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The Effects of the Authenticity of the Administrator in Creating an Open or Closed Climate: A Comparative Study of the United States and Israel

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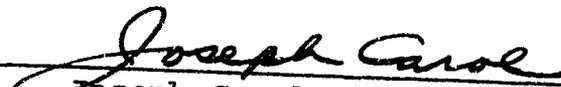
THE EFFECTS OF THE AUTHENTICITY OF THE ADMINISTRATOR IN CREATING
AN OPEN OR CLOSED CLIMATE: A COMPARATIVE STUDY
OF THE UNITED STATES AND ISRAEL

By

Stanley Hymowech

B.S., City University of New York, 1957

M.A., City University of New York, 1960



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Superintendent, Rye Neck Schools
Mamaroneck, New York

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of The
Requirements for the Degree of
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Authenticity was defined as the genuine behavior of the school's administrator in his relationship with the school's student body. The instrument used to evaluate student's perception of their principal's authenticity was

the Student's Principal Perception Questionnaire which was developed by the author.

The instrument selected to measure climate was the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (Halpin and Croft, 1963). This instrument established two sets of characteristics each of which is divided into four subtests. The two sets of characteristics evaluate the relationship of teachers and the leader-behavior of the principal. The subtest data derived from use of this instrument were used to compute rankings of climate on a continuum from open to closed. The study involved the translating of both testing instruments into Hebrew for the Israeli schools.

The five United States secondary schools selected for the study were located in New York State and Vermont and varied in student body size and community structure. The five Israeli schools selected were of varying types ranging from a governmentally recognized academic secondary school to a governmentally unrecognized vocational secondary school. Both secular and religious schools were included in the study of Israeli schools.

The major findings of this study were: 1) A direct relationship existed between the school's climate as evaluated by the teaching staff and the authenticity of the principal as perceived by the student body. 2) This relationship between school climate and principal authenticity existed in both the United States and Israel; and 3) The United States schools were, in general, more open in their

RP
organizational climate than the Israeli schools.

In the light of these findings, it was recommended that the principal should have closer relationship with the student body as a means of improving the school's climate. It was also recommended that the existing authoritarian role of the Israeli principal be altered to adjust to the apparent need for a more open school climate.

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What is said here is that education passes on to the young people of a civilized nation what the culture of that nation offers. Where that culture is liberal it leaves the learner free to adapt and even to improve through his own intellectual efforts the culture which he acquires. A liberal culture is liberal in its treatment of individuals. A dogmatic culture will reflect its dogmatism in its educational system.

The American Educational System
John Dale Russell and Charles H. Judd

CHAPTER I

THE NEED FOR POSITIVE INTERACTION

George B. Leonard stated that "learning eventually involves interaction between learner and environment, and its effectiveness relates to the frequency, variety and intensity of the interaction."¹ The major arena for learning is the school. Within the classroom, patterns of thought are imprinted upon a child's mind. This is the amphitheater in which a child does or does not learn.

Morphet, Johns, and Reller stated that the societal role of education is "to provide for security, to assure conformity, to preserve stability, to develop the potentialities of each individual and to provide for the continuous improvement of society."² Yet signs of deterioration have befallen the educational system from all aspects. Writers such as Postman and Weingartner³ have challenged the role of the teacher while others have

¹George B. Leonard, Education and Ecstasy (New York: Dell Publishing Co., 1968), p. 15.

²Edgar L. Morphet, Roe L. Johns, and Theodore L. Reller, Educational Organization and Administration (Englewoods Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1967), p. 6.

³Neil Postman and Charles Weingartner, Teaching As a Subversive Activity (New York: Delacorte Press, 1969).

demanded more meaningful school curriculum¹ and student freedom.² The foundations of the educational system have been set ajar by these piercing attacks. However, little information has been obtained on why learning takes place.

Friedenberg,³ in his essay entitled "The Modern High School: A Profile", compared two modern high schools which he called Milgrim and Hartsburgh. He found that the school atmosphere differed in these two schools; yet they had similar curriculum, staff, and school structure. The difference was in the student morale.

An experienced educator could learn a great deal about the success of a particular school by roaming the halls and listening to student and faculty conversations. Spending a short time in a lunch room, faculty room, or lavatory can give the educator a wealth of knowledge pertaining to the operation of the school.

Many ostentatious schools are sterile places of learning while some dollar-deprived institutions are places where true learning is taking place. Thus it could be concluded that other facets besides school structure, curriculum, and size of classes share an integral part in obtaining a condition for learning.

¹James B. Conant, The American High School Today (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1959).

²Edgar Z. Friedenberg, The Dignity of Youth and Other Atavisms (Boston: Beacon Press, 1965).

³Ibid., pp. 79-95.

George C. Homans¹ stated that there was a basic element necessary in social behavior which he referred to as interaction. He defined interaction as being some unit of activity which stimulates the activity of another. What exactly is this spark which creates an interaction?

A considerable amount of interaction occurs within the school. This student interaction takes place between student and student, student and teacher, and, hopefully, between student and administrator.

Unfortunately, there is little positive interaction between student and administrator. The student too frequently sees the principal as a punishment figure using his coercive powers in order to obtain compliance. This limited student-administrator interaction is evidenced in a majority of schools with a major effect upon student morale.

John D. McAulay², in a survey made of 500 elementary students within ten schools, found that twenty percent had never spoken to their principal. Sixty percent of the student could not clearly identify the principal's role within the school other than as a disciplinarian.

This lack of communication between student and administrator is even greater in secondary schools where

¹George C. Homans, The Human Group (New York: Harcourt Brace and World, 1950) p. 36.

²John D. McAulay, "Principal-What Do Your Children Think of You?" The National Elementary Principal, XLVII (January, 1968), 58-60.

the daily administrative chores involving staff and community are more demanding. A recent report by a principal of a senior high school of approximately 1,500 students indicated that during a forty-day school period he averaged only eleven contacts with students per day while having an average of thirty-seven personal contacts with staff members and other individuals.¹

Lazarsfeld² stated that there were four major tasks faced by all administrators. These administrative tasks were:

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

¹Percy M. Pentecost, "The Changing Secondary Principalship: A Case Study," The Journal of Secondary Education, XXVI (February, 1971), 165-167.

²Paul F. Lazarsfeld, "The Social Sciences and Administration: A Rationale," in The Social Science and Education Administration, ed. by Lorne Downey and Frederick Enns (Edmonton: University of Alberta, 1963).

4. The administrator must try to build into his organization provisions for innovation, for change, and for development. In a changing world, people must adapt to changing conditions.

It is unfortunate that the majority of administrators limit the humanitarian aspect of their job to the staff, disregarding the morale needs of the students.

A recent publication of the National Association of Secondary School Principals² listed twenty self-rating questions for teachers compiled from information obtained from a "Youthpoll". Many of these questions indicated a strong student need for interaction and, although primarily directed towards the teacher, were quite appropriate for the administrator. Some of the questions were:

1. Do I really care and let my students know?
2. Do I really listen to my students and hear what they say?
3. Am I there when my students need me—after class, after school, at home by the telephone?
4. Do students bring their personal problems to me?
5. Am I there to make each student feel important, rather than just to make myself feel powerful?

¹Ibid., pp. 3-4.

²Gordon A. Sabine, How Students Rate Their Schools and Teachers (Washington, D.C.: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1971).

6. Can I tell when a student is "up tight" and respond to his feelings?
7. Is there an orderly climate for learning?
8. Do I emphasize learning more than discipline?
9. Do I work my students and myself hard enough so we both end the year with a sense of accomplishment rather than a feeling of relief?
10. Can I admit my own mistakes openly? Can we still be friends if one of my students disagrees with me and proves me wrong?¹

The purpose of this thesis was to show the need for a good relationship between students and administrators in order to create an atmosphere conducive to learning. The study also attempted to demonstrate that this viable link between student and principal was necessary even in schools of different cultures.

¹Ibid., pp. 75-76.

CHAPTER II

THE CHANGING ADMINISTRATIVE ROLE

In recent years the role of the student has changed drastically. Students, prior to the present decade, saw themselves as being responsible for their desire for individualism in order to be a member of the conforming educational system. Failure to adjust to the school routine led to voluntary or involuntary school dismissal. The "dropout" became a major educational concern.

The last few years have seen a new element of educational philosophy. Educational leaders, strengthened by unrest within the college scene, have demanded educational change within the secondary school. For the first time, demands are being made for major changes from within. Now the student desires to be heard and to have his individualism recognized. Quelling student unrest has become another administrative task.

In early 1969, the National Association of Secondary School Principals, reporting on its study of more than 1,000 secondary schools, found that fifty-nine percent of the junior high schools had experienced some form of recent

"protest."¹ A later study covering a period from November, 1968 until May 25, 1969, showed that the total number of high school protests had increased significantly, with over 2,000 protests within the United States, of which 139 were considered "serious episodes."² A Syracuse survey conducted by Stephen K. Bailey showed that by June, 1970, eighty five percent of schools surveyed had experienced some type of school disruption either by staff, students, or outside groups.³

Thus the school atmosphere for learning has deteriorated significantly. The school is no longer free of disruption. The administrator's role is now one of insuring that the maximum amount of learning takes place, for as Bailey stated:

It will come as no surprise to any high school principal when we report that he is the proverbial man-in-the-middle. He is responsible for the daily success of a volatile institution, while above and around him are a welter of pressures rarely in concert. Today's principal knows that the old-style authoritarian, sitting back in his office making judgments, issuing ukases, and disciplining both student and staff is obsolete. Where such persons are still in office, and we saw two or three, the results are simply disastrous.

¹Stephen K. Bailey, Disruption in Urban Public Secondary Schools (Washington, D.C.: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1970) p. 7.

²Ibid.

³Ibid., pp. 8-9.

The striking characteristic of the life-style of a good principal in recent years is the staggering amount of time that he must now spend personally relating to enormous numbers of people and constituencies. No longer will the written memo or the notice on the bulletin board suffice. One principal, obviously competent and obviously very tired, put it succinctly,

'I have an endless number of face-to-face, one-to-one relationships. They never stop. And I want to be warm, sincere, and sharp for every one of them. There are only 24 hours in a day, and I am really pooped. Can't you get me a grant to go off and study something somewhere?'

Thus the role of the administrator is now one of a diplomat. A successful administrator is one that can keep student unrest from reaching a crisis level. This involves constant communication between student and administrator. The administrator must be seen as an individual eager to fulfill both student needs for individualism and community educational goals. The task is not an easy one.

¹Ibid.

CHAPTER III

THE PRINCIPAL'S ROLE IN PRODUCING AN OPEN CLIMATE

Andrew W. Halpin introduced his discussion on organization climate with the succinct statement that "anyone who visits more than a few schools notes quickly how schools differ from each other in their 'feel'."¹ This "feel" is quite evident upon observing the daily operation of a school. The school, being an educational organization, relies upon the interaction of its members, namely students, teachers, and principal. This interaction can exist on a continuum extending from a laissez-faire attitude to one of a hierarchical dictatorship.

Etzioni,² in his description of organizational structure, defined organizations as being either coercive, remunerative, or normative. He defined a coercive organization as resting upon:

. . . the application or the threat of application, of physical sanctions such as infliction of pain, deformity or death; generation of frustration through restriction of movement; or controlling

¹Andrew W. Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration (New York: Macmillan, 1966), p. 131.

²Amitai Etzioni, A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations (New York: Free Press, 1965).

through force the satisfaction of needs such as those for food, sex, comfort, and the like.¹

Surely, coerciveness, which is characteristic of a prison, is not the ideal approach for effective learning. A school in which force or the threat of force is used in order to obtain organizational compliance is archaic, illicit, and a place where little learning takes place.

A remunerative organization is one in which the organization has "control over material resources and rewards through allocation of salaries and wages, commissions and contributions, 'fringe benefits', services and commodities."² Too frequently, schools rely on remunerative powers in order to obtain student compliance. These institutions stress higher salary upon completion of a successful high school career as justification for student compliance to school demands. This shallow approach leads to student apathy.

The third type of organizational structure is normative. Normative organizations are those in which:

. . . power rests on the allocation and manipulation of symbolic rewards and deprivations through employment of leaders, manipulation of mass media, allocation of esteem and prestige

¹Ibid., p. 5.

²Ibid., pp. 5-6.

symbols, administration of ritual, and influence over the distribution of "acceptance" and "positive response."¹

Although schools use coercive, remunerative, and normative powers in their daily operation, a greater dependence upon the normative approach is most advantageous in obtaining an atmosphere which permits the greatest degree of possible learning. The student's inherent desire to learn could be used by the school in a positive manipulative manner in order to obtain organizational compliance.

Saunders, Phillips, and Johnson stated that for learning to take place there must be:

1. Involvement of the learner in the learning practice.
2. Socially desirable purposes and goals of learning set by the learner.
3. Reference to the learner's past experiences, attitudes, and values which have a bearing on the present learning situation.
4. Responsibility accepted by the learner for his own learning.
5. A threat-free atmosphere.²

This "threat-free atmosphere" was suggestive of Etzioni's normative organization.³ Only this atmosphere

¹Ibid.

²Robert L. Saunders, Roy C. Phillips, and Harold T. Johnson, A Theory of Educational Leadership (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1966) pp. 56-73.

³Etzioni, Complex Organizations, pp. 5-6.

will be conducive to student "acceptance" and "positive response."¹

The actual school atmosphere depends greatly upon the administrator and his role; for as Lonsdale stated in his discussion of role theory:

Organizations are social systems made up of people who occupy various "positions" in vertical (hierarchical) and horizontal relationship to each other. The way people behave in these positions depends partly on how they think they are expected to behave and how others expect them to behave. These expectations are called roles. The behavior of people in these social roles is also affected by their personalities.²

Thus, the principal, being in a prime hierarchical position, greatly influences the existing school atmosphere. The administrative role is not an easy one, since the administrator is affected by involvements with students, staff, superintendent, school board, and community. He is torn by his desire to satisfy the wishes of his subordinates and yet to strive for organizational goals. He must develop a functional organizational homeostasis. The administrator's ability to produce a new homeostasis determines his effectiveness and the climate of the school.

Schools range in a continuum from a closed climate

¹Ibid., p. 5.

²Richard C. Lonsdale, "Maintaining the Organization in Dynamic Equilibrium," Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, Sixty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press, 1964), pp. 149-50.

to an open climate. A closed climate is where the group members:

. . . obtain little satisfaction in respect to task-achievement or social needs. In short, the principal is ineffective in directing the activities of the teachers; at the same time, he is not inclined to look out for their personal welfare.¹

The antithesis to a closed climate on the continuum, is an open climate, which is defined as being:

. . . a situation in which the members enjoy extremely high Esprit.... The teachers obtain considerable job satisfaction and are sufficiently motivated to overcome difficulties and frustrations. They possess the incentive to work things out and to keep the organization "moving." Furthermore, the teachers are proud to be associated with their school.²

Since a school brings together individuals of diverse drives, aspirations, socio-economic standards, and needs, there cannot exist a school situation ideally suitable for all.

Perkinson³ conjectured that American society has relied upon our schools to solve various social, political, and economic problems, even though its role is not that of a panacea for societal wrongs. Whether or not this is true matters little since the prime societal role of a

¹Halpin, Theory and Research, p. 180.

²Ibid., pp. 174-175.

³Henry J. Perkinson, The Imperfect Panacea: American Faith in Education, 1865-1965 (New York: Random House, 1968).

school is learning. Unfortunately, many schools do not meet student needs because of inept administrators following misdirected organizational goals.

One major factor in determining the school's climate is how students perceive the administrator. Does the principal "come across" to students as one eager to develop organizational policy that meets their needs, even though this may produce change--or, as Friedenberg stated:

They (the students) know, for example, that the principal will generally uphold the teacher in any conflict with a student regardless of the merits of the case.¹

A charismatic aura engendered by a skillful principal can be a decisive factor in producing an open climate. Halpin² referred to this genuine charismatic aura as "authenticity". Thus, the greater the authenticity of the principal, the greater should be the open climate of the school.

¹Edgar Z. Friedenberg, The Modern High School: A Profile in the Dignity of Youth and Other Atavisms (Boston: Beacon Press, 1965), p. 93.

²Halpin, Theory and Research, p. 192.

CHAPTER IV

THE PROCEDURE USED IN THE STUDY

The study involved the relationship between the school's climate and the student's perception of the authenticity of the principal. A school's climate could be effectively determined by using the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) developed by Don B. Croft and Andrew W. Halpin.¹ This staff questionnaire consisted of sixty-four questions and could be completed within thirty minutes.²

Croft and Halpin were able to determine eight distinct areas involved in determining the climate of a school. The first four subtests or areas covered the Teacher Behavior Dimension and indicated how teachers of the school interacted with other teachers and the principal. These four subtests were: Disengagement, Hindrance, Esprit, and Intimacy.³

Disengagement indicated a teacher's tendency to be "not with it." It evaluated whether the staff member was

¹Ibid., pp. 131-219.

²Ibid., p. 133.

³Ibid., p. 133-34.

"going through the motions" of being part of the organization but was having little actual involvement. This dimension focused upon the teacher's behavior in a task-oriented situation.¹

Hindrance referred to a teacher's perception that the principal burdened her with "busywork" which hindered rather than facilitated her work. These chores could be burdensome routine duties, committee demands, or clerical work beyond the point that the teacher considered as necessary.²

Esprit referred to morale. This subtest indicated whether teachers felt their social needs were being satisfied and if they were enjoying a sense of accomplishment.³

The fourth area covered in the Teacher's Behavior Dimension referred to Intimacy. The subtest evaluated the teachers' enjoyment of friendly social relations with each other.⁴

The Principal's Behavior Dimension constituted the other dimension explored by using the Organization Climate Description Questionnaire. The four subtests comprising

¹Ibid., p. 150.

²Ibid., p. 61.

³Ibid.

⁴Ibid.

the Principal's Behavior Dimension were: Aloofness, Production Emphasis, Thrust, and Consideration.¹

Aloofness indicated how formal and impersonal the principal was in his association with the staff members.² Production Emphasis referred to the principal's supervision of his staff. This area also indicated if the principal was sensitive to feedback from the staff.³ The Thrust referred to the principal's attempt in trying to "move the organization" through teacher motivation, setting his behavior as a favorable example for the teachers. The final subtest, Consideration, referred to the principal's behavior characterized by an inclination to treat teachers "humanely."⁴ Using these eight subtests, Croft and Halpin were able to divide school atmospheres into six distinct climates: Open, Autonomous, Controlled, Familiar, Paternal and Closed.⁵

An Open Climate was the most positive of climates and teachers were characterized with little bickering and griping (low Disengagement), no overburdening paper work

¹Ibid.

²Ibid., p. 61.

³Ibid.

⁴Ibid.

⁵Ibid.

(low Hindrance), friendly relations (high Intimacy), and considerable job satisfaction (high Esprit). The principal was characterized as being a hard worker (high Thrust), concerned about his teachers and their problems (high Consideration), having policies which were not inflexible or impersonal (low Aloofness), and did not have to emphasize production since the teachers desired to do well (low Production Emphasis).¹ This climate was an ideal school situation in which the principal was in full control of the situation and was giving adequate staff leadership. The teachers in this climate worked well together (high Intimacy) and achieved their organizational goals effectively (low Disengagement). There was little paper work and other burdensome responsibilities since the principal had set up procedures and regulations to facilitate the teachers' task (low Hindrance). The morale of the teachers was high (high Esprit) since they enjoyed working at the school. The principal ran the school in an impersonal, businesslike manner and remained aloof from the teachers (high Aloofness). He was satisfied that his directives were sufficient to obtain teacher compliance and, therefore, did little supervision of his teachers work (low Production Emphasis). The principal tried to satisfy the social needs of his staff if it did not disrupt the school

¹Ibid., p. 174-75.

situation (average Consideration). He attempted to set the teachers' pace by working hard himself.¹

The Controlled Climate was task-orientated. The staff was so engaged in their work that they had little time for close faculty relationship. The teachers were characterized by a desire to get the principal-directed job done (low Disengagement). Their work was hindered by considerable paper work (high Hindrance), which got in the way of the teachers' task accomplishment. There was little time for friendly social relations with other staff members (low Intimacy). Their success in task accomplishment gave them a slightly higher than average morale (approximately average Esprit). The principal's behavior was that of one who was in control and expected staff compliance. He insisted all be done "his" way (high Production Emphasis) through directives rather than personal contact (high Aloofness). The administrator in this climate cared little whether his directives satisfied his staff's social needs (low Consideration) and set an example for hard work but delegated few responsibilities to staff members (average Thrust).²

¹Ibid., pp. 175-76.

²Ibid., pp. 177-78.

The Familiar Climate was characterized by the conspicuously friendly manner of both the principal and the teachers. The principal was a friend of his teachers but gave little leadership for task accomplishment. The teachers, since they were not directed by the principal, accomplished few organizational tasks (high Disengagement) and had little paper work (low Hindrance). The teachers were "closely-knit" (high Intimacy). However, because of limited task accomplishment, there was only average morale (average Esprit). The principal was characterized by his staff as being "a good guy" (high Consideration). The principal's closeness to his staff (low Aloofness), even at the expense of task accomplishments (low Production Emphasis), gave him high teacher motivation (high Thrust).¹

The Paternal Climate indicated a partially closed climate. A school having this climate was characterized as being a "sick school" in which not only did the teachers get along poorly with the principal, but also were divided into factions. The teachers had little interest in the success of the school (high Disengagement). They had little paperwork (low Hindrance), since the principal was aware that to get things done, it had to be done by him. Teachers had little

¹Ibid., pp. 179-80.

comradeship (low Intimacy) which helped produce poor morale (low Esprit). In this climate, the principal was everywhere, as he tried to fill in for the poorly functioning staff (low Aloofness). The principal stressed to his staff what should be done (high Production Emphasis), since little was accomplished. He manipulated his control over personal staff favors as a tool to obtain task accomplishment, or to satisfy his own social needs (high Consideration). He was able to motivate his staff very little (average Thrust), because of his nongenuine behavior.¹

The Closed Climate was the most negative of the climates. This climate marked a situation in which group members obtained little satisfaction with any aspect of being part of the school. The staff saw the principal as being ineffective and not genuine. Teachers remained at the school because of possible loss of salary, seniority, or job security. The teachers worked poorly together, producing minimal group achievement (high Disengagement). The common feeling that the school was bad produced average social relations among staff members (average Intimacy) with low teacher morale (low Esprit). The principal remained aloof (high Aloofness), writing numerous directives to the teachers (high Production Emphasis). Because of his impersonality, he was depicted as being inconsiderate (low

¹Ibid., pp. 180-81.

Consideration), especially since his actions did not motivate the teachers (low Thrust).¹

The sixty-four questions comprising the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (Appendix I, Part 1) was so conceived as to determine each of the eight subtest and, thus determine the school's climate (Appendix I, Parts 2 & 3).

The study also involved a questionnaire developed by this investigator based upon a recent writing dealing with student expectations of the principal's role.² The questionnaire consisted of thirty questions to be answered by students (Appendix II).

The questions were used to determine the student perceptive evaluation of the principal's behavior. The same four subtests (Aloofness, Production Emphasis, Thrust, and Consideration) which were used to evaluate the Principal's Behavior Dimension in the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire were also used in this study for evaluating the students' expectation of the principal's role. Thus, the students' responses were used to evaluate:

1. Aloofness-refers to the principal's behavior which is formal and impersonal to the students. He avoids contact with the student body.

¹Ibid.

²Monroe E. Pederson, "Pupil Expectations of the High School Principal" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Southern California, 1970).

2. Production Emphasis-refers to the principal's behavior which is characterized by close supervision of the student body. He, alone directs and is insensitive to feedback from the student body.
3. Thrust-refers to the principal's attempt to motivate student body towards organizational goals.
4. Consideration-refers to a principal's behavior which is perceived by the students as being warm, natural, and human.

The questions comprising the student's questionnaire were used to evaluate the four subtests which compose the Principal's Dimension (Appendix II, Part 2).

Thus, by comparing the results of the two questionnaires, the possible relation between the climate of the school and student perception of the principal could be determined. The procedure used was to request the teachers of the ten schools involved in the study to complete the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire. Tenth grade students (in high schools involved in the study) and eighth grade students (in junior high schools in the United States and the elementary school in Israel) were asked to complete the student questionnaire.

Another interesting facet of the study was a comparison of school climate of schools of the United States and Israel. In this manner the possible relationship between school climate and student perception of the principal

could be tested in two different countries.

The Israeli study involved translating both questionnaires into Hebrew (Appendixes III & IV). The Hebrew translations were done with great care, so as to insure comparable meaning to each statement in the corresponding questionnaire in English.

CHAPTER V

THE AMERICAN AND ISRAELI STUDY

The study was done in five American secondary schools in New York State and Vermont and five schools in Israel. The American part of the study was conducted from February to June of 1971, whereas the Israeli part of the study was done from September through November of 1971.

The American Study

School A

School A was an old junior-senior high school located in central Vermont. The school serviced the town and the surrounding farmland. Townspeople boasted of the low taxes in the area as compared to the small city just ten miles away. How proud were the townspeople when the outside of the school was painted after twenty-two years of deterioration! The wooden frame of the building now had an exterior coat of metallic gray paint. The principal proudly had a hand painted sign affixed to the outside of the building indicating the name of the school.

The school had four different principals within the past five years. Each principal brought a new approach to

the school which changed with the arrival of a new principal. The previous year's principal was extremely liberal, allowing students to leave the meager school grounds during unassigned periods and congregate in the two small food stores. Some students would race their automobiles up and down Main Street. The townspeople were upset over the "behavior at the school," especially since the one elderly policeman could not handle the situation. Local merchants became upset when items were stolen from their stores. Several informal discussions were held pertaining to the possible closing of this town's only school. Many individuals protested to the local school board, which lead to the dismissal of the principal.

Mr. H. became the next principal. Young and more forceful than the previous principal, he was able to set up school policies which he hoped would set student behavior guidelines. These guidelines involved removing some student liberties which had created havoc within the town. The students objected to the removal of the liberties that they had enjoyed the previous year. Finally, on October 20, 1970, twenty-one students conducted a "sit-down" on the school grounds. They demanded the return of their rights of the previous year (free study halls, longer lunch periods and no mandatory final examinations). The principal quietly and efficiently suspended the twenty-one students for five days pending a parental conference. The

school of 319 students became relatively quiet. The failure of the student body to support the strike and the town's approval of the principal behavior created "temporary peace" at the school.

School B

Just twelve miles southwest of School A was School B. Junior-senior high school B was located in the center of a prosperous large town and contained 385 students. Townspeople were proud of their red brick school building and had even voted approval for the construction of an annex to service the vocational needs of the school.

Principal P. had been principal of his school for six years. Previous to being the principal, he had been a veteran teacher at the school. Principal P. had initiated a number of semester courses which students voluntarily could take. These semester electives included: The Negro, Problems of Democracy, and Creative Writing. One veteran teacher acted as a part-time dean, which freed the principal of some of the student disciplinary problems. Although the school had a guidance counselor, the principal individually prepared each student's course of study. This year, a reading teacher had been hired to raise the reading level of the students.

School C

North of School B, located within a Vermont town, was

School C. The predominately wealthy townspeople had shown support each year for their school by voting overwhelmingly for higher school taxes until the town now had the highest taxes in the surrounding area. One major building industry dominated the town. A majority of townspeople worked in the construction plant located in town. This family-owned industry had helped to financially support the library and schools. Junior-senior high school C had been built thirty years ago by the factory, at reduced cost, using the finest of building material available.

Many townspeople had shown concern about the large number of "outsiders" who were moving into town from the nearby city. This recent influx of new home building developments created a need for additional community services (schools, roads, and sewage) which helped increase town taxes. Most of all, townspeople seemed concerned with the effects the influx of "strangers" would have on maintaining the quaintness of the town.

School C, with 515 students, was administered by a veteran principal, assisted by a full-time assistant principal, who had held this post for the past three years.

The school was proud of its sports activities, especially the basketball team achievements, which included several state championships within the past few years. This centered school was proud of the number of its graduates accepted by the University of Vermont.

School D

Five miles outside of suburban New York City was School D. School D was an older, brick junior high school which, until 1953, was the community's high school. The area that School D serviced was a predominately wealthy Jewish area consisting of city factory owners who were part of the recent exodus of middle-and high-income individuals from New York City. The other section serviced by School D consisted of the non-Jewish veteran townspeople, who lived in the poor homes located in the center of town. Townspeople complained of the high taxes and the increase in the Negro population in a bordering town which "threatened" the status of the community. So far, outside of a number of Negro servants, the community held to the "color line" and was "white".

The school system was proud that ninety-four percent of its high school graduates went on to college. Under the leadership of veteran Principal W the school now had a tape instructional program, investigatory science courses, programmed learning, and modular scheduling.

The faculty of thirty-two had faced salary problems within the past few years. Teachers' salaries within the past five years had toppled from the top tenth percentile. The local school board contended that they were "holding the line on school taxes." Last year, for the first time

in the town's history, teachers went on a one-day strike protesting their salary problems.

The school did not stress sports, but there was an enjoyable rivalry with the other junior high school located in the town. The student body of 745 seemed more interested in grades than in sports or student freedom.

The administrative staff consisted of a principal and two administrative assistants. The principal, a twenty-eight year veteran of the school system, handled all discipline problems within the school.

School E

School E, located in the lower Queens of New York City, was a large whitish-gray building. This junior high school had a student body of slightly over a thousand students, consisting of about ten percent Puerto Rican, twenty-five percent Negro, and sixty-five percent Caucasian.

The administrative staff consisted of a principal and two assistant principals. Assisting of administrative staff were a few teachers, who, having a lighter teaching assignment, were given the additional responsibility of guidance. Also assisting the administrative staff were the guidance counselors, who through their guidance role were able to handle misbehaving students. The guidance counselors frequently requested parental conferences to help them determine causes for student misbehavior. If necessary,

the student's case went to one of the two assistant principals. The assistant principals frequently reacted with a short-term student suspension. The principal saw only those cases which involved possible expulsion from school.

There was little staff feedback on the outcome of student problems. The concerned staff member could read the administrative report found within the student's record.

Members of the staff contended that the school which serviced a respectable area of Queens was relatively quiet and under control.

The Israeli Study

Part I: Israeli Secondary Education

The Israel study was conducted from September to November of 1971. Secondary schools in Israel were found to be different in their educational approach and administrative structure from their counterpart in the United States. All schools, primary and secondary, were regulated by the Ministry of Education. Thus, the local community had little control over the school's curriculum or its daily operation. All teachers and administrators throughout Israel earned similar salaries, according to the established governmental salary scale. Variance in salary was according to seniority and additional educational degrees.

During 1968 several proposals were made by the Ministry of Education which would eventually greatly change Israeli secondary education and would lead it towards its goal of free secondary education. The most significant proposal was the gradual revision of school from eight years primary schooling and four years secondary schooling to six years primary, three years junior secondary, and three years senior secondary school.¹ At the time of the Israeli study, few schools had yet complied with this long-range goal.

Another major recent educational revision was that beginning with the academic year 1969-70 an additional year of schooling was made mandatory. Thus all students were required to attend school until they completed ninth grade or reached their sixteenth birthday.² This insured that all Israelis would complete junior high school when the "6-3-3" school program became effective.

At the time of the study there were basically three types of secondary schools. The most common type was the academic high school which was for those individuals desiring to continue on to a postgraduate school. There were 58,114 students, or 54.3 percent of the total second-

¹David Goldberg, ed., Inside High: A Handbook for High School Students in Israel (New York: Association of Americans and Canadians for Aliyah, 1971), p. 2.

²Misha Louvish, ed., Facts About Israel (Jerusalem: The Information and Publications Division of the State of Israel, 1970), p. 152.

dary school enrollment attending 188 academic secondary schools at the time of this study.¹ A second type of secondary school was the vocational high school which was for those individuals desiring special skill training. The program of learning varied from one to four years in duration depending upon the difficulty of the skill involved. At the time of the study there were 41,044 students, or 38.3 percent of the total secondary school enrollment attending 216 vocational high schools.² The least common type of secondary school was the agriculture high school which was for those individuals desiring courses in farming. During the time of the study, there were 7,865 students, or 7.4 percent of the total secondary school enrollment attending 30 agriculture high schools.³ The industrial trend of the country had diminished the agriculture high school enrollment's in recent years. Agricultural schools, in general, offered courses ranging from two years to that of four years. Usually agriculture high school students spent part of the school day working on the school farm where the practical aspect of their learning took place.

¹Ibid.

²Ibid.

³Ibid., p. 154.

High schools were found to be further divided into secular and religious schools. Both school types offered similar programs; however, religious schools required additional studies in Bible and religious law or Talmud.

Many high schools have been built through private organizational contributions. These schools were not as carefully regulated by the Ministry of Education as those which were governmentally constructed. The Israeli government offered limited financial support to those families that had difficulty paying the relatively high 1,000 Israeli pounds school year tuition.¹ This financial assistance depended upon the finances of the family as well as the family size. Private high schools frequently offered partial or full academic scholarships to needy students.

A student, upon completion of the twelfth grade, received a high school diploma. However, the diploma alone had little value in obtaining acceptance into a college or for securing a civil service position. Graduating students were expected to take a battery of comprehensive examinations covering their entire high school studies. This test battery, commonly called the "Bagrut" (literally, "matriculation"), was prepared and supervised

¹Goldberg, Inside High, p. 7.

by the Ministry of Education.¹ Successful "Bagrut" scores insured the graduate of receiving a governmental graduation diploma or "Bagrut Certificate." This certificate permitted him to apply for entrance into an Israeli university or obtain a better civil service position.

All government controlled high schools and many private schools followed the government's approved educational curriculum and were considered as "recognized." These "recognized" schools offered school grades which were averaged in with the "Bagrut" scores for determining whether a student qualified for a "Bagrut Certificate."² Graduating students from "unrecognized" schools relied solely upon their scores on the "Bagrut" examinations for purposes of obtaining a "Bagrut Certificate."

At the time of the study, the Israeli school year consisted of a minimum of 212 school days, starting on September 1 and ending on June 20.³ The high school year was divided into trimesters, which were only marking periods. There was no midyear promotion, admission, or graduation.

At the beginning of the tenth, or more commonly within the eleventh, the students were divided into classes which followed different majors. The majors, called

¹Ibid., p. 8.

²Ibid.

³Ibid., p. 4.

"magamots" (literally, "trends"), were usually humanities, physical sciences, biology, social studies, and oriental (middle eastern) studies. Each school offered three or, at most, four majors. The final decision on a student's major was determined by the school, based upon the student's aptitude and interest. Generally, consultation was held with the student and his parents prior to determination of his "magamot." Once the choice was made, the course of studies was fixed. There were no elective courses offered within the framework of the "magamot."

Since students remained within fixed classes during their school career, the class became a social unit. One of the major subject teachers of the class was assigned the additional role of advisor. This teacher, called a "melanech" (literally, "educator"), served as a combined homeroom teacher and grade advisor. The "melanech" regularly met one period a week with his class during the week, usually the last period on Friday. This unstructured class meeting could be devoted to a school problem, a class project, or just a discussion period. There were no daily homeroom periods.

The work load in an Israeli secondary school was found to be heavier than that within the average American high school, since students carry more subjects which meet fewer times per week. For example, the lesson load of a

student in the tenth grade of a secular secondary school might be as follows:

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Lessons Per Week</u> ¹
Bible.....	3
Hebrew (including Literature Composition, Grammer)....	5
Talmud.....	2
English.....	5
French.....	3
Mathematics.....	4
History.....	3
Civics or Geography.....	2
Science.....	5
Physical Education.....	2
Gadna (pre-military training)...	1
Homerom.....	1

Most secondary schools required a blue school uniform. The rationale for the prevalent uniform was the desire to equalize school dress for students of different economic backgrounds. Classes consisted of thirty-to-forty students, and teachers normally used a lecture approach.

The teacher lectured on a small platform, which was normally placed in front of a large black chalk board. Teacher evaluation of the student's ability was determined by two or three period-long essay examinations based upon lecture work and homework. Some teachers included handed-in assignments as part of the student's grade.

Israeli students attended school six days a week with Saturday as the "day of rest." Friday's schedule was usually slightly lighter. The school day started at eight in the morning, although eleventh and twelfth grade students

¹The length of a lesson was fifty minutes.

frequently started school at seven, one or two days a week, because of their heavier work load. School generally ended at one-thirty. The school day was normally divided into six class periods with no free, study, or lunch periods.

Between the second and third, or the third and fourth, periods, there was usually a snack break in which food was eaten in the classroom. There was usually an additional fifteen-minute recess between two morning classes.

Outside of rooms involving specialized equipment (science, gymnastics, homemaking, or vocational skills), students normally stayed in the same room during the day. The various teachers moved from room to room according to their teaching schedules.

The role of the principal (commonly referred to as the head teacher or headmaster) was found to be one of unquestionable authority for both students and teachers. Frequently the principal, in smaller schools, also taught one or more classes. The availability of the principal, in regards to student communication, varied from school to school depending upon the size, type, and location of the school. The assistant principal's role was one of a disciplinarian. He administered punishment for student infringements of school rules. Punishment, depending upon

the seriousness and frequency of the infringement, could involve after or before school detention, a parental letter, suspension, parental conference, or expulsion.

The teacher's responsibility covered all aspects of classroom procedure except for misbehaving children. Frequently the teacher's role was one of a "learned one among his disciples", and a misbehaving child was considered disturbing to both teacher and students. A misbehaving student was sent to the administration where frequently a secretary wrote his name down on a list. A conference with an assistant principal could also be in store for the misbehaving student, depending upon frequency of misbehaving, availability of an assistant principal, and individual school policy. A student visitation with the assistant principal frequently resulted in a before-or after-school detention in the assistant principal's office. A student's name on the misbehaving lists gave him a point. Normally, after the child had been sent to the office for misbehaving three times (had received three points), his parents were requested to visit the school.

A parental visitation to the school was frequently with the principal, who informed the parents that any future misbehavior by their child would lead to expulsion from school. Since attending high school was not mandatory, the principal frequently followed through with his expulsion threat in the event of future misbehavior. The

principal's "request" for a parental conference was considered more of a demand. The principal could also suspend the student from school pending the parental visitation.

Expulsion from school was generally considered as bringing shame upon the Israeli family, since school attendance was voluntary and often there was family deprivation in order to obtain finances for school tuition. Expulsion would force the child to either go to work in some unskilled position or join the Israeli Defense Force.

Student freedom within the high school was rather limited. A teacher's punitive action of sending the child to the office was considered as student guilt, especially since the student had no right to defend himself or to explain his action during the incident.

Student government existed in most schools, but was normally involved with preparing for school functions (dances, parties, assemblies) and was not involved with championing student rights.¹

¹The passive role of student government showed signs of changing. A large urban high school that bordered Tel Aviv had an effective student boycott of school for one day in 1970, causing the principal to rescind his order that blue jeans could not be worn by boys as part of the school uniform, which was permitted in many other high schools.

Part II: The Israeli Schools

School F

School F was located approximately five miles from Tel Aviv. This vocational school consisted of three small but well constructed buildings. At the time of the study the coeducational enrollment at the school was 626 students. Boys were trained as carpenters, welders, and mechanics. The girls' vocational training consisted of secretarial studies or homemaking. One of the three buildings was used jointly for the academic required courses. The additional vocational training was taught within the other two buildings, one housing the girls' vocational courses and the other containing the boys' workshops.

The administrative staff consisted of a principal and two assistant principals. Many teachers complained about the ineptness of the administrators in handling discipline problems. They were afraid to "demand" more effective discipline control because of possible "labeling as troublemakers" by the administration. This school was financially sponsored by an American philanthropic organization and was one of several which the organization supported.

School G

School G was a well landscaped agricultural high school near the disputed border with Egypt. The school

was spread over a large area of land where students attended morning classes in modern classrooms; in the afternoon most students were involved in various aspects of farming, such as, daily care of cows and hens, growing of oranges and cotton, and the maintenance of numerous beehives. Money received from the sale of produce went towards the school's maintenance.

School G was financially supported by an American organization and was a frequent visiting spot for members of the organization when touring Israel. The massive grounds were well watered and maintained, so as to give the school an aura of being an excellent school for the briefly visiting tourist. However, several problems existed at the school which were hidden from the organizational members.

One problem was the common turnover of principals, who had difficulty working with the school's director. A second problem that existed was violent labor disputes between the director and teachers, which led to a regular turnover of teachers and a recent threat of a teachers' strike. Labor problems also existed between the nonprofessional staff and director.

The student enrollment had dwindled in recent years, causing the school to be less selective in determining its student body. The director was also exploring the possibility of adding a vocational training curriculum in order to increase the discouraging student enrollment. Because of

the school's remote location, nearly two-thirds of the student enrollment of 286 lived in dormitories located on the school grounds. The girls who attended this "unrecognized" school were also trained in farming techniques.

The school's principal also taught chemistry and biology classes at the school. The majority of student problems were handled by the principal. The more serious problems were handled by the director. The director's role seemed to be one of being in charge of all operations of the school, including ground maintenance supervision.

Teachers openly discussed the director's cheapness and cruelty in his "absolute power" role. Teacher requests were frequently sent directly to the director, bypassing the principal. The director's reply was normally in writing and placed in the teacher's mailbox.

School H

School H was located within a rapidly growing industrial southern city located on the fringes of the desert. The majority of the school buildings were built in the early 1960's and already showed outside deterioration caused by sand-blown winds. Unlike the previously described school, this school's smaller campus contained little grass. The frequent desert storms gave the grounds a sandy appearance. The majority of the 346 male students that attended this religious academic high school

("Yeshiva") came from poor families who could not afford to pay tuition. Outside of eleven students, all the students lived in dormitories, with four or five students to a small room.

School H was financially supported by a small Jewish Temple within the United States, and according to the school's director, funding was limited.

The school also owned additional undeveloped land in a nearby Arab community. This land was used for regularly planned field trips and bivouacs. The director used his own car as a shuttle service between the bivouac area and the school, since the school could not afford a bus.

The administrative staff of the school consisted of recent American immigrants. The director and principal shared the responsibilities of operating the school. The director felt that his major role was the daily maintenance of the school, whereas the principal's role was to administer the daily schooling. The director expressed pride that, unlike most schools in Israel, all teachers at the school had received a master's degree. A program had also been developed with a nearby school in which teachers were shared, guaranteeing a full-time or above salary for the teacher and securing adequate specialized teachers in this rather remote area of Israel.

During the time of the study, the administrators seemed to be rather cordial to the students, frequently greeting them by name. Unlike the other Israeli schools within this study, student uniforms were not required.

School I

School I was located in a modern city built near biblical Philistinian ruins, and was directly south of Tel Aviv. This small city, started in 1957, showed evidence of becoming a major Israeli city. Large apartment houses made up the major part of the city. Wealthy private homes were located within the city area that bordered the Mediterranean Sea.

School I was a large, coeducational, academic high school which serviced the city. This tall white school adjoined a separate religious academic school. School I, at the time of the study, had an enrollment of 824 students.

The school's administrative staff consisted of a principal, a male assistant principal, and a female assistant principal. Discipline problems were handled by the assistant principals, with male students being directed to the male assistant and female students being sent to the female assistant principal. The teachers expressed great concern over the ineptness of the administration in handling discipline problems, whereas the administrators felt that all was under control.

School J

School J was a gray, concrete-slabbed school consisting of grades one through eight. The city, located just four miles from Tel Aviv, was predominantly Arabic prior to 1948. With the establishment of the State of Israel in 1948, a large number of Arabs voluntarily fled to Jordan and Egypt. The city's Arab population had now been replaced by many Oriental Jews who easily adjusted to Arabic dwellings. Western Jews dwelled in new private homes and modern apartment houses on the outskirts of the city.

Eventually, both grades 7 and 8 would be moved to a planned junior high school. The upper grades at the time of the study had all female teachers except for a teacher of English. The seventh and eighth graders had privileges similar to the younger school members, except that they maintained a school farm consisting of a small strip of land.

The male principal of the school seemed to be friendly and appeared to have good rapport with the teachers. There was a female assistant principal assisting the principal of this school of 625 students. The teachers looked forward to the removal of the seventh and eighth graders to the proposed junior high school as a means of reducing misbehavior problems.

CHAPTER VI

THE RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The study lent itself to two distinct relationships. The primary evaluation was whether the hypothesis that the authenticity of the administrator as perceived by the students was associated with the openness and closedness of the organizational climate. This determination was made by comparing the school's climate which was obtained from the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire responses to the responses obtained from the Student's Principal Perception Questionnaire scores.

Halpin and Croft, in developing the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire, were able to compare the subtest scores of the seventy-one schools in their study by standardizing the raw scores. Thus, each subtest of a school was standardized according to the mean and standard deviation of the total sample for that subtest. The standardization procedure consisted of a standard-score system based upon a mean of fifty and a standard deviation of ten.¹ The results of the standardization led the authors into

¹Halpin, Theory and Research, p. 168.

developing numerical scores for determining the openness or closedness of a school's organizational climate (Appendix V).

Similarly, in order to make comparisons, the first step of this study was to convert the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire raw scores for each subtest of each of the ten schools into standardized scores by using a mean of fifty and a standard deviation of ten. The schools were then arranged on a continuum from most open to most closed by determining their similarity scores. The similarity scores were determined by computing the absolute difference between each subtest score in a school's profile and by determining which climate was closest to the school's eight subtest scores (Appendix VI).

The next step was to evaluate the results of the Student's Principal Perception Questionnaire scores. The raw scores of these questionnaires were similarly standardized using a mean of fifty and a standard deviation of ten. The standardized scores for each of the four subtests were then compared to the four subtests which were used to evaluate the Leader's Characteristics (Aloofness, Production Emphasis, Thrust, and Consideration) in the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire. The results were then arranged on a continuum from most open to most closed by means of similarity scores (Appendix VII).

The results indicated a close and direct relationship between the principal's role as perceived by the student

body and the school's organizational climate (Appendix VIII). The study indicated that the administrator's authentic behavior in regard to his students has a vital affect upon determining the school's climate and that this relationship held true for both the United States and Israeli schools.

Another significant finding of the study was the apparent closedness of the Israeli schools as compared to the United States schools. This observation indicated the need for an improved authentic principal role towards both students and teaching staff within Israeli schools. One major apparent deviation from this finding was in School G where the students rated the principal comparatively higher than the closed climate would suggest. The principal's role within this school which consisted of being both an administrator and a science teacher, seemed to indicate that the students' perception of his authenticity increased greatly because of his visibility and availability caused by his teaching role. This teaching role of the Israeli principal may be a means of improving the students' perception of the principal which can only be determined by future research into the ramifications of this additional administrative duty.

Although size of the school's student population may be a factor in determining students' perception of their principal's authenticity, this did not seem verified by the

results of the study. Similarly, size of administrative staff seemed to have no effect upon the students' perception of the administration. Naturally, it is quite logical that the greater the number of administrators, the greater their student visibility and the greater their authentic role. However, the study seemed to indicate that the major factor was the quality of the administrative role rather than the number of administrators.

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY

Any comparative study has definite limitations unless the total studied population is involved. A study of ten schools of two nations can only indicate trends. However, the study of trends can suggest a positive direction which can alter negative conditions.

The United States study was limited in that it covered schools along the northeastern section of the country. Any deduced generalities involving the total United States school population should be carefully made. However, with the cross-country student unrest existing within the United States, this study indicated a great need for the administrator to improve his association with his students. In this manner, his student's perception of his authenticity and the school's organizational climate will both improve.

Students seemed to desire a principal who besides being a disciplinarian was viable, visible, and sincere. The study indicated that United States students desired to be able to communicate openly with their principal. Students seemed to favor a principal who could settle student dissatisfactions by reasoning rather through pu-

nitive methods. On the other hand, the study seemed to indicate that students respected the administrator who could control (or at least regulate) student unrest and looked towards the administrative "police" role to quell student disruptions which prevented an atmosphere conducive to learning.

The direct relationship between the students' and teachers' perceptions of the administrator's role and the school's organizational climate suggested that the ability of the administrator to improve the school's climate may lie in his ability to be considered authentic by both students and teachers. It seems that this difficult "man-in-the-middle" administrative role requires administrators that have extensive psychological training. Also, the ability of an administrative candidate to relate warmly but effectively with students should be evaluated by local school boards in selecting school administrators.

The role of the administrator within the Israeli schools was one of a disciplinarian. It is natural for a military country, which is under threat of war, to stress the hierarchical organizational structure. Under these conditions, it is felt that students should learn for "learnings sake," and the principal's role is to prevent student disturbances which can reduce the effectiveness of the learning process. Unfortunately, as evidenced by the

preponderance of school climates that were perceived by both teachers and students as being more closed than open, the "seeds" of student unrest are visible. This closed climate atmosphere existing within Israeli schools suggested a vital need for change. One vital change is in the administrative role which must become more "humanistic." The principal, like his American counterpart, must be visible to his students. His authenticity, as perceived by teaching staff and student body, must improve.

The bureaucratic, remote structure of the Israeli Ministry of Education cannot cope with the varying needs of students, especially with the wave of new immigrants from various lands. This suggested the need for local control of schools so that communities can better meet their own needs.

In both Israel and the United States, the administrator faces serious challenges which require the development of considerable expertise. The job is difficult; the demands are great. But if the administrator comprehends that students are living, demanding, insecure individuals who need warmth and understanding as well as firmness, his rewards can be great.

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Appendix I

Part 1

THE ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE, FORM IV

1. Teachers' closest friends are other faculty members at this school.
2. The mannerisms of teachers at this school are annoying.
3. Teachers spend time after school with students who have individual problems.
4. Instructions for the operation of teaching aids are available.
5. Teachers invite other faculty members to visit them at home.
6. There is a minority group of teachers who always oppose the majority.
7. Extra books are available for classroom use.
8. Sufficient time is given to prepare administrative reports.
9. Teachers know the family background of other faculty members.
10. Teachers exert group pressure on nonconforming faculty members.
11. In faculty meetings, there is the feeling of "let's get things done."
12. Administrative paper work is burdensome at this school.
13. Teachers talk about their personal life to other faculty members.
14. Teachers seek special favors from the principal.
15. School supplies are readily available for use in classwork.
16. Student progress reports require too much work.
17. Teachers have fun socializing together during school time.
18. Teachers interrupt other faculty members who are talking in staff meetings.
19. Most of the teachers here accept the faults of their colleagues.

THE ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE DESCRIPTION
QUESTIONNAIRE, FORM IV-Continued

20. Teachers have too many committee requirements.
21. There is considerable laughter when teachers gather informally.
22. Teachers ask nonsensical questions in faculty meetings.
23. Custodial service is available when needed.
24. Routine duties interfere with the job of teaching.
25. Teachers prepare administrative reports by themselves.
26. Teachers ramble when they talk in faculty meetings.
27. Teachers at this school show much school spirit.
28. The principal goes out of his way to help teachers.
29. The principal helps teachers solve personal problems
30. Teachers at this school stay by themselves.
31. The teachers accomplish their work with great vim, vigor, and pleasure.
32. The principal sets an example by working hard himself.
33. The principal does personal favors for teachers.
34. Teachers eat lunch by themselves in their own classrooms.
35. The morale of the teachers is high.
36. The principal uses constructive criticism.
37. The principal stays after school to help teachers finish their work.
38. Teachers socialize together in small select groups.
39. The principal makes all class-scheduling decisions.
40. Teachers are contacted by the principal each day.
41. The principal is well prepared when he speaks at school functions.
42. The principal helps staff members settle minor differences.
43. The principal schedules the work for the teachers.
44. Teachers leave the grounds during the school day.
45. The principal criticizes a specific act rather than a staff member.
46. Teachers help select which courses will be taught.
47. The principal corrects teachers' mistakes.
48. The principal talks a great deal.
49. The principal explains his reasons for criticism to teachers.
50. The principal tries to get better salaries for teachers.
51. Extra duty for teachers is posted conspicuously.
52. The rules set by the principal are never questioned.
53. The principal looks out for the personal welfare of teachers.

THE ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE DESCRIPTION
QUESTIONNAIRE, FORM IV-Continued

54. School secretarial service is available for teachers' use.
 55. The principal runs the faculty meeting like a business conference.
 56. The principal is in the building before teachers arrive.
 57. Teachers work together preparing administrative reports.
 58. Faculty meetings are organized according to a tight agenda.
 59. Faculty meetings are mainly principal-report meetings.
 60. The principal tells teachers of new ideas he has run across.
 61. Teachers talk about leaving the school system.
 62. The principal checks the subject-matter ability of teachers.
 63. The principal is easy to understand.
 64. Teachers are informed of the results of a supervisor's visit.
-

Source: Andrew W. Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration (New York: Macmillan, 1966), Table 4.1, pp. 148-49.

Part 2

OCDQ, FORM IV-ITEMS THAT COMPOSE FOUR SUBTESTS:
TEACHERS' BEHAVIOR

- I. Disengagement
 1. The mannerisms of teachers at this school are annoying.^a
 2. There is a minority group of teachers who always oppose the majority.
 3. Teachers exert group pressure on nonconforming faculty members.
 4. Teachers seek special favors from the principal.
 5. Teachers interrupt other faculty members who are talking in staff meetings.
 6. Teachers ask nonsensical questions in faculty meetings.

OCDQ, FORM IV-ITEMS THAT COMPOSE FOUR SUBTEST:
TEACHERS' BEHAVIOR-Continued

7. Teachers ramble when they talk in faculty meetings.
8. Teachers at this school stay by themselves.
9. Teachers talk about leaving the school system.
10. Teachers socialize together in small select groups.

II. Hindrance

11. Routine duties interfere with the job of teaching.
12. Teachers have too many committee requirements.
13. Student progress reports require too much work.
14. Administrative paper work is burdensome at this school.
15. Sufficient time is given to prepare administrative reports.^b
16. Instructions for the operation of teaching aids are available.^b

III. Esprit

17. The morale of the teachers is high.
18. The teachers accomplish their work with great vim, vigor, and pleasure.
19. Teachers at this school show much school spirit.
20. Custodial service is available when needed.
21. Most of the teachers here accept the faults of their colleagues.
22. School supplies are readily available for use in classwork.
23. There is considerable laughter when teachers gather informally.
24. In faculty meetings, there is the feeling of "let's get things done."
25. Extra books are available for classroom use.
26. Teachers spend time after school with students who have individual problems.

IV. Intimacy

27. Teachers' closest friends are other faculty members at this school.
28. Teachers invite other faculty members to visit them at home.
29. Teachers know the family background of other faculty members.
30. Teachers talk about their personal life to other faculty members.
31. Teachers have fun socializing together during school time.

OCDQ, FORM IV-ITEMS THAT COMPOSE FOUR SUBTESTS:
TEACHERS' BEHAVIOR-Continued

32. Teachers work together preparing administrative reports.
 33. Teachers prepare administrative reports by themselves.^b
-

^aThese numbers are used solely to list the items here by subtest. The numbers do not correspond to the sequence in which the items actually appear.

^bScored negatively.

Source: Andrew W. Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration (New York: Macmillan, 1966), Table 4.3, pp. 152-53.

Part 3

OCDQ, FORM IV-ITEMS THAT COMPOSE FOUR SUBTESTS:
PRINCIPAL'S BEHAVIOR

I. Aloofness

1. Faculty meetings are organized according to a tight agenda.^a
2. Faculty meetings are mainly principal-report meetings.
3. The principal runs the faculty meeting like a business conference.
4. Teachers leave the grounds during the school day.
5. Teachers eat lunch by themselves in their own classrooms.
6. The rules set by the principal are never questioned.
7. Teachers are contacted by the principal each day.
8. School secretarial service is available for teachers' use.^b
9. Teachers are informed of the results of a supervisor's visit.^b

II. Production Emphasis

10. The principal makes all class scheduling decisions.
11. The principal schedules the work for the teachers.
12. The principal checks the subject-matter ability of teachers.
13. The principal corrects teachers' mistakes.
14. The principal insures that teachers work to their full capacity.
15. Extra duty for teachers is posted conspicuously.

OCDQ, FORM IV-ITEMS THAT COMPOSE FOUR SUBTESTS:
PRINCIPAL'S BEHAVIOR-Continued

16. The principal talks a great deal.
- III. Thrust
17. The principal goes out of his way to help teachers.
18. The principal sets an example by working hard himself.
19. The principal uses constructive criticism.
20. The principal is well prepared when he speaks at school functions.
21. The principal explains his reasons for criticism to teachers.
22. The principal looks out for the personal welfare of teachers.
23. The principal is in the building before teachers arrive.
24. The principal tells teachers of new ideas he had run across.
25. The principal is easy to understand.
- IV. Consideration
26. The principal helps teachers solve personal problems.
27. The principal does personal favors for teachers.
28. The principal stays after school to help teachers finish their work.
29. The principal helps staff members settle minor differences.
30. Teachers help select which courses will be taught.
31. The principal tries to get better salaries for teachers.
-

^aThese numbers are used solely to list the items here by subtest. The numbers do not correspond to the sequence in which the items actually appear.

^bScored negatively.

Source: Andrew W. Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration (New York: Macmillan, 1966), Table 4.4, pp. 153-54.

Appendix II

Part 1

STUDENT'S PRINCIPAL PERCEPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Your principal would cancel an assembly program immediately after a cherry bomb would explode in the auditorium.
2. Your principal smiles and extends friendly greetings to pupils in the halls and outside of school.
3. Your principal discusses behavior problems with student leaders before action is taken.
4. Your principal would walk into the middle of a sit-in and calmly talk students into going back to class.
5. Your principal stops for friendly and informal talks with pupils around the school.
6. Your principal would walk into the area where two gangs were ready to fight and ease the tension with friendly conversation.
7. Your principal would speak to a teacher on behalf of a student when the teacher has not been fair in grading.
8. Your principal seems to be a very healthy guy.
9. Your principal would open the gym for a group of students who wish to play basketball at lunch.
10. Your principal takes time to remember student's names.
11. Your principal instead of giving a long, drawn out speech, would get up there and just say a few words and a couple of jokes.
12. Your principal would be able to come up to a group of students, talk, laugh, and enjoy the type of people in that particular circle; and turn right around and do the same with a completely opposite group.
13. Your principal would organize and teach a class on his own time before school for students interested in a further understanding of problems of today.
14. Your principal could dress casually at school if the occasion arose.
15. Your principal would dance at the school dance.
16. Your principal would join in with the students in a cheer during a pep assembly.

STUDENT'S PRINCIPAL
PERCEPTION QUESTIONNAIRE-Continued

-
17. Your principal would write a letter to the Motor Vehicle Department for a student so that he could receive a temporary driving license after the student lost his wallet.
 18. Your principal would permit speakers who take an unpopular stand as well as speakers with popular viewpoints.
 19. Your principal listens to both sides of a story and makes a fair decision.
 20. Your principal would request public retraction of statements made in the local newspaper after a dumb article is written about the basketball team.
 21. Your principal is always seen around the school.
 22. Your principal seems unfriendly towards students.
 23. Your principal takes a long time before he takes care of discipline problems.
 24. When you talk to the principal about a problem he seems disinterested.
 25. Your principal favors certain students over others.
 26. You can't see your principal when you have a problem.
 27. Your principal doesn't do anything when kids do something wrong.
 28. Your principal doesn't take part in anything except what the kids with good grades are doing.
 29. I can see no real purpose in the principal-the school could run without him.
 30. Your principal frequently makes rules without involving student council.
-

Source: Based upon information obtained in Monroe E. Pederson's unpublished Ph.D. dissertation entitled, "Pupil Expectation of the High School Principal" prepared for the University of Southern California in 1970.

Part 2

ITEMS OF THE STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE
ARRANGED ACCORDING TO THE
SUBTESTS OF THE PRINCIPAL
BEHAVIOR DIMENSION

I. Aloofness

1. Your principal would be able to come up to a group of students talk, laugh and enjoy the type of people

ITEMS OF THE STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE ARRANGED
ACCORDING TO THE SUBTESTS OF THE PRINCIPAL
BEHAVIOR DIMENSION-Continued

- in that particular circle; and turn right around and do the same with a completely opposite group.^a
2. Your principal would dance at the school dance.
 3. Your principal listens to both sides of a story and makes a fair decision.
 4. Your principal takes a long time before he takes care of discipline problems.^b
 5. When you talk to the principal about a problem, he seems disinterested.^b
 6. You can't see your principal when you have a problem.^b
 7. Your principal frequently makes rules without involving student council.^b

II. Production Emphasis

8. Your principal would cancel an assembly program immediately after a cherry bomb would explode in the auditorium.^b
9. Your principal discusses behavior problems with student leaders before action is taken.
10. Your principal instead of giving a long, drawn out speech, would get up there and just say a few words and a couple of jokes.
11. Your principal is always seen around the school.
12. Your principal seems unfriendly towards students.^b
13. Your principal doesn't do anything when kids do something wrong.^b
14. I can see no real purpose in the principal-the school can run without him.^b

III. Thrust

15. Your principal would walk into the middle of a sit-in and calmly talk students into going back to class.
16. Your principal would walk into the area where two gangs were ready to fight and ease the tension with friendly conversation.
17. Your principal seems to be a very healthy guy.
18. Your principal would organize and teach a class on his own time before school for students interested in a further understanding of problems of today.
19. Your principal could dress casually at school if the occasion arose.
20. Your principal would join in with the students in a cheer during a pep assembly.

ITEMS OF THE STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE ARRANGED
ACCORDING TO THE SUBTESTS OF THE PRINCIPAL
BEHAVIOR DIMENSION-Continued

21. Your principal would permit speakers who take an unpopular stand as well as speakers with popular viewpoints.
22. Your principal would request public retraction of statements made in the local newspaper after a dumb article is written about the basketball team.
23. Your principal favors certain students over others.^b
24. Your principal doesn't take part in anything except what the kids with good grades are doing.^b

IV. Consideration

25. Your principal smiles and extends friendly greetings to pupils in the halls and outside of school.
 26. Your principal stops for friendly and informal talks with pupils around the school.
 27. Your principal would speak to a teacher on behalf of a student when the teacher has not been fair in grading.
 28. Your principal would open the gym for a group of students who wish to play basketball at lunch.
 29. Your principal takes time to remember student's names.
 30. Your principal would write a letter to the Motor Vehicle Department for a student so that he could receive a temporary driving license after the student lost his wallet.
-

^aThese numbers are used solely to list the items here by subtest. The numbers do not correspond to the sequence in which the items actually appear.

^bScored negatively.

Appendix III

THE ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE DESCRIPTION
QUESTIONNAIRE, FORM IV,
TRANSLATED INTO HEBREW

ישנם 64 גלויי דעה. אלה הם גלויי דעה על הוראה בכית ספרך. עליך להחליט אילו גלויי דעה אופייניים לבית ספרך ואילו מהם אינם אופייניים. תשובותיך צריכות לשקף את האמת, כפי שזיא נראית לך, על בית ספרך ולא את מה שהיית מעדיף שיהיה בכית ספרך. אין תשובה נכונה או בלתי נכונה אלא דעתך בלבד על הנכון והלא נכון בכית ספרך.

אל חדלג על שום משפט.

זכור היה זהיר, קרא כל שאלה בעיון. שים לב וענה על כל השאלות.

אין צורך לרשום שם.

סמן בעגול נכון או לא נכון ליד כל משפט.

1. הידידים הקרובים ביותר של המורה הם מורים אחרים כבי"ס זה.
1. נכון או לא נכון
2. התנהגות המורים כבי"ס זה אינה נראית לי.
2. נכון או לא נכון
3. המורים מקדישים זמן אחרי שעות ביה"ס לתלמידים שיש להם בעיות אינדיבידואליות.
3. נכון או לא נכון
4. עזרי הוראה נמצאים בהישג ידך.
4. נכון או לא נכון
5. מורים מזמינים מורים אחרים מביה"ס לבקרים בכיתם.
5. נכון או לא נכון
6. ישנה קבוצת מיעוט של מורים אשר תמיד מתנגדת לקבוצת הרב.
6. נכון או לא נכון
7. ספרי עזר נמצאים בכיה"ס לשימוש התלמידים.
7. נכון או לא נכון
8. נתן מספיק זמן למלוי דוחות אדמיניסטרטיביים.
8. נכון או לא נכון

THE ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE DESCRIPTION
QUESTIONNAIRE, FORM IV, TRANSLATED
INTO HEBREW-Continued

9. מורים יודעים את הרקע המשפחתי של מורים אחרים בכיתה"ס.
9. נכון או לא נכון
10. מורים מפעילים לחץ קבוצתי על מורים שאינם מסכימים לדרכם של הרוכ.
10. נכון או לא נכון
11. בפגישות צוות ישנה הרגשה של פעולה משותפת.
11. נכון או לא נכון
12. עבודה מלוי מפסיק אדמיניסטרטיביים היא כחצינת מעמסה בכיתה ספר זה.
12. נכון או לא נכון
13. מורים משוחחים עם מורים אחרים על חיהם הפרטיים.
13. נכון או לא נכון
14. מורים מבקשים הקלות מן המנהל.
14. נכון או לא נכון
15. ציוד ההוראה הנחוץ מוכן בחדר הכתה.
15. נכון או לא נכון
16. מלוי דוחות התקדמות התלמידים דורש עבודה רכה.
16. נכון או לא נכון
17. המורים מתכדחים בהיותם יחד בכיתה"ס.
17. נכון או לא נכון
18. מורים מפריעים לחברי צוות אחרים המדברים בשעת פגישות צוות.
18. נכון או לא נכון
19. רוב המורים כאן מקבלים את השגיאות של חבריהם.
19. נכון או לא נכון
20. למורים יש יותר מדי מבצעים קבוצתיים.
20. נכון או לא נכון
21. ישנה אוירה של עליזות רכה כאשר מורים מתאספים יחד.
21. נכון או לא נכון
22. מורים שואלים שאלות חסרות משמעות בפגישות צוות.
22. נכון או לא נכון
23. שרות תקון נזקים מצוי בשעת הצורך בכיתה"ס.
23. נכון או לא נכון
24. חוכות שגרמיות מפריעות לעבודה ההוראה שלך.
24. נכון או לא נכון

- 40. • 40. וכלל אף לא וכלל
- 39. • 39. וכלל אף לא וכלל
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- 27. • 27. וכלל אף לא וכלל
- 26. • 26. וכלל אף לא וכלל
- 25. • 25. וכלל אף לא וכלל

THE ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE DESCRIPTION
 QUESTIONNAIRE, FORM IV, TRANSLATED
 INTO HEBREW-Continued

THE ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE DESCRIPTION
QUESTIONNAIRE, FORM IV, TRANSLATED
INTO HEBREW-Continued

41. המנהל מוכן היטב בשעה שהוא נואם בפני צבור בכיה"ס.
41. נכון או לא נכון
42. המנהל עוזר ביישוב חלוקי דעות בין מורים.
42. נכון או לא נכון
43. המנהל מחליט בעצמו לגבי חלוקת העבודה של המורים בכיה"ס.
43. נכון או לא נכון
44. המורים עוזבים את שטח כיה"ס בשעות הפנויות שלהם.
44. נכון או לא נכון
45. המנהל שופט אותך יותר עפ"י פעולה ספציפית מאשר עפ"י פעולותיך כחבר צוות המורים.
45. נכון או לא נכון
46. המורים לוקחים חלק בחלוקת הכתות.
46. נכון או לא נכון
47. המנהל מתקן שגיאות מורים.
47. נכון או לא נכון
48. המנהל מפטפט הרבה.
48. נכון או לא נכון
49. המנהל מכביר את הסיבות לביקורת שהוא מוח על מורים.
49. נכון או לא נכון
50. המנהל משתדל להשיג תנאים טובים יותר למורים בכית ספרו.
50. נכון או לא נכון
51. הודעות מוענות למורים מתפרסמות כך שהן חכלוטנה.
51. נכון או לא נכון
52. המורים אינם מערערים אף פעם על החלטות המנהל.
52. נכון או לא נכון
53. המנהל מתעניין במצבם של המורים.
53. נכון או לא נכון
54. המזכירות בכיה"ס משמשת את צרכי המורים.
54. נכון או לא נכון
55. המנהל מנהל את ישיבת המורים כמועצת עסקים.
55. נכון או לא נכון
56. המנהל מקדים לבוא לכיה"ס לפני שחמורים מגיעים.
56. נכון או לא נכון

THE ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE DESCRIPTION
 QUESTIONNAIRE, FORM IV, TRANSLATED
 INTO HEBREW-Continued

57. המורים מכינים יחד את הדוחות האומיניסטרטיביים.
 57. נכון או לא נכון
58. ישיבות מורים מתנהלות לפי סדר יום שנקבע מראש.
 58. נכון או לא נכון
59. ישיבות מורים הן בעיקרן ישיבות דווח.
 59. נכון או לא נכון
60. המנהל מעביר לידיעת המורים רעיונות חנוכיים חדשים.
 60. נכון או לא נכון
61. מורים מדברים על עזיבה ביה"ס.
 61. נכון או לא נכון
62. המנהל מבקר בכחות על מנת לבדוק את יכולתו של המורה.
 62. נכון או לא נכון
63. קל להכין את המנהל וכוונותיו.
 63. נכון או לא נכון
64. מדווחים למורים על דעת המפקח עליהם.
 64. נכון או לא נכון

Appendix IV

THE STUDENT'S PRINCIPAL PERCEPTION QUESTIONNAIRE
TRANSLATED INTO HEBREW

אין צורך לרשום את השם

ישנם 30 גלויי דעה. אלה הם גלויי דעה על חיים כבי"ס תיכון. אתה צריך להחליט איזה משפטים הם אופייניים לביה"ס העל יסודי, ואיזה אינם אופייניים. חשובותיך צריכות לשקף את האמת על בית ספרך ולא את מה שהיית מעדיף אישיה שיהיה בביה"ס. אין חשובות נכונות או בלתי נכונות; אלא רק דעתך על הנכון והלא נכון על בית ספרך.

נא ל: לדלג על שום משפט.

ה ו ר א ו ת

סמן בעיגול נכון או לא נכון ליד כל משפט. זכור היה זהיר וחשוב.

1. המנהל שלך יפסיק אסיפת תלמידים מיד לאחר התפוצצות פצצה סרך באודיטוריום.
1. נכון או לא נכון
2. המנהל שלך מחייך ושולח ברכות ידידותיות לתלמידים במזדרונות ומחוץ לבית הספר.
2. נכון או לא נכון
3. המנהל שלך דן על בעיות התנהגות עם מנהיגי תלמידים לפני שננקטת פעולה.
3. נכון או לא נכון
4. המנהל שלך יכנס באמצע מחאת תלמידים וישכנע בטקט את התלמידים לחזור לבתח.
4. נכון או לא נכון
5. המנהל שלך יעצור לשיחות ידידותיות ובלתי פורמליות עם תלמידים בחצר ביה"ס.
5. נכון או לא נכון
6. המנהל שלך יתערב כשיראה שני תלמידים העומדים להכות זה את זה ויוריד את המחץ ע"י שיחה ידידותית.
6. נכון או לא נכון

THE STUDENT'S PRINCIPAL PERCEPTION QUESTIONNAIRE
TRANSLATED INTO HEBREW-Continued

7. המנהל שלך ידבר לטובה הקמיד כאשר המורה לא היה צודק במתן ציון.
7. נכון או לא נכון.
8. המנהל שלך נראה כאדם חוק מאד.
8. נכון או לא נכון.
9. המנהל שלך יפתח את חצר המשחקים לקבוצת תלמידים הרוצה לשחק כדורסל בשעה הצהריים.
9. נכון או לא נכון.
10. המנהל שלך מקדיש זמן כדי לזכור שמות תלמידים.
10. נכון או לא נכון.
11. המנהל שלך במקום לתת נאום ארוך ומייגע יסתפק כמספר מילים וכמה בדיחות.
11. נכון או לא נכון.
12. המנהל שלך מסוגל לכוא אל קבוצת תלמידים לדבר עמם, לצחוק עמם ולהנחות מסוג האנשים הנמצאים בקבוצה זאת; ואח"כ הוא מסוגל להינות באותה צורה עם קבוצה שונה לימרי.
12. נכון או לא נכון.
13. המנהל שלך ילמד בזמנו הפנוי, לפני שהלימודים כביה"ס מתחילים, כתת תלמידים המעוניינים להבין יותר את בעיות היום בעולם.
13. נכון או לא נכון.
14. המנהל שלך יופיע בכיה"ס בתלבושת בלתי רשמית כשהדבר נחוץ.
14. נכון או לא נכון.
15. המנהל שלך ירקוד בנשף ריקודים בכיה"ס.
15. נכון או לא נכון.
16. המנהל שלך יצטרף לצעקות התלהבות של תלמידים בשעת החרות.
16. נכון או לא נכון.
17. המנהל שלך יכתוב מכתב למשרד הרישוי בנוגע לתלמיד שאכד את ארנקו, כדי שיקבל רשיון נהיגה זמני.
17. נכון או לא נכון.
18. המנהל שלך ירשה לבואמים בעלי עמדה בלתי פופולרית, באותה מידה כמו לבואמים בעלי עמדות פופולריות לשאת דבריהם בכיה"ס.
18. נכון או לא נכון.
19. המנהל שלך מקשיב לשני הצדדים של הסיפור ואח"כ מחליט החלטה צודקת.
19. נכון או לא נכון.

THE STUDENT'S PRINCIPAL PERCEPTION QUESTIONNAIRE
TRANSLATED INTO HEBREW-Continued

20. המנהל שלך יבקש החנצלות פומבית על הצהרות בלתי נכונות שנכתבו בעוזן מקומי על קבוצת הכדור-סל של בית הספר.
20. נכון או לא נכון
21. המנהל שלך תמיד מסתובב כאזור ביה"ס.
21. נכון או לא נכון
22. המנהל שלך עושה רושם של בלתי ידידותי כלפי תלמידים.
22. נכון או לא נכון
23. המנהל שלך איננו פותר בעיות משמעה באופן מידי.
23. נכון או לא נכון
24. כשאתה מדבר עם המנהל על בעיה, הוא נראה בלתי מעוניין.
24. נכון או לא נכון
25. המנהל שלך מחבב תלמידים מסוימים יותר מן האחרים.
25. נכון או לא נכון
26. אינך יכול לראות את המנהל שלך כאשר יש לך בעיה.
26. נכון או לא נכון
27. המנהל שלך אינו עושה כלום כאשר תלמידים פועלים שלא כשורה.
27. נכון או לא נכון
28. המנהל שלך איננו משתתף בשום מבצע, אלא במבצעים של תלמידים מצטיינים
28. נכון או לא נכון
29. לדעתך אין כל מטרה בהמצאות המנהל בביה"ס - ביה"ס יוכל להתנהל גם בלעדיו.
29. נכון או לא נכון
30. המנהל שלך מחליט החלטות לעתים קרובות בלי התייעצות עם מועצת התלמידים.
30. נכון או לא נכון

Appendix V

PROFILES FOR SIX ORGANIZATIONAL
CLIMATES RANKED IN RESPECT TO
OPENNESS vs. CLOSEDNESS

Climates	Group's Characteristics				Leader's Characteristics			
	Disen- gage- ment	Hin- drance	Esprit	Inti- macy	Aloof- ness	Produc- tion Em- phasis	Thrust	Con- sider- ation
Open	43 ^a	43	63	50	42	43	61	55
Autonomous	40	41	55	62	61	39	53	50
Controlled	38	57	54	40	55	63	51	45
Familiar	60	42	50	58	44	37	52	59
Paternal	65	46	45	46	38	55	51	55
Closed	62	53	38	54	55	54	41	44

^aThe numbers represent standardized scores, with a mean of fifty and a standard deviation of ten.

Source: Andrew W. Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration (New York: Macmillan, 1966)
Table 4.10, p. 174.

Appendix VI

PROFILES FOR THE UNITED STATES AND ISRAELI SCHOOLS IN RESPECT
TO OPENNESS vs. CLOSEDNESS ACCORDING TO THE ORGANIZATIONAL
CLIMATE DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRES SCORES

Sch- col	Disen- gage- ment	Hind- rance	Esp- rit	Inti- macy	Alloof- ness	Pro- duc- tion	Thr- ust	Con- sid- era- tion	Simi- lar- ity
Open Climate									
E (U.S.)	49 ^a	50	53	52	46	55	75	50	60
D (U.S.)	50	31	51	52	43	56	68	49	60
C (U.S.)	50	48	53	59	43	58	89	58	78
Familiar Climate									
B (U.S.)	36	41	50	49	44	48	50	49	57
Paternal Climate									
H (I.)	53	46	55	47	49	56	62	52	49
A (U.S.)	35	45	49	47	44	55	55	50	56
Closed Climate									
G (I.)	53	51	40	51	52	50	41	43	20
F (I.)	58	53	51	54	52	87	42	46	50
J (I.)	51	51	50	46	52	52	48	36	53
I (I.)	49	53	46	46	47	51	49	37	55
Mean	48	47	50	51	47	57	58	47	

^aThe numbers represent standardized scores, with a mean of fifty and a standard deviation of ten.

Appendix VII

PROFILES FOR THE UNITED STATES AND ISRAELI SCHOOLS IN RESPECT
TO OPENNESS vs. CLOSEDNESS ACCORDING TO THE STUDENT'S
PRINCIPAL PERCEPTION QUESTIONNAIRE SCORES

School	Aloof- ness	Produc- tion <u>Emphasis</u>	Thrust	Con- sider- tion	Simi- larity Score
Controlled Climate					
E (U.S.)	55 ^a	60	51	44	4
G (Israel)	52	60	53	51	14
H (Israel)	57	61	58	49	15
C (U.S.)	58	58	52	52	16
D (U.S.)	55	58	56	57	22
A (U.S.)	67	60	55	61	35
Paternal Climate					
F (Israel)	39	45	49	53	15
J (Israel)	42	51	52	48	16
B (U.S.)	52	55	47	61	24
Closed Climate					
I (Israel)	57	40	48	29	38
Mean	53	55	52	51	

^aThe numbers represent standardized scores, with a mean of fifty and a standard deviation of ten.

Appendix VIII

A COMPARISON OF STUDENT AND TEACHER PERCEPTIONS
OF THEIR SCHOOL'S CLIMATE

<u>School</u>	<u>Teacher Perception</u>	<u>Student Perception</u>
School A (U.S.)	Paternal Climate	Controlled Climate
School B (U.S.)	Familiar Climate	Paternal Climate
School C (U.S.)	Open Climate	Controlled Climate
School D (U.S.)	Open Climate	Controlled Climate
School E (U.S.)	Open Climate	Controlled Climate
School F (Israel)	Closed Climate	Paternal Climate
School G (Israel)	Closed Climate	Controlled Climate
School H (Israel)	Paternal Climate	Controlled Climate
School I (Israel)	Closed Climate	Closed Climate
School J (Israel)	Closed Climate	Paternal Climate