TOM T	Almoost	Someon	4	Almost A	
	Statement				Δ		3/	× /.		_7		3 \				達置	(金)
14.	You accept what your leaders expect you to do.	is should be	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0		0 0	0 0	0 0	ŀ		0.0	0.0	0_0	0.0
15.	You feel close to your leaders.	is should be	0 0			0 0		0 0						1			0 0
16.	Your leaders leave you free to control your behavior.	is	0 (0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	8	0
17.	When decisions are made they	should be	0	0	0	0	-	0				├	0.0	2	0		0 0
	are based on information which you think is right and fair.	should be	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ø	0	ø	o e
18.	You feel friendly with your leaders.	is	0	0	0	0	.	0					0		0		0
	icaucis.	should be	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	0	0	O	0
19.	You feel that you can bring about changes in policies.	is should be	0	0	0 0		0		0 0		0			122	0 0		08.80
20.	Ideas for ways to improve things come from all concerned.	is	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	100	0	0
		should be	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	0	0	9	9
21.	You can bring about changes in how things are done.	is should be	0	0	0		0		0	0 0	0	0	0	0 0	0 0	0	0
22.	When your leaders know	is	0	0	0		0	_	0) 0	-	0	ð		8	0	780
22.	your ideas they try to use them.	should be	0		0		0		0	0	0	1	Q	Ó	0	0	6
23.	You share your feelings with	is	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	0	Ó	Ø	9
	your leaders.	should be	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	Ø	9
24.	You are able to improve things.	is should be	0		0	4. av	0 (0	0 (0		0	溪	0	0	0
25.	You try to reach expected	snould be	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 0	0		0.15	0	0.0	0	9
	standards.	should be	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	9	9	80	C
26. ©	You share your problems with your leaders.	is should be	0.0	0	0	0	0	0	0 (0 (0	0		100 M	0	SON W	188

31. 32.	Statement You can bring about changes in what is done. Your leaders provide chances for you to work with your peers in friendly ways. You treat your leaders in ways which make them feel that you trust them.	is should be is should be	Almost Ne. 0 0 0	Sometimes 0 0	0	Almost Alway	1 Don 1 Kno	Ilmost Never	- +	\longrightarrow	}	Libon Kato	Almost New	Sometimes	Very Other	Almost Alway	- Lung
31. 32.	You can bring about changes in what is done. Your leaders provide chances for you to work with your peers in friendly ways. You treat your leaders in ways which	is should be is should be	0	0	0			}	- +	\longrightarrow		\$ \\	<u> </u>	* \	\setminus	~ \'	<u>ځ</u> ۱
31. 32.	Your leaders provide chances for you to work with your peers in friendly ways. You treat your leaders in ways which	should be	0			0	0	\bigcirc	\sim 1				2 Table 1997	ومبنينهم	لبسمع		-
31.	to work with your peers in friendly ways. You treat your leaders in ways which	should be	0		O	0		1		0		0	0 0	0	0 0	0	C
31.	You treat your leaders in ways which			0	0	0	0	0	1	Ì		0	0	0	0	0	
31.		is	0	0	0	-	9	0				0	0	0	0	0	_
31.	·	should be	0	0	0	0	0 0	0 0			0		0	0	0	0	C
31.	Things which affect you are developed by you or others in	is	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	C
32.	your peer group.	should be	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	You have the chance to show concern for others.	is should be	0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 C	0	, ,	0 0		0 0	0 0	0.0	0	0 0	C
		-	-	0) (0	0	0	\vdash		0		0	0	0	0	Ç
33.	Your leaders support and back you up.	is should be	0	0	0	0	0	0		0		0	0	0) 0	
	You communicate with leaders to help improve things.	is should be	0 0	0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0			0 0		0 0	0.0	0	0 0	0
	Your leaders try to get your ideas.	is	 	0		0	0	\vdash		-		-	0	0.	0	0	C
		should be	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	<u></u>
	Your leaders use your help to solve a common problem.	is should be	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0.0	0.0	0.0	00	0
36.	You are encouraged to give help	is	-	0	0	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	0	0	7.7	0	
	to others to make things better.	should be	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	O	Ø	o	0	C
37.	Decisions are made by those close to the problem source.	İs	18	0	0				0	0		0					
		should be	0	0	254	0	0	11.5	0	37 ²⁵		0	0	0			C
38.	The people who make decisions which affect you are aware of	is should be		0		0 0	0		0 0		0 0	0 0		0.0		0.0	C
39.	the things you face.	is	100		0		L	1 25 20	1961	13,555	1.79 83	1 198400	EX25*	■ 105 kg € 55 c		4.3	277

		SUBJE OR DEP LI		MEN	- \	VER P	RING				OVE SUP		LL S NTEI EVEI			7	
	Statement	1 Don't Kare	Almost New	Sometimes	Neri Often	Stewns Thousand	Air Know	Imost Never	Sometimes	Very Often	Imost Alway	Toon the	Almost New	Sometime	Aery Office	Almost Alm	
10.		is		ो	}	0	0	ी	0	히	0	$\frac{\circ}{}$	0	8	3	8	1
·U.	Decisions are made in such a way that you do not mind carrying them out.	should be	0			- 1					0	0	0	0	0	0	SALVA CANA
11.	You give true information about yourself to your leaders.	is	0 0	0 0	0		0	0	0	0	0	0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	Contract
		should be		-											313		
12.	Your leaders try to get you to reach high goals.	is should be	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0:0	0.0	0 0	9	100
43	Variable and in its bing state	is	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	3	8	ľ
43.	You take part in judging your performance.	should be	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ð	
44.	Your peers accept what is	is	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	Ø	Q	Ø	
	expected of them.	should be	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	0	0	0	
45.	Your leaders work with you and your peers in friendly ways.	is should be	0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0		0.0	0 0	0.0	
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		-	-			-				<u> </u>	├	LANC	350	1	ANALY MARKET	1
46.	Your leaders use what they "find out" to make things better.	is should be	0		0		0	0	0		0	1			0	0	
47.	Things are organized so that you	is	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	18	6	18	6	
-	or your peers can help make decisions.	should be			0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	Ó	O	0	Ti Carris - Spin
48.	Most students show a real	is	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	O	O	Ó	0	
	concern that all try to do what is expected.	should be	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	C		0	o	O	With Minne
49.	Your leaders share with you most all	ís	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	C	6	0	8	0	100
	the information you need or want.	should be	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	C		O	O	0	100
50.	Most all get along well and help each other.	is	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	C	. 153	0	O	0	130
	CON OHIOTA	should be	O	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	C		O	Ó		100
\$1.	하게 하셨다면 그렇게 나는 그는 얼마나면서 사내를 가장 되었다. 한 🔻 하는 하는 얼마나 하는 그 "이 나는 것이다. 이 나는	is	C		O	0	O	$ \circ$	0	0	0	c				ije	1
	and how well you do it is used to help solve problems.	should be	C		0	0	0	0	0			c		0	Q	G	3
52.	The leaders work with their peers and people below them to make the decisions.	is should be			0		0 0			0	0					1000	りとはない

		SUBJE						L SC			tyg	ŖΑ	L.S	Yşt	EM\		
		OR DEP	ART EVE		VT/	P \	-	CIPA VEL		1	SU?		ate Eve	NDE L	M	1	
		1	π-	$\overline{}$	Very Offer	Almost Alway	-	T	$\overline{}$	Very Officia	Almost Alway	Value of	1	7	1 (a) (a)	Almost Alway	\
	Statement	/8			, / Ē				, /g	1/8							ž \
3.	Most teachers show a real concern that all try to do what is expected.	is should be	0 0	0 0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 0	0 0	0 0	00	0 0	0 0	\mathbf{c}
4.	You or your peers ask questions about things that do not seem to be	is should be	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0	0	0 0	0 0	1.0:00	0 0	0.0	0:0	
5.	"right." Most all work together to get	is	0	0	0	0	0) (0	0	0	0) (0) 0	0	0.) I U
	the job done.	should be	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	Ó	0	0	C
6.	You and your peers, as well as your leaders, make sure rules are followed.	is should be	0	0	0	0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0	0 0	0 0	0.0	0.0	0.0	00	
7.	Needed work gets done because	is	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	1.30	813	0	۔ د
	of the way your leaders and peers work together.	should be	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	O	13%	1	0	Ş
8.	The administrators show a real concern that all try to do what is expected.	is should be	0 0	0	0	0	0	0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0.0	0.0	13.6	0	0
59.	You and your peers tell it "like it is" to your leaders.	is	0	0	0		0	0	0	0 (0	0	H-4	0.0	745.2	(b) 7	
	V	should be	0		0	-		0	0	0	0			0	6	0	(
60.	You talk with your peers about making things better.	should be	0	0			0			. '		1	0.30		0	0	
61.	Those not in charge show as much concern about a job being done	is	0		0	100	0			1.				34			\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\
	as do leaders.	should be	0		1 1 N	194) 4549	20.5	0	-	_	-	-	0	100	0	0	
62.	Your leaders show that the work done by you and your peers is important.	is should be	0			1	0				0			97			
63.	know in an open way by the ones	is should be	0													0.0	
64.	그는 사람은 사람들이 되었다면 보고 아니라는 나는데 그를 그는 생활하는데 되었다. 학생들은 그 사람들이 하는데 하는데 하는데 아니라 아니라 하는데 하는데 하는데 하는데 하는데 하는데 하는데 하는데 하는데 하는데	snouto be	0 0	1000						1 2000	1,575	153	2000		1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1		H
	used to rate what you and your peers do.	should be	C	C	O	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	9	O	
65. G	Your leaders discuss with your peers ways to improve things.	is should be		0.0			0 0		0	0	0 0	0 0			0	0	400