Dissertations   Theses and Dissertations

1984

An Analysis of the Impact of Formalized Staff Development Programs on Staff Morale in Selected Cook County, Illinois, Public School Districts

Thomas Keith Buell
Loyola University Chicago

AN ANALYSIS OF THE IMPACT OF FORMALIZED STAFF DEVELOPMENT

PROGRAMS ON STAFF MORALE IN SELECTED COOK COUNTY,

ILLINOIS, PUBLIC SCHOOL DISTRICTS

by

Thomas Keith Buell

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School

of Loyola University of Chicago in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

January

1984

Thomas Keith Buell

Loyola University of Chicago

AN ANALYSIS OF THE IMPACT OF FORMALIZED STAFF DEVELOPMENT

PROGRAMS ON STAFF MORALE IN SELECTED COOK COUNTY,

ILLINOIS, PUBLIC SCHOOL DISTRICTS

The purpose of this study was to analyze selected school districts to determine the impact of formalized staff development program elements on staff morale. Five research questions provided a framework by which the purpose of the study was accomplished. Questions one and two identified the necessary elements of a formalized staff development program and the factors affecting and affected by the level of staff morale. Questions three and four assessed the extent or degree to which the necessary elements of a formalized staff development program were present and the level of staff morale in selected school districts. Question five determined the relationship between the presence of formalized staff development program elements and the level of staff morale.

Several conclusions to this study evolved:

1. Although the literature search indicated that the elements of a formalized staff development program varied from one research study to the next, certain necessary elements of planning, implementation and evaluation were found in all major staff development studies.

2. The importance of staff morale was highlighted by the fact that the related research indicated that staff morale was a very important factor in stu-

dent achievement.

3. Although the literature review indicated that the level of staff morale was affected by a combination of factors, the principal was found to be the most important factor with respect to staff morale.

4. The Quality Practices In Inservice Education Questionnaire was found by the participants in the current study to accurately assess the extent to which the necessary elements of a formalized staff development program were present in their school districts.

5. All of the necessary elements of a formalized staff development program found in the literature were present to a considerable extent in the majority of Cook County elementary school districts.

6. Based upon teacher responses, staff morale in Cook County elementary school districts was determined to be high.

7. A positive relationship existed between the presence of formalized staff development program elements and the level of staff morale in Cook County elementary school districts.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

VITA

Thomas Keith Buell, son of Thomas and Anna Buell, was born October 27, 1946, in Harvey, Illinois.

He was graduated from Thornton Township High School, Harvey, Illinois, in June 1964. In 1968 he received a Bachelor of Music Education degree, majoring in education and minoring in voice, from Wheaton College, and in 1972 he graduated from the American Conservatory of Music with a Master of Music Education degree.

The author was a teacher in District 144, Hazel Crest, Illinois, from 1968 to 1972. He served as an administrative intern in District 130, Blue Island, Illinois, in 1973 and in District 144, Hazel Crest, Illinois, in 1974. In 1975 he became principal and Assistant to the Superintendent of Arbor Park School District 145, Oak Forest, Illinois. He was appointed principal of Fieldcrest School, Prairie-Hills Elementary School District, Hazel Crest, Illinois, in July 1976 and has served in this capacity since that time.

He and his wife, Carole, have two children, Erian and Tyler. Their current residence is Palos Heights, Illinois.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

CONTENTS OF APPENDICES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

Staff Development is presently one of the most emphasized areas of education. Almost every large school district and many smaller ones in the United States and in other countries now have an office, administrator, or cooperative whose responsibility it is to provide continuous professional growth opportunities for staff members.[1]

School districts are funneling great amounts of time and money into staff development programs. But what constitutes a staff development program, and how are these valuable resources of time and money being invested?

Dillon-Peterson viewed staff development as "a process designed to foster personal and professional growth for individuals within a respectful, supportive, positive organizational climate having as its ultimate aim better learning for students and continuous, responsible self-renewal for educators and schools."[2]

The term process implies a conscious and systematic effort on the part of those directly responsible for staff development to mold and monitor the

---

[1] National Staff Development Council, Position Paper of the National Staff Development Council Rev. 5 (October 3, 1980), p. 1.

[2] Betty Dillon-Peterson, ed., Staff Development/Organization Development (Alexandria, VA.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1981), p. 3.

variables within a school district that impact on change. And, as Alfonso,

Firth and Neville stated, the change sought is the improvement of "conditions,

objectives, resources and responsibility of the school district."[1]

Staff development as used in this study is defined as "the sum of all

planned activities designed for the purpose of improving, expanding, and re-

newing the skills, knowledge and abilities of participants."[2] Although the

terms staff development, in-service training and teacher education are often

used interchangeably, the term staff development is used throughout this study

to emphasize the important role each individual -- teacher, administrator,

clerk, custodian, etc. -- plays in the education of children today. The term

staff development shies away from the traditional view of training a teacher in

"isolation." Instead, "it suggests a different approach to improvement, one

that considers the effects of the whole school (the staff) on the individual (the

teacher) and the necessity of long term growth possibility (development)."[3]

Staff development programs vary in size and scope, depending on cer-

tain district variables, but are generally accepted by definition to include "a

wide range of professional activities for teachers which contribute to their

---

[1] Robert J. Alfonso, Gerald R. Firth, and Richard F. Neville, Instruc-
tional Supervision (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1981), p. 395.

[2] Raymond E. Hendee, "Toward Effective Staff Development Plans and
Programs," Educational Leadership, XXXIV #3, December, 1976, p. 163.

[3] Lynn Miller, "BTES: Implications for Staff Development," in Time
to Learn, ed. by Carolyn Denham and Ann Lieberman (Washington, D.C.: U.S.
Department of Education, National Institute of Education, 1980), p. 160.

enhancement, enrichment, and growth, as well as contributing to the improvement of instruction."[1]

A myriad of components or activities are included under the staff development umbrella. One of the most exhaustive lists of staff development elements is furnished by Alfonso, Firth and Neville:

> Elements of staff development are teacher recruitment and selection, teacher assignment and reassignment, group in-service programs, individual professional development, conferences, interschool and regional projects, consultants, professional leave plans, the encouragement and support of advanced professional training, courses, institutes, workshops, school visitations, the identification of teachers for future leadership roles, the provision or acquisition of financial support for teacher learning, involvement of teachers in a variety of professional activities and organizations, and long-range staff and career planning.[2]

What are the reasons for this rather sudden and recent interest in staff development? Four fundamental reasons seem to pervade today's literature relative to this question. Each will be considered separately but must be looked upon as being part of a whole if the impetus of the staff development movement is to be totally understood.

The first reason for this keen interest in staff development is directly related to societal changes and increased knowledge. There was a time when society seemed to change very little, and educators were content to maintain existing programs and practices. That era of maintenance is over and, as

---

[1] Gladys S. Johnston and Carol C. Yeakey, "Administrators' and Teachers' Preferences for Staff Development," Planning and Changing, 8 Winter, 1977, p. 230.

[2] Alfonso, Firth and Neville, Instructional Supervision, op cit., pp. 397-398.

Labat points out, "staff development for school personnel is a must if schools are to keep pace with the rapid changes now taking place in our society and thus maintain themselves as contributing institutions."[1]

Along with these massive changes in society came an increased knowledge base and advances in technology. For years the military, health services and industry have recognized the need for continuous growth and have made extensive use of in-service education for personnel. Educators have lagged behind in this area and have neglected this important duty of retraining its own. They must now face the reality that "the best possible undergraduate preparation for teachers or graduate education for administrators and supervisors cannot serve professionals adequately for more than five to seven years in this age of rapid change and expanding knowledge."[2]

Closely akin to the idea that the emphasis on staff development is the result of changes in society and increased knowledge is the notion that teachers are expected and, therefore, must be trained to assume new and ever-expanding roles. As McLaughlin and Marsh explained:

> ... many of the "Great Society" education reform efforts fell short primarily because planners seriously underestimated teacher-training needs. In retrospect, it was unrealistic to expect that classroom teachers could

---

[1] Margaret G. Labat, "Problems and Issues of Staff Development," in Staff Development: Staff Liberation, ed. by Charles W. Beegle and Roy A. Edelfelt (Washington, D.C.: ASCD, 1977), p. 15.

[2] Sister Frances Russell, Steven R. Thompson, Fred H. Wood, "Designing Effective Staff Development Programs," in Staff Development/Organization Development, ed. by Betty Dillon-Peterson (Alexandria, VA.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1981), pp. 59-60.

bring about significant change in the services provided to such special student groups as the disadvantaged and the bilingual without substantial in-service education.[1]

Teaching responsibilities have constantly been expanded, and teaching materials are becoming more complex. Because of emerging societal pressures and demands from citizens, schools feel the need to prepare teachers for new roles.

> Educators are pressured from every direction to perform their primary function -- teaching the basics -- better. In addition, they are expected to expand the curriculum to provide for more and more of the physical, personal, and social needs of all students, while subject to steadily declining resources. In order to survive they must not become static; they must develop workable strategies for continuous self-renewal.[2]

A third reason for an ever-growing interest in staff development is the realization that the staff of today is the staff of tomorrow. Whereas schools have traditionally used the hiring of new teachers as a means of developing the staff, they must now contend with the situation of retraining teachers who have been in the system for a number of years. Gone are the days of large turnovers and vigorous recruitment efforts.

> In the past, when there was a high degree of teacher mobility, a school administrator could hire new teachers attuned to new goals when there was a need for change. A yearly turnover of as much as one-fifth of the staff made it possible to bring teachers into the school whose values and training fit the goals of change. Today, school staffs have become

---

[1] David D. Marsh and Milbrey Wallin McLaughlin, "Staff Development and School Change," Teachers College Record, Vol. 80, No. 1 (September, 1978), p. 69.

[2] Dillon-Peterson, Staff Development/Organization Development, op cit., p. 1.

relatively stable; therefore, change must be accomplished by working with existing personnel.[1]

Today consolidation appears to be the buzzword in education -- consolidation of schools, consolidation of programs and consolidation of teaching positions. Schools are now having to grapple with the question of how to maintain established educational standards with dwindling and aging people resources. "... The last decade's period of unprecedented growth has been followed by an equally dramatic decline in pupil enrollment. The market for new teachers is practically nonexistent and -- for the first time in many years -- local school districts find themselves with a stable and tenured staff."[2]

It is no wonder, then, that schools are recognizing the need to regenerate or revitalize their staffs from within.

A final reason, and perhaps the most important reason from a strictly product-oriented perspective, for the current interest in staff development is that there appears to be a correlation between improved instruction, as a result of involvement in staff development programs, and increased student growth or achievement. Miller, in her review of the Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study (BTES), noted that one of the contributions of the study is that it provides information that ultimately links teaching practices to student achievement outcomes. "By articulating linkages for teachers and by guiding their attention to

---

[1] Judith Schiffer, School Renewal Through Staff Development (New York: Teachers College Press, 1980), p. vii.

[2] Marsh and McLaughlin, Teachers College Record, op cit., pp. 69-70.

some of the variables that affect student achievement, the BTES-informed staff

developer can help to temper some of the 'endemic uncertainties' (Lortie, 1975)

of the teaching task and can help teachers to gain a sense of personal efficacy

about their work."[1]

Staff development programs, focusing on teacher effectiveness issues,

are sprouting up all over the United States as more and more educators reaffirm

the idea that the cornerstone of quality education is what happens between the

individual teacher and the student. Local school district administrators as

well as nationally recognized committees of education are in agreement that

staff development is the key to improving the educational process and product:

> If we're really going to improve the quality of education for students, it's going to be through improving the effectiveness of staff members who work with them. This means the superintendent and the board have to commit themselves through overt actions -- budgetary considerations specifically for staff development, and human resources and time where necessary.[2]

> It is also generally agreed that if there is to be adequate growth in student performance and attitudes, primary consideration should be given to improving the way in which teachers (and those who support their efforts) work in the schools. It is understandable, then, that there is a steadily growing emphasis at all levels of education on the continuous professional growth of school personnel.[3]

Since there is, first of all, a growing emphasis on staff development

and, secondly, a variety of reasons for the interest being generated in this area,

---

[1] Miller, Time to Learn, op cit., p. 161.

[2] Elizabeth A. Dillon, "Staff Development: Whose Job Is It?" Educational Leadership, XXXII #2, November, 1974, p. 138.

[3] National Staff Development Council, op cit., p. 1.

what, then, is the status of staff development programs? How are school districts responding to the challenge of retraining or revitalizing their staffs?

A chronology of status reports on staff development efforts, as found in the literature, paints a rather bleak or pessimistic picture. A decade ago inservice teacher training or staff development was described as "the slum of American education."[1] Adjectives such as "disadvantaged," "poverty-stricken" and "ineffective" were used to characterize the desultory status of staff development.

Four years later Pinkney generalized that, in spite of substantial investments of time, funds and consultant services, staff development programs often have been ineffective and that teachers and administrators have, in many instances, found inservice activities "threatening, confusing, or irrelevant."[2]

In a 1978 review of the Rand Corporation Change Agent study, McLaughlin and Marsh offered the following perspective relative to the status of staff development. "The only consensus that appears to exist about staff development is that what we have now is ineffective and a waste of time. The general feeling is that most staff-development programs have benefitted neither teachers nor students."[3]

---

[1] Steven R. Thompson and Fred H. Wood, "Guidelines for Better Staff Development," Educational Leadership, XXXVII #5, February, 1980, p. 374.

[2] Beegle and Edelfelt, Staff Development: Staff Liberation, op cit., p. 108.

[3] Marsh and McLaughlin, Teachers College Record, op cit., p. 70.

Surely, during the past five years, the status of staff development programs has been raised to a respectable and productive level. Isolated staff development success stories have appeared in periodicals but, as the writers of a February 1982 inservice education article conclude, staff development programs are still in a state of flux. "Inservice education suffers from shifting needs, periods of 'benign neglect,' fads, and marginal resources. It is, at different times, emphasized and ignored in U.S. schools."[1]

What are the reasons that staff development efforts, as a whole, have been less than effective in serving or meeting the needs of today's educators? Thompson and Wood offer five reasons for the current problems in staff development programs:

1. Although educators see inservice education as crucial to improved school programs and practice, they hold negative attitudes toward inservice education practices.
2. A distorted view of teachers as disliking inservice and needing to be persuaded to participate by many administrators is reflected in the way that staff development programs are designed.
3. The focus of inservice education is district oriented rather than school related.
4. The focus of most inservice education is on the assimilation of information and does not take into account the needs of the participants.
5. Modeling of desired practices or behaviors is absent from most inservice presentations.[2]

Underlying the reasons stated by Thompson and Wood for the dismal status of present staff development programs is the fact that there are few

---

[1] Leonard C. Burello and Tim Orbaugh, "Reducing the Discrepancy Between the Known and the Unknown in Inservice Education," Phi Delta Kappan, LXIII #6, February, 1982, p. 385.

[2] Thompson and Wood, Educational Leadership, op cit., p. 375.

research studies for staff developers to draw upon that clearly delineate the essential elements of a formalized staff development program.

> Searching the literature for evidence that research has contributed to staff development in school systems reveals that there are few, if any, reports of research dealing with staff development per se. There are many articles describing staff development programs, giving opinions and conjectures, and reviewing the literature.... There are many reports of research on factors, such as new materials and techniques, that must be considered in designing staff development programs, but the research does not deal with the total system of staff development.[1]

Although the literature on staff development covers a wide range of topics, it, at best, can only be described as fragmented. Missing are the frameworks that provide the basis for understanding staff development problems and guidance in the design and evaluation of programs.[2]

In the absence of any hard research data on staff development, the educator is forced to choose a program or program components from the many different ones described in the literature. But which program is best? Who is the staff developer to believe?

> Unfortunately, going to the literature on staff development is not much help. A majority of publications are evaluation reports rather than real research. In many of them, administrators or teachers write up a program used in their school. It is almost always a successful program, since no one likes to publish failures. Measurement techniques are often subjective opinions or tests made up by participants.[3]

---

[1] Sara C. West, "How Research Helps Staff Development: In Schools and in Big Business," in Staff Development: Staff Liberation, ed. by Charles W. Beegle and Roy A. Edelfelt (Washington, D.C.: ASCD, 1977), p. 37.

[2] Schiffer, School Renewal, op cit., p. viii.

[3] ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, "Synthesis of Research on Staff Development," Educational Leadership, XXXVIII, November, 1980, p. 182.

Educators need to realize the serious limitations of most staff development studies and carefully sift through the results or findings for small pieces of relevant information. Only by doing so will the staff developer be able to put a handle on the common elements of formalized staff development programs that facilitate change.

Prior to 1977 four research studies guided the thinking of educators relative to the common elements of a formalized staff development program. These four studies, Lawrence (1974), Rand Corporation (1975), Joyce and colleagues (1976) and Johnston and Yeakey (1977), are reviewed in Chapter II. Suffice it to say, each study identified a number of essential staff development characteristics and, in combination, suggest these eight common elements of a formalized staff development program:

1. is concrete and aimed at specific skills;
2. emphasizes demonstrations and opportunities for staff to practice the new skills and receive feedback;
3. is individualized to address the requirements of each participant and to relate to on-the-job needs;
4. is ongoing -- stretching throughout the school year;
5. is held at school rather than elsewhere;
6. includes opportunities to observe other teachers who have mastered and are practicing the skills being taught;
7. includes principals as participants and teachers as content decision makers and activity planners;
8. utilizes local resource personnel, other than administrators, as trainers.[1]

In 1979 a very comprehensive research study was undertaken by the Task Force on Quality Practices in Inservice Education of the National Advisory

---

[1] ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, Educational Leadership, op cit., p. 184.

Board to the National Inservice Network. The task force generated and validated statements of what constitutes good practices in inservice education. The criteria reported in their July 1980 report, reviewed in Chapter II, form the basis for a data-gathering questionnaire relative to the current status of staff development programs for the current study. The following six main categories of quality inservice practice statements provide a framework by which the presence or absence of essential elements of a formalized staff development program can be measured:

1. Quality practice in inservice education recognizes that programs must be integrated into and supported by the organization within which they function.
2. Quality practices in inservice education are designed to result in programs which are collaborative.
3. Quality practices in inservice education are designed to result in programs which are needs based.
4. Quality practices in inservice education are designed to result in programs which are responsive to changing needs.
5. Quality practices in inservice education are designed to result in programs which are accessible.
6. Evaluation of inservice activities is an essential component of a quality program, and should be designed and conducted in ways compatible with the underlying philosophy and approach of the program.[1]

Having determined what the common elements of a formalized staff development program are, how can the impact of implementing these elements be measured? One way, and the way chosen for this study, is to examine the morale of the staff, holding the formalized staff development factor constant. Several research studies have demonstrated a correlation between the morale and

---

[1] Patricia P. Kells, "Quality Practices in Inservice Education," The Developer, January, 1981, pp. 3-5.

effectiveness of the staff. These studies are reviewed in Chapter II. The point to be made at this time is that student achievement outcomes are directly related to the degree of teacher effectiveness and are, in the final analysis, the reason for the existence of schools and formal education efforts. School districts must recognize the important role of the teacher and provide staff development opportunities accordingly.

"Of the many factors critical to students' successful achievement in school, one of the most important is the professional competence of the teachers. This competence is based upon what a teacher does, not what a teacher is."[1] This conclusion is empirically validated by The Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study. As Miller stated in a staff development article:

> First, and most important, BTES provides information that ultimately links teaching practices to student achievement outcomes. Such information can be extremely useful for a staff developer who is always dealing with problems endemic to the teaching profession -- among them the weak knowledge base, the uncertain teaching and learning links, and the vagueness of goals....[2]

If indeed there is a correlation between the morale and effectiveness of the staff, then it is important to determine which elements, in combination, of formalized staff development programs raise the morale of the staff. In other words, what is the effect of elements of a formalized staff development program on the level of staff morale?

---

[1] Madeline Hunter, Prescription for Improved Instruction (El Segundo, CA.: TIP Publications, 1976), p. 1.

[2] Denham and Lieberman, Time to Think, op cit., p. 161.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to analyze selected public school districts to determine the impact of formalized staff development program elements on staff morale.

Five questions served as the focus for this study:

1. What do available research and literature say are the necessary elements of a formalized staff development program?

2. What do available research and literature indicate are the factors affecting and affected by the level of staff morale?

3. To what extent or degree are the necessary elements of a formalized staff development program present in selected Cook County school districts?

4. What is the level of staff morale in selected Cook County school districts?

5. What is the relationship between the presence of formalized staff development program elements and the level of staff morale in selected Cook County school districts?

Significance of the Study

The study contributed to the body of knowledge concerning staff development and staff morale. It provided data relative to the extent "good" inservice education practices were occurring in Cook County, Illinois (excluding the Chicago Public School System) elementary school districts. It also provided an assessment of the level of staff morale for districts within the chosen population. Data relative to the impact of certain staff development practices on staff morale

were established. Those individuals responsible for staff development can avail themselves of the content and implications of the study and direct their efforts accordingly. Districts can view the level of staff morale as it relates to staff development practices. Universities can incorporate the significance of the findings into administrator preparation curricula.

Limitations and Delimitations

The limitations of this study were those inherent in using mailed questionnaires. Data from the questionnaires were limited because they relied on the perceptions of respondents rather than on objective information. The staff morale questionnaire data were further limited in that the questionnaire was distributed by district administrators.

While there are other district and building level variables, such as number of schools, student enrollment, size of staff, student/teacher ratio, assessed valuation of district, teacher salary schedule, etc., that impact on staff morale, this study was limited to determining the relationship between the presence of formalized staff development program elements and the level of staff morale.

The study was delimited to public elementary school district (K-8) superintendents and teachers. It was, also, delimited by the fact that the study confined itself to Cook County, Illinois (excluding the Chicago Public School System) public school districts.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of this study was to analyze selected school districts to determine the impact of formalized staff development program elements on staff morale. The purpose of the study was accomplished by comparing the ratings of superintendents relative to the presence of formalized staff development program elements with the ratings of teachers relative to the perceived level of staff morale. All data were gathered through questionnaires.

Chapter II contains a review of the literature in the field. It is divided into two sections: staff development and staff morale. In the first section, the necessary elements of a formalized staff development program are identified. The evolution of staff development is traced, followed by a review of six major staff development studies. The final study reviewed provided the content of the questionnaire used to determine the extent of the staff development effort.

The review of staff morale literature in the second section is subdivided into four parts. Several morale definitions are considered in the first part, followed by a discussion of the importance of morale. The final two parts of the section examine the factors affected by and affecting staff morale.

Staff Development

Schiffer traced the evolution of staff development in her book on school renewal. She began with an explanation of how the New England colonists viewed education in general and teacher training specifically.

In the early colonial days the Puritans established a public school system and placed the fundamental responsibility of educating children on the state. But, although schools were established and schoolmasters assigned in the New England colonies as well as other colonies along the eastern seacoast, there was no formal training program for teachers.

The schoolmaster in colonial New England functioned on behalf of the church as the person responsible for teaching children the necessary skills and habits to read the Bible and to be good Christians. This task was deemed to be easily accomplished, since it previously had been the responsibility of individual families and, therefore, required no special occupational training. Indeed, the schoolmaster often had received no more than an elementary school education.

A discrepancy began to develop between the goals of education and the teacher's ability to accomplish the goals as the function of the school changed and the education process became more complicated. Free public schools, known as common schools, were established. Along with the free schools came a broad range of issues and problems and the realization that teacher training must be more formalized and expanded. By the end of the eighteenth century special provisions were being made for the education of teachers before and after they began their work.

Teachers in training attended institutes and schools established for the education of elementary teachers. Practicing teachers were encouraged, and in many states required, to attend teacher institutes to increase their knowledge of what they were teaching.

These provisions for educating practicing teachers improved during the nineteenth century as a result of advances in pedagogical methodology. However, the idea that the individual teacher was the focus for all education efforts still held true.

Not until the progressive era of the 1920's were notions regarding the teacher participating in determining school policy or the teacher's needs relative to the realization of professional potential voiced. Prior to that time the public school teacher was considered a worker hired to implement the policies of the board of education and administrative staff. Various factors such as advances in research on worker motivation and administrative theory, progress in teacher education and the status of teaching as a professional career, and growth of teacher power contributed to changing ideas about the teacher's role and the purpose of inservice education. No longer could the aim of inservice education be the upgrading of individual teacher's knowledge and skills. Instead, the goal became that of promoting professional growth of the school staff (staff development) through cooperative group effort.[1]

Staff development has been defined in this study as "the sum of all planned activities for the purpose of improving, expanding, and renewing the

---

[1] Schiffer, School Renewal Through Staff Development, op cit., pp. 1-2.

skills, knowledge and abilities of participants."[1] These planned activities are developed cooperatively by the staff and are designed to strengthen the staff as a whole. But how are these activities molded into a staff development program, and what are the essential elements of a formalized staff development program? Six research studies will be chronologically reviewed in the next section of this study that address these staff development questions.

The Lawrence Study (1974)

In an attempt to determine what makes teacher inservice effective, Lawrence reviewed 97 studies or reports of inservice education and generalized about successful programs. By comparing the 97 programs, he was able to separate characteristics of effective programs from those of less effective programs and identify aspects of inservice education found repeatedly in effective programs.

Many of the findings of Lawrence clustered around management aspects of inservice education. Among his findings was that inservice education objectives were more likely accomplished when the inservice activities were individualized rather than common for all participants. Programs that emphasized demonstrations, active participation, modeling and provided feedback mechanisms were more effective than those in which the participants merely listened and stored information for future use.

Although Lawrence found that both school based and college based

---

[1] Hendee, "Toward Effective Staff Development Plans and Programs," op cit., p. 163.

programs had an effect on teacher behavior, he found that the former influenced more complex kinds of behaviors such as attitudes. School based inservice education programs appeared to have a dual capability of dispensing information as well as changing teacher beliefs.

"School based programs in which teachers participate as helpers to each other and planners of in-service activities tend to have greater success ... than do programs which are conducted by college or other outside personnel without the assistance of teachers."[1]

Lawrence found that inservice program objectives dealing with altering student behavior were not as likely to be realized as were objectives that dealt with teachers' concepts or increasing the knowledge base of teachers.

Lawrence summarized the findings of his research study by saying that:

> The message in the findings seems clear: the in-service programs that have the best chance of being effective are those that involve teachers in planning and managing their own professional development activities, pursuing personal and collective objectives, sharing, applying new learning and receiving feedback.[2]

Lawrence and several graduate students updated the original research study in 1980. They identified 59 studies, out of some 6,000 original reports, that contained qualitative findings that could be combined by the meta analysis technique. The results of the studies were synthesized to answer this question:

---

[1] Gordon Lawrence, Patterns for Effective Inservice Education: A State of the Art Summary of Research on Materials and Procedures for Changing Teacher Behaviors in Inservice Education (Tallahassee, FL.: Florida State Department of Education, 1974), p. 11.

[2] Ibid., p. 17.

what are the settings, materials and procedures of an effective staff development program? The main findings of the meta analysis were reported recently in a Phi Delta Kappa research newsletter.

Staff development programs found to be most successful in accomplishing their objectives were those that:

1.   actively involved teachers in initiating, planning and conducting the program;

2.   were collectively designed and directed toward general staff, rather than individual, development;

3.   were funded and governed locally;

4.   were scheduled at times that did not compete with the participants' other professional obligations;

5.   emphasized teacher responsibility for learning through diverse program patterns;

6.   provided both passive and active learning experiences;

7.   allowed participants to try out new ideas and receive appropriate feedback;

8.   had leaders who were connected with a university or center concerned with staff development;

9.   provided opportunities for participants to observe exemplary practices;

10.   relied on presentations other than lecture as the main activity;

11.   were conducted at the school site;

12.   provided participants with relevant printed materials.[1]

In summary, the findings of this follow-up study seemed to suggest that the more successful staff development programs were those that treated their participants as professionals, as conscientious people who were interested in expanding and refining their skills. These programs and accompanying activities were carefully planned to meet the needs of the people and organizations they served.

The Rand Study (1975)

One of the most useful studies in terms of providing some insights into the characteristics of effective staff development is the Rand Corporation study of federally funded programs designed to introduce and spread innovative practices in public schools. This study is often referred to as the "Change Agent Study." Although the original focus of the study was not on staff development, the researchers found that certain staff development strategies had great impact on the success or lack of success of these innovative programs.

The Rand Corporation study, sponsored by the United States Office of Education, was conducted in two phases over a four-year period. The first phase of the study addressed those factors affecting the initiation and implementation of local "change-agent" projects. The second phase of the study examined the institutional and project factors that influenced the continuation of innovations after special federal funding terminated.

---

[1] Phi Delta Kappa's Center of Education, Development and Research, Practical Applications of Research Newsletter, Vol. 5 Number 3 (March, 1983).

The study collected extensive information from superintendents, district federal program officers, project directors, principals and teachers about the local process of change. In the first phase of the study 852 administrators and 689 teachers from 293 local projects were surveyed, and fieldwork was conducted in 24 school districts. The second phase of the study involved a survey of 100 projects in 20 states and fieldwork in 18 school districts.[1]

A major finding of the Rand study was that certain "implementation strategies" were ineffective and could hurt the projects' outcomes and chances for continuation, while others were found to be effective and actually promoted mutual adaptation of the innovation or change. The implications of this finding have major significance relative to determining the necessary elements of a formalized staff development program.

Strategies found to have positive effects on project outcomes and continuation were the following:

1. <u>Concrete, teacher-specific and on-going training</u>. Successful programs were most likely those that allowed teachers to try out new techniques and request assistance at the time it was needed. The best training addressed the specific needs of each individual teacher.

2. <u>Classroom assistance from project or district staff</u>. Local resource personnel were found to be more effective advisors than were outside consultants. The advice of local personnel was deemed "relevant and practical,"

---

[1] Marsh and McLaughlin, "Staff Development and School Change," <u>op cit.</u>, p. 70.

whereas that of consultants was seen as "general, untimely and irrelevant."

3. <u>Observation of the project in other classrooms or districts</u>. Implementation seemed to be aided by project staff observations of other operating projects. The most effective counselors in terms of offering advice and encouragement were generally peers who had had a successful innovation experience.

4. <u>Regular project meetings</u>. Staff support activities, such as regular project meetings where teachers discuss and work on problems, were extremely important in enabling teachers to carry on successful programs. The most effective meetings were those dealing with teacher and project related issues rather than routine matters of administration.

5. <u>Teacher participation in project decisions</u>. A strong correlation was found between teacher participation in project decisions and effective implementation and continuation. Teachers were much more likely to invest the needed time and energy to make a project work if they were directly involved in setting objectives and designing activities.

6. <u>Local materials development</u>. The process of locally developing material for the project provided the necessary commitment and clarity for effective implementation and long-term continuation. Respect, ownership and professional growth on the part of the staff were some of the byproducts of this process.

7. <u>Principal participation in training</u>. The active support of the principal was vital to the project's implementation and especially to its continuation. It appeared that principals needed to gain knowledge that would enable them to

help teachers implement the project and sustain project activities and to show teachers that their efforts were supported and valued.

Briefly stated, the ineffective implementation strategies found in the Rand study were often the converse of the effective strategies. They included:

1. Outside consultants;

2. Packaged management approaches;

3. One-shot, pre-implementation training;

4. Pay for training;

5. Formal project evaluations;

6. Comprehensive (K-12 or district-wide) projects.[1]

One of the most important implications of the Rand study dealt with viewing staff development from a different perspective. As McLaughlin and Marsh stated in a subsequent review of the study:

> The study moves away from a traditional view of staff development as a concern about the governance, financing, staffing, delivery, and reward structures for those workshops or as a problem of technology. Instead, the Rand study emphasizes learning for professionals as part of an ongoing program building in an organizational context.[2]

The Joyce and Colleagues Studies (1976)

Two inservice program studies were simultaneously developed by Joyce and two colleagial teams in 1976. One study dealt with the characteristics of

---

[1] Paul Berman and Milbrey Wallin McLaughlin, Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change, Volume VIII: Implementing and Sustaining Innovations (Santa Monica, CA.: Rand Corp., 1978), pp. 27-30.

[2] Marsh and McLaughlin, "Staff Development and School Change," op cit., p. 87.

inservice programs preferred by teachers and administrators. The other study provided a clear description of current inservice education.

In the former study, Joyce and his colleagues conducted loosely structured interviews with 1,016 teachers, administrators and professors of education to determine teacher and administrator inservice teacher education (ISTE) preferences. Although the interviewees were not a random sample and the interviews were exploratory and intended to provide preliminary data for a later survey, the authors stated confidently that their findings "identify fairly exhaustively the perceived issues, problems and opportunities for constructive change in ISTE."[1]

Several concerns and opinions were uncovered by Joyce and his colleagues relative to inservice education. Among them was a desire by respondents in all categories for teachers to have more responsibility for the content of inservice programs. Determining programs should be the shared responsibility of teachers, administrators and college personnel.

A second concern, again supported by all categories of interviewees, had to do with the timeliness of inservice education. Job-related training for teachers should occur at times when it is needed or wanted.

Much less agreement was found when the respondents were asked to identify the agent responsible for the organization of inservice programs. Each group (teachers, administrators and college faculty) preferred themselves as

---

[1] Richard Diaz, et al., Interviews: Perceptions of Professionals and Policy Makers (Palo Alto, CA.: Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, Stanford University, 1976), p. 14.

the responsible agents.

A final finding addressed the question of trainer preferences. Only two percent preferred local education personnel (administrators and curriculum supervisors) as trainers, while fifteen percent preferred consultants and twenty percent preferred college faculty. Joyce and his colleagues hypothesized that teachers felt uncomfortable having their evaluators serve as trainers. The functions of evaluation and training were perceptually too closely aligned.[1]

In the second study, Joyce and his colleagues surveyed the current status of inservice education in American schools. Joyce found that a great number of staff development activities were going on in any large school district but that the actual number of hours spent each year assisting individual teachers was few.

Joyce and his associates found that there were 80,000 professors, supervisors and consultants involved in inservice training, which represented a one to 25 ratio of personnel responsible for staff development to teachers. When principals, assistant principals, reading specialists, department chairpersons and others who also have a role in staff growth were included, the ratio was calculated to be one to eight.[2]

Joyce and his colleagues, through an analysis of the survey data, pro-

_____

[1] Diaz, et al., Interviews: Perceptions of Professionals and Policy Makers, op cit., p. 14.

[2] M.G. Baker, et al., Issues to Face, Inservice Teacher Education Report 1 (Palo Alto, CA.: Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, Stanford University, 1976), p. 2.

vided a frame of reference for approaching staff development. Inservice education was categorized into four separate and independent systems: 1) governance; 2) substance; 3) delivery; and 4) modes.

1. <u>Governance</u>. As a system, governance dealt with structures of decision-making. The assumption of the study was that greater teacher involvement in planning and organizing inservice programs produced a higher degree of personal satisfaction and program improvement.

2. <u>Substance</u>. Both the content and process of inservice education were included in this system. Joyce and his colleagues found that the success of inservice education programs was a reflection of the extent teachers incorporated the training "substance" into their active repertoire.

3. <u>Delivery</u>. Joyce and his colleagues found the current inservice work to be "ad hoc." A smooth, ongoing system of inservice education that provided a variety of services was found to be needed if inservice education was to become a vital part of the school.

4. <u>Modes</u>. Five general modes relative to the context of inservice training were identified by Joyce and his colleagues. They are: job-embedded (committee work and team teaching); job-related (workshops and teacher exchange); credential-oriented (advanced degrees and certificates); professional organization-related; and self-directed.[1]

---

[1] Baker, <u>et al</u>., <u>Issues to Face</u>, <u>op cit</u>., p. 2.

Johnston and Yeakey (1977)

Johnston and Yeakey tested the hypothesis that administrators and teachers differ significantly in their preferences regarding the content, methods and planning of teacher staff development programs. Two significant findings relative to the hypothesis were identified in their survey of 313 teachers and 23 administrators from 17 New Jersey elementary schools.

The first finding had to do with the content preferences of teachers and administrators. Johnston and Yeakey found virtually no agreement regarding this aspect of inservice education. For example, administrators ranked the topic of community relations as most preferred, whereas teachers ranked it as least preferred. Similar differences were found in other topics. Johnston and Yeakey concluded that both administrators and teachers were primarily interested in topics relevant or closely associated with their individual roles.

A second finding was that administrators and teachers disagreed as to who should plan and conduct staff development workshops. Again, both groups of educators preferred to do their own planning and to be responsible for conducting the actual staff development activities.

Johnston and Yeakey concluded that the most effective staff development programs were those in which content, methodology and planning decisions were jointly made by administrators and teachers. Providing teachers with an opportunity to define their own problems and needs resulted in increased teacher support for the staff development program and, in turn, a more effective program.[1]

---

[1] Johnston and Yeakey, "Administrators' and Teachers' Preferences for Staff Development," op cit., pp. 230-238.

Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study (1978)

A complex research project with strong implications regarding the content of staff development programs is the Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study (BTES). This six-year study was conducted by the California Commission for Teacher Preparation and Licensing and funded by the National Institute of Education. It included a year of planning in which decisions relative to the design of the research and the administration under which the research would occur were made and three years of fieldwork. The two-year final field study involved approximately 50 teachers and 300 students in grades two and five. Data collection activities occurred in the first year, and a series of analyses were conducted during the second.[1]

Although the study began as a search for information on which to base policy decisions regarding desirable competencies for beginning teachers, its focus ultimately shifted to identifying and describing teaching skills and their impact on student outcomes. Denham and Lieberman speculated about the significance of the study. "Perhaps the greatest BTES contribution may be that it reveals a much clearer picture of instruction and its consequences than was available heretofore. Thus, it provides a better basis on which teachers, administrators, researchers, teacher educators, and others can make decisions

_____

[1] Marjorie Powell, "The Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study: A Brief History of a Major Research Project," in Time to Learn, ed. by Carolyn Denham and Ann Lieberman (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, National Institute of Education, 1980), pp. 1-5.

regarding their practices and policies."[1]

Three useful contributions that the BTES made to staff development efforts were noted by Miller. First, and without doubt foremost, the BTES provided information that linked teaching practices to student achievement outcomes. Clues about the process of teaching and learning under specific conditions were substantiated. These clues may be used to unlock some of the blockages to learning that are inherent in teachers' classrooms. The study committed to the staff developer the task of articulating teacher input and student output linkages and guiding the attention of teachers to some of the variables that affect student achievement.

Second, the study acknowledged the complexity of teaching as an activity. It brought into focus the idea that teaching is an "intellectual puzzle" with many possible solutions, requiring many varied inputs and approaches. The study suggested the exploration of staff development issues and concerns that are theoretical as well as practical and the collaboration of staff developers and teachers on the project of improving practice.

Third, tools for opening issues and offering insights about teaching and learning and about classrooms and students were provided through the study. Staff developers and teachers were given a vocabulary for describing and assessing instruction which facilitated both the practice and evaluation aspects of teaching.[2]

---

[1] Carolyn Denham and Ann Lieberman, ed., Time to Learn (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, National Institute of Education, 1980), p. iv.

[2] Miller, "BTES: Implications for Staff Development," op cit., pp. 161-162.

Quality Practices In Inservice Education (1980)

Statements of what constitutes good practices in inservice programs were generated and validated by The Task Force on Quality Practices in Inservice Education of the National Advisory Board to the National Inservice Network. Their effort was supported by the Division of Personnel Preparation, Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Service, U.S. Department of Education.

The Task Force set out in 1979 to provide inservice education personnel with quality practice statements for planning, implementing and evaluating inservice education programs. The first set of statements was developed subsequent to a thorough review of the literature in May of that year. These statements were reviewed in September, and a validation approach was finalized.

Seventy-seven key staff development individuals from across the country were surveyed during the fall of 1979. An analysis of the survey responses assisted the Task Force in revising the quality practice statements and instrument to be used in a more extensive validation effort.

Three hundred individuals representing a broad sampling of key agencies and role groups in all fifty states formed the sample for this mail survey validation effort. General agreement by all groups regarding the importance of the inservice education practices and the difficulty of implementing the practices was found. No agreement was found relative to the frequency of occurrence of the practices in the field.

The final listing of the quality practice statements was grouped into six main categories. (See Appendix F for a complete listing of the statements.)

1. Quality practice in inservice education recognizes that programs must be integrated into and supported by the organization within which they function. A written plan of inservice, describing all components of a comprehensive system, for the district or agency should be prepared and adopted. This plan can then be used as a basis for evaluation and ongoing planning, for communication purposes and to build support for the program.

2. Quality practices in inservice education are designed to result in programs which are collaborative. A collaborative approach to inservice programs which includes participants, students and the community in all aspects of planning, delivery and evaluation should be utilized. Increased motivation, strengthened support and maximal resources are the results of utilizing such an approach.

3. Quality practices in inservice education are designed to result in programs which are needs based. The total educational system should be supported through an inservice education program. The success of such a program can be measured in terms of its contribution to strengthening the system's student programs and services.

4. Quality practices in inservice education are designed to result in programs which are responsive to changing needs. The inservice education design should be adaptable enough to meet present needs as well as the changing needs of programs, personnel and conditions. It should be planned and delivered in ways which incorporate sound principles of adult learning, recognize the findings of research on innovation and change theories and fit the nature and length of the activity to the purpose intended.

5. <u>Quality practices in inservice education are designed to result in programs which are accessible</u>. Inservice activities should take place at times and locations readily accessible to the participants. Providing the best conditions for learning should be of prime importance to the planners of inservice education activities.

6. <u>Evaluation of inservice activities is an essential component of a quality program and should be designed and conducted in ways compatible with the underlying philosophy and approach of the program</u>. Information about the context and operation of inservice programs should be systematically collected. This information can be used to assess the degree of effectiveness of the inservice education effort. It can also aid the staff developer in planning and implementing future inservice activities.[1]

The Task Force viewed inservice program activities as a process by which educational personnel are continually prepared and updated with specific knowledge, skills or attitudes necessary to perform their roles. The quality practice statements were developed to assist staff developers in assessing and monitoring their own programs relative to the process.[2]

Staff Morale

"There is general agreement that morale is a vital ingredient in the

---

[1] National Inservice Network, <u>Quality Practices Task Force Final Report</u>, op cit.

[2] Kells, "Quality Practices in Inservice Education," <u>op cit</u>., pp. 2 and 6.

success of any human enterprise."[1] So stated Bentley and Rempel in a 1970 article on teacher morale. Researchers, in industry first and more recently in education, for fifty years have recognized the illusive but powerful nature of morale. Two more recent teams of researchers penned the same sentiment with regard to the vitality of morale. Viewing morale from a total school context, Washington and Watson wrote that "there can be little doubt that high morale is basic to the effective functioning of the school."[2] Similarly, Magoon and Linkous concluded that "good morale is crucial to the operation of an effective educational program."[3]

"Vital," "basic" and "crucial" are the terms six highly respected researchers used to describe this phenomenon known as morale. But what conceptually are writers referring to when they speak of morale, what are the general perceptions of educators regarding the importance of morale, and what specific factors of an "enterprise," "school" or "educational program" are affected by or affecting the level of morale? These questions will be answered through a review of morale research.

---

[1] Ralph R. Bentley and Averno M. Rempel, "Teacher Morale: Relationship with Selected Factors," The Journal of Teacher Education, Vol. XXI Number 4 (Winter, 1970), p. 534.

[2] Roosevelt Washington, Jr. and Hoyt F. Watson, "Positive Teacher Morale -- The Principal's Responsibility," National Association of Secondary School Principals' Bulletin, Vol. 60 Number 399 (April, 1976), p. 6.

[3] Saundra W. Linkous and Robert A. Magoon, "The Principal and Effective Staff Morale," National Association of Secondary School Principals' Bulletin, Vol. 63 Number 427 (May, 1979), p. 20.

Definitions of Morale

Morale is a concept that is greatly discussed but hard to understand and even more difficult to define.[1] Teachers and administrators think they know what the word means but become confused when asked to define it.[2] Definitions of morale are as numerous as the number of writers or researchers in the field. Nevertheless, they seem to fall into three categories: job satisfaction oriented; achievement or productivity oriented; and a combination of the two. A review of the definitions in the order listed above will guide this study, as it appears that this is the order of historical development.

Morale research in its earliest days dealt with what was tentatively identified as job satisfaction. Writers of the thirties and forties used the terms job satisfaction and morale interchangeably.[3] What the writers of that era attempted to identify as job satisfiers was similar to the content and context job satisfiers and job dissatisfiers that Herzberg, starting in 1957, would delineate as the factors of his Motivation-Hygiene Theory. Capper chose to define morale as "the degree to which a teacher is satisfied and/or dissatisfied with his or her job"[4]

---

[1] Linkous and Magoon, "The Principal and Effective Staff Morale," op cit., p. 20.

[2] Washington and Watson, "Positive Teacher Morale -- The Principal's Responsibility," op cit., p. 5.

[3] Clyde E. Blocker and Richard C. Richardson, "Twenty-Five Years of Morale Research: A Critical Review," Journal of Educational Sociology, Vol. 36 (January, 1963), p. 200.

[4] George H. Capper, "A Study of Supervisory Procedures and Behaviors in Relation to Teacher Morale in Selected Cook County Schools" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Loyola University of Chicago, 1981), p. 7.

and used Herzberg's theory to determine the relative degree of teacher morale.

Another team of writers of the 1950's, in a study of the effect of salary policies on teacher morale, defined morale as the feeling of well-being, satisfaction, or psychological comfort a person has which can be related to identifiable factors in the environment or in himself.[1]

Beach said that morale refers to the general satisfaction a person derives from his job, his work, his boss, the organization, and his general environment. Morale pertains to the feeling of a person's well being, satisfaction, and happiness.[2]

This same theme of job satisfaction being a reflection of morale was expounded upon by Bentley and Rempel in their Manual for the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire. The instrument was designed to measure teacher morale, which they defined as the extent to which an individual's needs are satisfied, and the extent to which the individual perceives satisfaction from the total job situation.[3]

Kelley, in a round-about way, defined morale in the same manner when he differentiated between school climate and staff morale. He recognized the relationship of morale and climate but claimed that conceptually they were two

---

[1] B. J. Chandler and Claude Mathis, "The Effect of School Salary Policies on Teacher Morale" (unpublished research study, Northwestern University, 1957).

[2] Dale S. Beach, Personnel: The Management of People at Work (New York: Macmillan Co., 1967), pp. 478-479.

[3] R. R. Bentley and A. M. Remple, Manual for the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire (West Lafayette, IN.: University Book Store, 1967), p. 1.

distinct terms. Kelley theorized that climate involves both productivity and satisfaction as well as the relationship between the two dimensions, whereas morale concerns itself with only the satisfaction dimension.[1]

Those individuals that view morale and job satisfaction as being synonymous terms formed a research camp that is at one extreme of an imaginary continuum. On the other end of the continuum are those that see the achievement or productivity of an organization as being of utmost importance in assessing the relative level of morale. Personal needs or job satisfaction seem to take a back seat to the work at hand or goals of the organization.

In 1940 Davis, speaking from an industrial organization viewpoint, defined morale as a state of mind which allows individuals and groups willingly to subordinate their personal objectives, temporarily and within reason, to further the company's goals.[2]

Definitions such as the preceding one and those that follow which define morale from an attitudinal or emotional standpoint tend to suggest that productivity or involvement in the work itself are better indicators of morale than job satisfaction: " ... the emotional and mental reaction of a person to his job."[3] "An attitude and behavior which denote a willingness to be involved in the school

---

[1] Edgar A. Kelley, "Auditing School Climate," Educational Leadership, Vol. 39 Number 3 (December, 1981), p. 180.

[2] Ralph C. Davis, Industrial Organization and Management (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1940), p. 101.

[3] Kimball Wiles, Supervision for Better Schools (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1967).

and its work."[1] "It (morale) concerns mental or emotional attitudes of teachers toward components of their job."[2]

Griffiths recognized the desirability of job satisfaction factors being present in the work circumstance, but he contended that they must be an out-growth of a goal achievement effort and not an end to themselves. In his 1956 book on human relations, he described some manifestations of high morale that must be related directly to goal achievement. He wrote if groups exhibit a high degree of cohesiveness, think well of their leaders, do not fight much among themselves, agree on their objectives, have confidence in their equipment, and so on, then this represents high morale, but only if goals have been achieved.[3]

In one of the strongest statements supporting the idea that individual job satisfaction is subservient to productivity, Linkous and Magoon summarized the conceptual thinking of Griffiths when he wrote that high morale depends on recognition and acceptance of common goals and active resistance to anything that would hinder the fulfillment of these goals.[4] The concept of active resistance

---

[1] William H. Lucio and John D. McNeil, Supervision: A Synthesis of Thought and Action (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1979), p. 93.

[2] Maryann Castelli Kalis, "Teaching Experience: Its Effect on School Climate, Teacher Morale," National Association of Secondary School Principals' Bulletin, Vol. 64 Number 435 (April, 1980), p. 89.

[3] Daniel E. Griffiths, Human Relations in School Administration (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1956), p. 161.

[4] Linkous and Magoon, "The Principal and Effective Staff Morale," op cit., p. 21.

appears to be vital to the existence or maintenance of high morale in any group enterprise.

Perseverence, in a broad sense, was what Linkous and Magoon had in mind when they conceived of morale as "courage, confidence, discipline, enthusiasm, and endurance -- both within an individual or in relation to a group."[1] Again, the underlying theme was productivity.

Morale has not only been defined from a job satisfaction orientation or a productivity orientation but also as a combination of the two orientations. It is the successful interaction between individual needs and organizational goals.[2] Viewed from this perspective, morale is seen as being high when increased productivity is present along with maximum members' satisfaction.

Conceiving of morale as being two dimensional, Lonsdale in 1964 provided both a theoretical and functional definition of morale. In the former he stated that "morale is a measure of effectiveness in role enactment, of congruence between role perceptions and role expectations and of congruence between role expectations and need-dispositions."[3] The term congruence suggests the notion that job satisfaction and productivity are of equal importance when dealing

---

[1] Linkous and Magoon, "The Principal and Effective Staff Morale," op cit., p. 21.

[2] Surjit K. Bhella, "Principal's Leadership Style: Does It Affect Teacher Morale?" Education, Vol. 102 Number 4 (Summer, 1982), p. 369.

[3] Richard 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, ed. by Daniel E. Griffiths (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1964), pp. 165-166.

with the concept of morale. But how is this congruence actualized in an organization? Lonsdale expanded upon his theoretical definition by saying that morale is a feeling a person has resulting from a combination of perceived productivity or progress toward the achievement of the goals of the organization and perceived job satisfaction stemming from fulfillment of needs through the relationship of the worker and the total organization.[1]

Defining morale as being a combination of productivity and job satisfaction coincides with the definition often given today by researchers for one of the most studied aspects of education -- school climate. Indeed, most educators have continued to use morale and climate synonymously,[2] and authors such as Fox, Howard and Miller have sought to equate climate and morale.[3]

Although Kelley saw morale and climate as being related but conceptually distinct terms, he conceded that "when the assumption that a direct and causal link between human satisfaction and human productivity exists is the starting point for the creation or adoption of a definition of climate, climate and morale are being used as synonymous terms."[4] This assumption is the premise of the study at hand and, therefore, the reason why the third definition of morale has been chosen over the other two.

---

[1] Lonsdale, "Maintaining the Organization in Dynamic Equilibrium," op cit., pp. 165-166.

[2] Edgar A. Kelley, Improving School Climate (Reston, VA.: The National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1980), p. 1.

[3] Kelley, "Auditing School Climate," op cit., p. 180.

[4] Kelley, Improving School Climate, op cit., p. 6.

The Importance of Morale

Having defined morale from a job satisfaction and organizational pro-
ductivity standpoint, what are the general perceptions educators have regard-
ing the importance of morale in the operation of schools as they exist today?
Redefer was quoted in an article on teacher morale as saying that research in-
dicates that the quality of the educational program reflects the morale of the
staff.[1]

Two other writers, Washington and Watson, echoed the findings of
Redefer when they said that high morale is essential to the effective function-
ing of the school.[2] In other words, school effectiveness is a mirror of the level
of morale present in the institution.

Von Burg, as quoted by Ellenburg, said this about morale: "Call it
what you will. It is easy to overlook, yet it can make a school stand ahead of
the rest."[3] In expanding upon the implied importance of such a statement,
Ellenburg characterized morale as being "one of the factors which may deter-
mine whether a school functions at its best ... or whether it is happy just to see
the passing of another day."[4]

---

[1] William W. Brinkman, ed., "Studies of Teacher Morale," School and
Society, Vol. 92 Number 2239 (February 22, 1964), p. 64.

[2] Washington and Watson, "Positive Teacher Morale -- The Principal's
Responsibility," op cit., p. 6.

[3] F. C. Ellenburg, "Factors Affecting Teacher Morale," Education
Digest, Vol. XXXVIII Number 7 (March, 1973), p. 4.

[4] Ibid.

Factors Affected by Staff Morale

These general perceptions are all well and good, but what does the research and literature indicate are the specific factors affected by the level of teacher morale? Many studies have been conducted in an attempt to answer this question and, although the results are sometimes contradictory and not always conclusive, the findings all bear out the fact that morale is a powerful force in any human enterprise.

In defending the research work being done in the area of teacher morale, Bhella said that the primary objective of schools is to promote scholastic achievement of the pupils. Because teachers are directly involved in the academic progress of their students, teacher morale could be one of the most important factors affecting that achievement.[1]

Is there a relationship between the level of teacher morale and the level of student achievement? This is the question that Bhella and many other researchers for at least thirty years have attempted to answer. Although writers may occasionally allude to other factors affected by morale, such as the degree of student satisfaction, pupil attitudinal differences or teaching experience (pleasant or unpleasant), the majority of research work is centered on the factor of student achievement.

Kelley wrote that it is assumed that high staff morale in schools will lead to increased productivity by staff and to increased achievement by students.[2]

---

[1] Bhella, "Principal's Leadership Style: Does It Affect Teacher Morale?" op cit., p. 369.

[2] Kelley, Improving School Climate, op cit., p. 6.

Although Kelley viewed productivity as being an assumed byproduct of school morale rather than an integral part of morale, as this study has proposed, he, nevertheless, recognized the relevance of identifying variables that affect the factor of student achievement.

Miller who saw a relationship between school climate and staff morale but tended to differentiate between the two twice in one article talked about the factor of pupil learning. He wrote that there is a relationship involving staff morale, school climate, and educational productivity which directly relates to pupil learning and effective staff performance.[1] Research indicates that the social climate of the school and the morale of the staff can positively affect pupil attitudes and learning.[2]

Student achievement is indeed the one dominant factor that continues to be studied in relationship to staff morale. And, although some researchers have disputed the findings of others, it appears that there is sufficient empirical evidence to conclude that there is a causal relationship between the two variables.

In 1969 Harap concluded that "there is some evidence that, when teacher morale is high, productivity or student achievement is increased."[3] More recently, and much more emphatically, Bhella prefaced the reason for studying

---

[1] William C. Miller, "Staff Morale, School Climate and Educational Productivity," Educational Leadership, Vol. 38 Number 6 (March, 1981), p. 486.

[2] Ibid., p. 483.

[3] Evie G. Dennis, "An Exploratory Analysis of School Climates: Factors Affecting Morale in the Schools" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Nova University, 1973), pp. 1-2.

the issue of morale by saying that "research indicates that there is a clear relationship between teacher morale and pupil achievement."[1]

What research has been done that would support statements such as these? A chronology of research related to the effect of levels of teacher morale on student achievement, starting with the work of Anderson in the 1950's, will offer credence to the proposed positional statement.

In assessing the impact of teacher morale on the educational process from a commonsense viewpoint, Anderson stated that it is logical to assume that the quality of instruction and guidance which pupils receive depends to some extent upon the morale of the person doing the teaching.[2]

The suggested corollary to this statement is that the higher the level of teacher morale the more effective the teacher becomes delivering instruction.

Anderson then went on to prove through research that this corollary was true and that delivering instruction in a more effective manner would result in increased student achievement. In 1950, in a study of 20 Iowa secondary schools, Anderson sought to determine the relationship between teacher morale and student achievement. He used the Iowa Tests of Educational Development to measure student achievement, while interviews were used to determine teacher morale. What he found is summarized in an article he wrote three years later:

---

[1] Bhella, "Principal's Leadership Style: Does It Affect Teacher Morale?" op cit., p. 371.

[2] Lester W. Anderson, "Teacher Morale and Student Achievement," Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 46 (May, 1953), p. 694.

Teachers in secondary schools whose pupils achieve relatively high scho-
lastically appear to have higher morale than do teachers in schools with
relatively low pupil achievement. It seems plausible to assume, there-
fore, that morale of teachers does make a difference in the scholastic
achievement of their pupils. Apparently teachers with relatively high
morale can be expected to teach more effectively.[1]

In the early 1960's Koura conducted a study of twelve secondary public

schools in Dearborn, Michigan. His findings were included in his unpublished

doctoral dissertation on "An Experimental Study of Students' Achievement in Re-

lation to the High Morale of Selected Secondary School Teachers" and suggested

that students achieved more under teachers with high morale and less under

teachers with low morale.[2] Of significance is the fact that this study substan-

tiated Anderson's findings, which had been refuted for methodological reasons,

and bore out the relationship of teacher morale and student achievement at both

ends of the continuum.

Two other studies of the 1970's bore out relatively the same conclu-

sions as the earlier research in this field. The first one was conducted by

Dennis in 1973 and involved an exploratory analysis of school climates in an at-

tempt to factor out elements which affect the morale in the schools. Dennis was

able to produce evidence that when teacher morale was high, student achieve-

ment increased.[3]

---

[1] Anderson, "Teacher Morale and Student Achievement," op cit., p. 696.

[2] Ellenburg, "Factors Affecting Teacher Morale," op cit., p. 5.

[3] Linkous and Magoon, "The Principal and Effective Staff Morale,"
op cit., p. 21.

In the mid-1970's Strosberg conducted an investigation into the relationship between quality education and teacher morale in selected schools in Orange County, Florida. His findings indicated that the morale of the teacher varied with the quality of the educational program. Teachers in schools with high-quality educational programs attained a higher morale score than did teachers in the low-quality schools. This study consistently proved that the morale of the teachers was directly related to the achievement of the learners.[1]

Factors that Affect Staff Morale

Since there is a perceived and empirically proven relationship between teacher morale and student achievement, then it is of utmost importance to determine which factors, individually or in combination, affect the level of staff morale. In other words, what does the research and literature say are the factors that affect staff morale, that in turn impact on education's most important output measure -- student achievement?

There are two ways in which researchers have attempted to identify the factors that affect staff morale. The first way is to hypothesize that a single variable (or several in combination) affects staff morale, assess the level of staff morale of a given sample (holding the variable(s) constant), analyze the data and draw conclusions. This is the approach taken in this study on the impact of staff development on staff morale. A second way is to assess the level of staff morale of a given sample, identify the variables of the study, analyze

---

[1] Linkous and Magoon, "The Principal and Effective Staff Morale," op cit., p. 21.

the impact of each variable and draw conclusions. Several research studies will be reviewed in the next section of this paper to demonstrate each of the two approaches. The first to be examined will be those of the second approach, or what may be considered deductive research efforts.

As was mentioned earlier in this section on the studies on morale, much of the early morale research dealt with job satisfaction. Two major research efforts were directed at the identification of job satisfiers and job dissatisfiers. The first was conducted by Herzberg in the late 1950's. Herzberg developed a theory, the Motivation-Hygiene Theory, which suggested that certain factors generally tend to affect the job satisfaction or dissatisfaction of organizational workers. Job satisfaction factors identified by Herzberg include achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility and advancement. Job dissatisfaction factors are salary, possibility of growth, interpersonal relations (subordinates), interpersonal relations (superiors), interpersonal relations (peers), supervision (technical), company policy and administration, working conditions, personal life, status and job security. Herzberg contended that the two categories of factors were mutually exclusive and that the satisfiers were related to work it-self, whereas the dissatisfiers were related to the work environment.[1]

Capper utilized the research of Herzberg and incorporated the factors identified by him into a questionnaire to determine which factors teachers and principals identified as affecting teacher morale. Capper concluded that the

---

[1] Frederick Herzberg, The Managerial Choice (Homewood, IL.: Dow Jones-Irwin, 1976), pp. 49-68.

data derived from his questionnaire supported both Herzberg's ideas and the concepts of the Motivation-Hygiene Theory in that both principals and teachers considered the content of work factors (satisfiers) and the context of work factors (dissatisfiers) to have significant influence on teacher morale. Any differences between the responses of principals and teachers concerned ranking rather than identification.[1]

Another research effort designed to determine factors affecting teacher satisfaction and dissatisfaction was conducted by Johnson. The job satisfiers identified were very similar to Herzberg's in that they included achievement, recognition, work itself and responsibility. Johnson, however, found interpersonal relations to be a fifth factor and did not include advancement as a job satisfier. Factors statistically related to teacher job dissatisfaction were policy and administration, working conditions, status and personal life.[2]

In one of the oldest research efforts dealing with an assessment of factors which affect teacher morale, Linder (1955) developed a list of twelve causes of lowered morale. Among the twelve, deemed to be the most important, were lack of leadership, failure to evaluate work, lack of policy, classroom interruptions and poor faculty meetings.[3]

---

[1] Capper, "A Study of Supervisory Procedures and Behaviors in Relation to Teacher Morale in Selected Cook County Schools," op cit., p. 126.

[2] Ellenburg, "Factors Affecting Teacher Morale," op cit., pp. 6-7.

[3] Blocker and Richardson, "Twenty-Five Years of Morale Research: A Critical Review," op cit., p. 202.

On the opposite end of the continuum, Napier identified the following thirteen factors associated with high teacher morale:

> ... the administrator's understanding and appreciation of the teacher as an individual; the confidence the teacher has in the administrator's professional competence; the support the teacher receives from the administration regarding discipline problems; teacher participation in formulation of policies that affect them; adequate facilities and equipment; adequate teaching supplies; teaching assignments commensurable with training; fair and equitable distribution of extracurricular assignments; professional training provided through in-service programs; job security; adequate policy for leaves of absence; fair and equitable distribution of the teaching load; and salaries that are at least comparable with those of other professions requiring equal training.[1]

Of special significance to this study is the inclusion of "professional training through in-service programs," as this (staff development) is the factor being investigated in association with levels of staff morale.

Two research studies specifically designed to identify factors that affect the level of teacher morale, both high and low, produced a rather long laundry list of items. In the first study, Suehr identified many characteristics of teachers with high or low morale. He discovered that teachers found to have high morale were more often females, had taught longer, felt they fulfilled their parents' expectations for them, grew up in an urban society, went to bed and got up early, came from the upper or upper middle class, indicated both their parents were happy in their respective occupations, felt their childhood family was very close, felt they have more close friends, rated their personality type as slightly introverted, and indicated a stout or plump body-type.[2]

---

[1] Ellenburg, "Factors Affecting Teacher Morale," op cit., pp. 6-7.

[2] Ellenburg, "Factors Affecting Teacher Morale," op cit., p. 7.

Teachers in Suehr's survey found to have low morale more often knew or estimated their IQ to be above average, taught in schools where parent dissatisfaction is greater, felt their fullest potential had not been reached, felt they are stubborn in personality make-up, felt they repressed their true feelings less, considered themselves more or less gregarious rather than average, indicated an opposite-sexed parent had influenced them more, considered their self-confidence to be greater, considered themselves above or below average in degree of perseverence, were the youngest child, felt their personal appearance to be above average, rated their degree of ambition as being greater, and indicated higher consumption of alcoholic beverages.[1]

Strickland found that the ten most significant factors that tend to raise teacher morale were, in descending order, cooperation and helpful co-workers, helpful and supportive principal, appreciative and cooperative parents, adequate school supplies and equipment, freedom in classroom teaching, respectful pupils, adequate school facility, pupils interested in school work, helpful supervisor, and well-organized school with defined policies.[2]

The ten most significant factors found to have a tendency of lowering teacher morale were lack of relief from pupil contact during the school day, clerical duties, lack of cooperation and support from principal, inadequate school facility, lack of staff cooperation, excessive teaching load, low salary,

---

[1] Ellenburg, "Factors Affecting Teacher Morale," op cit., p. 7.

[2] Ibid.

lack of parent cooperation and involvement, poor pupil discipline, and inadequate school equipment and supplies.[1]

Although most researchers realize, as Dennis pointed out, that morale is a function of many interrelated variables rather than one or more isolated variables,[2] not every researcher has identified such long lists of factors. Most, indeed, have been able to delineate a small and workable number of factors that impact most directly on morale. In fact, when the list is narrowed down to three, four or five factors it becomes much more easy to see a common thread that weaves in and out of most morale-related studies. That common thread is the administrator -- his attitudes, policies, procedures, understanding of individual teachers and philosophical approach to problems. Over and over again the literature proclaims the administrator as being the major factor in teacher morale. A brief review of several other research efforts in the field of morale will give credence to the proclamation.

Blocker and Richardson, in their summary of twenty-five years of morale research, reviewed no less than five studies (Hand, 1948; Shilland, 1949; Schultz, 1952; Linder, 1955; and Miller, 1959) in which the researchers concluded that the administrator was one of the most important factors in boosting teacher morale. It is no wonder, then, that they concluded their article by saying that "the administrator appears in study after study as the key person

[1] Ellenburg, "Factors Affecting Teacher Morale," op cit., p. 7.

[2] Dennis, "An Exploratory Analysis of School Climates: Factors Affecting Morale in the Schools," op cit., p. 5.

with respect to morale."[1]

Ellenburg analyzed the research efforts of many of his contemporaries of the 1960's (Burkett, Sweat, Leiman, Napier, Strickland) and came to the same conclusion that Blocker and Richardson did some ten years earlier. He summarized his research by saying that the administrator plays a significant role in the establishment and maintenance of morale among the staff of a school.[2]

Beamer studying the relationship of administrative practices to teacher morale found that there were indeed four practices (factors) that tended to strengthen teacher morale. They were: cooperative practices between teachers and principals; support of teachers; recognition of teacher accomplishments; and cultivating friendly and understanding relations by principals. On the other hand, lack of support for teachers and unavailability of the principal tended to weaken teacher morale.[3]

Laird and Luetkemeyer's study of 179 vocational-technical teachers at fourteen vocational centers in Maryland led them to conclude that teacher morale was related to the leader behavior of the principal and that teacher morale was significantly related to the principal's system orientation as well as

---

[1] Blocker and Richardson, "Twenty-Five Years of Morale Research: A Critical Review," op cit., p. 208.

[2] Ellenburg, "Factors Affecting Teacher Morale," op cit., p. 8.

[3] John Leo Beamer, "The Relationship of Administrative Leadership Practices to Teacher Morale in the Public Elementary Schools of Charles County, Maryland," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, George Washington University, 1969).

his person orientation.[1]

Keeler and Andrews, examining the leader behavior of principals in relation to staff morale and productivity, identified the important role of school administrators as "climate determiners." They concluded that the impact of the leader's behavior as a key element in establishing good morale was strongly supported.[2]

The second approach used by researchers as they study the factors affecting staff morale is the inductive approach. In this approach, researchers identify single factors, or factors in combination, that they wish to study relative to the impact they may or may not have on staff morale and then proceed to test their hypotheses. Empirical research efforts utilizing the second approach are rather limited. One major study will be reviewed in this section of the paper, with reference made to other studies as each variable of the study is examined.

The study under investigation was conducted by Rempel and Bentley in the mid and late 1960's. The purpose of the study was twofold: to determine what differences existed in teacher morale for selected factors (instrument data); and to identify more specifically the elements (personal data) responsible for the differences. For this research review, the second half of the purpose takes precedence.

---

[1] Robert Laird and Joseph F. Luetkemeyer, "The Relationship Between the Leader Behavior of Principals and Teacher Morale in the Vocational Centers of Maryland," Journal of Industrial Teacher Education (Spring, 1976), p. 74.

[2] Miller, "Staff Morale, School Climate, and Educational Productivity," op cit., p. 486.

Rempel and Bentley assessed the level of staff morale of 3,075 second-ary school teachers in 60 Indiana and 16 Oregon schools using the Purdue Teach-er Opinionaire. They also secured from the state departments of the two states personal data for the responding teachers relative to state, sex, degrees held, age, size of faculty, teaching experience, salary and teaching assignment. The findings of their study, as they relate to the eight personal characteristics, are summarized below:

1. State. Little differences in mean total morale scores for Indiana and Oregon teachers were found.

2. Sex. The mean scores for women in practically all of the indivi-dual morale factors were higher than the mean scores for men and significantly higher in four of the ten factors. The mean differences for the total scores were significant at the .05 level.

Other research efforts (Schultz, Suehr, Leiman) have found that the level of morale was directly related to sex, with women having significantly higher morale than men. However, Rempel and Bentley's study suggested that the difference can be attributed primarily to the individual factors of salary and status.

3. Degree Held. Marked differences were observed in the mean total morale score between teachers holding the master's degree and those holding the bachelor's degree. Teachers holding a master's degree had higher morale than those with the backelor's degree.

4. _Age._ For the majority of teachers, there was a gradual upward progression in the level of morale with increasing age.

5. _Size of Faculty._ Total morale scores showed very little difference when comparisons were made between schools according to size. No attempt was made to measure the difference in teacher morale relative to class size. However, it may be assumed that the level of morale would be greatly affected by unfair or inequitable distribution of the teaching load. Hand and Napier's research on factors associated with high teacher morale substantiated this assumption.

6. _Teacher Experience._ Results obtained indicated that teacher morale was significantly related to total years of experience. As with age, there was a gradual progression in the level of morale with number of years of teaching experience.

This finding is compatible with Suehr's conclusion that one of the characteristics of high morale teachers was that they had taught longer. However, Kalis' research into the effect of length of service on teacher morale produced just the opposite finding. She found, in a very limited study of one school faculty, that there was a steady increase in negative feelings and perceptions of the school climate with the increase of teaching experience. The longer one was in the school, the more negative one became.[1]

7. _Teacher Salary._ There was a high correlation between salary level

---

[1] Kalis, "Teaching Experience: Its Effect on School Climate, Teacher Morale," _op cit._, p. 96.

and the level of morale. The higher the salary, the higher the level of morale.

Several studies have been conducted on the impact of salary on morale with mixed results. Miller in a survey of Texas administrators and teachers found, as did Rempel and Bentley, that one of the most important factors in boosting teacher morale was salary.

Another study reviewed by Blocker and Richardson was one conducted by Shilland. He attempted to determine the importance of various factors in the morale of teachers in a country school system in northern West Virginia and concluded that fair compensation was one of the factors essential to good morale.[1] This research finding was borne out by Napier who concluded that high teacher morale was associated with salaries that are at least comparable with those of other professions requiring equal training.[2]

In addition to the findings of Napier, Ellenburg included the review of two other research efforts. In the first study, Redefer polled 5,000 teachers to get their opinions of factors affecting teacher morale. He learned, among other things, that salary was not a factor in determining morale status of teachers. Similarly, Johnson, in his study of the factors affecting teacher satisfaction, found that salary was one of the five factors which did not show statistical relation to either satisfaction or dissatisfaction of teachers with their jobs.[3]

---

[1] Blocker and Richardson, "Twenty-Five Years of Morale Research: A Critical Review," op cit., pp. 206-207.

[2] Ellenburg, "Factors Affecting Teacher Morale," op cit., p. 8.

[3] Ibid., pp. 5 and 7.

8. .Major Teaching Area. The means for total morale scores did not differ significantly among the different subject area groups.

Rempel and Bentley summarized their research work by saying that teacher morale was influenced by many personal and situational factors. In order to evaluate teacher morale meaningfully, comparison should be based on the components that make up morale.[1]

Summary of Literature Review

Chapter II has provided a review of the research and literature relative to the topics of staff development and staff morale. The evolution of staff development was traced from early colonial days when teacher training was non-existent through the early 1900's when the emphasis was on training individuals in isolation, to the present day goal of training staffs as a whole. Although most of the staff development writings found in the literature were simple program summaries, six major research studies provided sufficient data to determine the necessary elements of a formalized staff development program.

Staff morale was defined in section two of the literature review as a combination of productivity and job satisfaction. Factors affected by and affecting staff morale were identified. Student achievement was the one factor most often cited by researchers as being affected by staff morale, whereas the administrator was found to be the most important factor with respect to morale.

---

[1] Bentley and Rempel, "Teacher Morale: Relationship with Selected Factors," op cit., pp. 534-539.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to analyze selected school districts to determine the impact of formalized staff development program elements on staff morale. Several sub-purposes emerged that provided focus for the study. They were: (1) to review the research and literature to determine the necessary elements of a formalized staff development program; (2) to review the research and literature to determine the factors affecting and affected by the level of staff morale; (3) to determine the extent or degree to which the necessary elements of a formalized staff development program are present in selected school districts; (4) to determine the level of staff morale in selected school districts: and (5) to determine the relationship that existed between the presence of formalized staff development program elements and the level of staff morale in selected school districts.

Whereas the first two chapters provided the foundation and basis of this research study, this chapter introduces the research methodology utilized to accomplish the purposes of this study. That methodology consisted of: instrumentation, population and sample, data collection procedure, unit of analysis and statistical analysis.

Instrumentation

Two instruments were used in the study to answer questions relative to

levels of staff development efforts and staff morale in selected school districts.
One instrument had recently been developed, whereas the other instrument had
been used extensively by researchers for many years.

The <u>Quality Practices in Inservice Education Questionnaire</u> was used to
determine the extent or degree the necessary elements of a formalized staff de-
velopment program were present in selected school districts. The content and
format of the questionnaire were developed over a period of one year by the
Task Force on Quality Practices in Inservice Education of the National Advisory
Board to the National Inservice Network. In 1979 the task force developed the
first generation of statements of quality practices in inservice education pro-
grams, a model which would categorize and display the statements and an ap-
proach to validate them within the field.

Key individuals from across the country who were actively involved in
inservice programs were surveyed. An analysis by the task force of the res-
ponses resulted in a revision of statements of quality practices, the model and
the instrument to be used in more extensive validation efforts. The survey in-
strument was simplified to include only three areas (planning, implementation
and evaluation) in which the respondents were asked to rate the statements of
quality practices. (See Appendix E)

Individuals representing a broad sampling of key agencies and role
groups in all of the states provided data relative to the validity of the quality
practice statements and the inservice model. The design of the instrument also
provided information regarding the perceived frequency of occurrence of the

quality practices in school systems and the difficulty in implementation of the practices.

General agreement by all groups as to the importance of the quality practices, the practicality and use of the conceptual model and the difficulty of implementing the practices was indicated through an analysis of the data. Agreement on the frequency of occurrence of the practices in the field was not found.[1]

The final listing of the quality practice statements, generated and validated by the task force, became the content for the questionnaire used in the current study to assess the status of staff development programs in the chosen population. The design of the questionnaire was similar to the task force questionnaire in that the statements were divided into three areas (planning, implementation and evaluation) and a rating scale of little, somewhat, considerable and great was used. It was dissimilar to the extent that the three major areas were not broken down further into subcategories of management, participants and students, and questions relative to the importance of specified inservice practices, the perceived frequency of occurrence of these practices and the difficulty of implementing these practices were not asked. Instead, respondents (superintendents) in this phase of the study were asked only to indicate to what extent each of the quality practices was presently occurring in their school district.

Halpin and Croft's <u>Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire</u> (OCDQ) was employed in this study to determine the level of staff morale in

---

[1] National Inservice Network, <u>Quality Practices Task Force Final Report</u> (Bloomington, IN.: Indiana University School of Education, 1980).

selected school districts. Developed in 1963, this instrument's influence relative to climate (morale) research is widely recognized by both researchers and reviewers. Because of the clarity with which Halpin described his concept of organizational climate and the relative simplicity with which the OCDQ assessment can be used in the practical school situation, Halpin and Croft's questionnaire has become the most popular and widely used technique for assessing the organizational climate of schools.

Working under a grant from the United States Office of Education, Halpin and Croft carried out what they called an exploratory inquiry. The approach they employed involved developing a descriptive questionnaire to identify important aspects of teacher-teacher and teacher-principal interactions. Using teachers' descriptions of their school experience and previous research findings, Halpin and Croft developed a set of sixty-four items called the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire. The items composing this questionnaire were selected for their ability to indicate consistencies in faculty members' perceptions within their schools and to allow for comparisons among different schools.

In their original study, Halpin and Croft administered the OCDQ to elementary school respondents from across the country. Using the statistical technique known as factor analysis, the sixty-four item OCDQ was divided into eight subtests. Four of the subtests tapped the characteristics of the faculty as a group, and the other four pertained to characteristics of the principal as leader. The eight subtests, in combination, were named the eight dimensions of

school climate.

The group subtests were intended to measure Disengagement (teachers' tendency to be "not with it"); Hindrance (teachers' feeling that the principal burdens them with routine duties and committee demands rather than facilitates their work); Esprit (teachers' feeling that their social needs are satisfied and that they have accomplished something); and Intimacy (teachers' enjoyment of friendly social relations with each other).

The leader behavior subtests were intended to measure Aloofness (principal is seen as formal and impersonal); Thrust (principal is seen as task oriented and wanting to "move the organization"); Consideration (principal is seen as treating teachers "humanly"); and Production Emphasis (principal is seen as highly directive and not sensitive to staff feedback).[1]

Halpin and Croft also identified, through factor analysis of the eight subtests, six basic school climates that are arrayed along a continuum from open to closed: Open, Autonomous, Controlled, Familiar, Paternal and Closed. In general, the Closed Climates (Familiar, Paternal and Closed) tend to have uncommitted teachers and principals who dictate rules, are critical and provide for few meetings and informal gatherings. Open Climates (Open, Autonomous, and Controlled) tend to have staffs who are interested in their work and cooperate with each other and have principals who interact frequently and positively

---

[1] ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management Research Action Brief, "School Climate," Number 4 (University of Oregon, Eugene, OR., February, 1978), p. 3.

with teachers and students.[1]

One straightforward way to determine the relative openness or closedness of a set of school climates, and the one chosen for this study, is to make use of the following Climate Openness Index:

Openness Index = Thrust Score + Esprit Score - Disengagement Score

The higher the index, the more open the climate of the school. These three subtests are the most important characteristics of open and closed climates, and when used together they tend to identify the climate profiles described by Halpin and Croft.[2]

According to Hoy and Miskel, "the eight subtests constitute what appear to be valid and reliable measures of school climate. These subtests form a profile of a school that can be used for research, evaluation, in-service work, or self-analysis. In addition, the openness index provides a means of comparing one's school with others along an open-closed continuum."[3]

Population and Sample

A target population consisting of all elementary school district superintendents (115) and all elementary school district teachers (14,467) in Cook

---

[1] Carolyn S. Anderson, "The Search for School Climate: A Review of the Research," Review of Educational Research, Fall, 1982, p. 377.

[2] W. K. Hoy and C. G. Miskel, Educational Administration: Theory Research and Practice (New York: Random House, 1982), p. 191.

[3] Ibid., p. 192.

County, Illinois (excluding the Chicago Public School System) was selected. All elementary school district superintendents within the target population were mailed an inservice education questionnaire. Seventy-seven percent or 89 superintendents returned the questionnaire. One thousand one hundred sixteen teachers from the 89 elementary school districts that responded to the initial questionnaire were mailed a climate (morale) questionnaire. (Two teachers from every school in the district, or approximately 10% of the entire district teaching staff, whichever was greater, were included in this phase of the study.) An attempt was made to establish a rotational system that would ensure grade level representation of all nine grades. Seven hundred sixty-one (68%) teachers from 78 (88%) of the elementary school districts returned the questionnaire.

The study sample, used to determine what relationship existed between staff development efforts and staff morale, consisted of fifty-eight elementary school district superintendents and five hundred ninety-nine elementary school teachers from Cook County, Illinois (excluding the Chicago Public School System) who met the following criteria: the superintendent and a minimum of two teachers from single-school districts returned the questionnaires; or, the superintendent and a minimum of three teachers from multiple-school districts returned the questionnaires; and the superintendent indicated a consistent extent of involvement in all three areas of staff development.

The study sample was representative of the selected population, as shown in Table 1, in that proportionately the percentage of school districts from each quadrant of Cook County was roughly the same.

TABLE 1

Geographic Area

	Population		Study Sample	
	# of Districts	% of Population	# of Districts	% of Sample
North-Northwest	32	28	22	29.0
West	30	26	18	23.7
South	33	29	21	27.6
Southwest	20	17	15	19.7
	115		76	

Also, the percentage of districts when classified by size (as seen in Table 2 - Number of Schools, Table 3 - Number of Teachers and Table 4 - Student Enrollment) varied little proportionately from population to sample.

TABLE 2

Number of Schools

	Population		Study Sample	
	# of Districts	% of Population	# of Districts	% of Sample
Small (less than 4)	70	61	49	64
Medium (5-9)	33	29	18	24
Large (more than 10)	12	10	9	12
	115		76	

TABLE 3

Number of Teachers

	Population		Study Sample	
	# of Districts	% of Population	# of Districts	% of Sample
Small (less than 99)	67	58	47	62
Medium (100-199)	34	30	19	25
Large (more than 200)	14	12	10	13
	115		76	

TABLE 4

Student Enrollment

	Population		Study Sample	
	# of Districts	% of Population	# of Districts	% of Sample
Small (less than 1,499)	61	53	43	57
Medium (1,500 - 2,999)	37	32	20	26
Large (more than 3,000)	17	15	13	17
	115		76	

Data Collection Procedure

Procedures used in the data collection process were as follows:

1. The research and literature were reviewed relative to the topics of formalized staff development program elements and staff morale.

2. The National Inservice Network Quality Practices Task Force Quality Practices In Inservice Education Questionnaire was mailed to all elementary

school district superintendents in Cook County, Illinois (excluding the Chicago Public School System). It was introduced with a cover letter stating the background of the writer as a doctoral candidate from Loyola University of Chicago, the purpose of the study, and the anonymity of all respondents. A fact sheet accompanied the questionnaire which asked for the following: number of schools; student enrollment; number of teachers; student-teacher ratio; number of administrators; assessed valuation of district; and median salary schedule. A self-addressed, stamped return envelope was enclosed in the mailing. All superintendents were asked to return the questionnaire and fact sheet.

3. A follow-up mailing for non-respondents to the questionnaire and fact sheet was completed.

4. Halpin and Croft's Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire was mailed to a selected sample of the staff of each school district that responded to the initial questionnaire. A fact sheet accompanied the questionnaire which asked for the following: student enrollment; number of teachers; teaching (grade) level; class size; tenure status; total years' teaching experience; age; sex; race; degree status.

5. Letters of appreciation were sent to all superintendents who participated in the study.

6. The data received from the questionnaires and fact sheets were tabulated and analyzed.

7. Conclusions were drawn and recommendations were made.

Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis for this study was individual elementary school districts. Information relative to the degree necessary elements of staff development programs were present in a given district was obtained through the superintendent, the chief administrator of the school district. A selected sample of teachers provided information relative to the level of staff morale in a given district. No attempt was made to analyze individual or individual school responses to either of the two instruments employed. Indeed, one of the assurances made in the introductory letters to both superintendents and teachers was that all information would be kept strictly confidential.

Statistical Analysis

Three forms of analysis were used to answer the five research questions of this study. A qualitative analysis of the research and literature was conducted in the first two questions to determine both the necessary elements of a formalized staff development program and the factors affecting and affected by the level of staff morale. Two instruments were chosen, as a result of these analyses, to assess the present status of staff development efforts and to determine the present level of staff morale.

The Quality Practices in Inservice Education Questionnaire was used in the staff development assessment asked for in question three. The content and format of the instrument were developed by the Task Force on Quality Practices in Inservice Education and modified for use in this study only to the extent that quality practice statements were divided into three areas: planning,

implementation and evaluation. A three-step process was utilized to categorize school districts by degree of involvement in these formalized staff development program practices. Simple descriptive statistics (mean, variance and standard deviation) were utilized in step one to analyze the staff development data by area. Using the mean scores, the districts were then broken down by area into quartiles. Finally, the districts were placed into the four following categories based on their combined quartile placement for each of the three areas.

Great Extent -- three first quartiles or two first quartiles and one second quartile.

Moderate Extent -- three middle quartiles (second or third) or two middle quartiles and one first or fourth quartile.

Little Extent -- three fourth quartiles or two fourth quartiles and one third quartile.

Inconsistent Extent -- three different quartiles or two areas more than one quartile apart.

The level of staff morale for each school district in response to question four was determined through the use of the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire. A selected sample of teachers from each attendance area in the district provided the initial assessment. These teacher ratings were then combined district wide and broken down into eight subtests. Again, the mean, variance and standard deviation were used to analyze the eight subtests' data.

The relative openness or closedness of each district was then determined

by extracting three subtests' mean scores and placing them into the following Climate Openness Index:

Openness Index = Thrust Score + Esprit Score - Disengagement Score

Since the Openness Index data revealed that all districts were in the open range of the continuum, the districts were divided equally into three sub-groups: Extremely Open, Moderately Open and Minimally Open.

Chi-square, a test of statistical significance, was used to determine the relationship between the presence of formalized staff development elements and the level of staff morale, as addressed in question five. Cell frequencies expected if no relationship was present between the two variables were compu-ted and then compared to the actual or observed frequencies. Small values of chi-square indicated the absence of a relationship, whereas the larger posi-tive chi-square score implied that some sort of a systematic relationship existed between the variables that was not due to chance.

In order to determine whether a systematic relationship did exist be-tween staff development efforts and staff morale, it was necessary to ascertain the probability of obtaining a value of chi-square as large or larger than the one calculated from the sample, when in fact the variables were actually inde-pendent. A two-way crosstabulation of the extent of the staff development ef-fort by levels of staff morale was used to compute the exact probability.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF DATA AND ANALYSIS

This chapter presents the data that were gathered using the <u>Quality</u>

<u>Practices In Inservice Education Questionnaire</u> and the <u>Organizational Climate</u>

<u>Description Questionnaire</u>. These data were gathered to answer the following

research questions:

[1]3. To what extent are the necessary elements of a formalized staff

development program present in ∙selected Cook County school districts?

4. What is the level of staff morale in selected Cook County school

districts?

5. What is the relationship between the presence of formalized staff

development program elements and the level of staff morale in selected Cook

County school districts?

Research Question Number Three

<u>To what extent are the necessary elements of a formalized
staff development program present in selected Cook County
school districts?</u>

---

[1] Research questions 1 and 2, dealing with the necessary elements of a
formalized staff development program and the factors affecting and affected by
the level of staff morale as found in literature and research, were answered in
Chapter II.

The Quality Practices In Inservice Education Questionnaire was administered to 89 Cook County (excluding the Chicago Public School System) elementary school superintendents. These superintendents were the chief administrators of districts that ranged in school number from 1 to 28 and varied in student enrollment from 225 to 15,600. The districts employed between 10 and 950 teachers. Administrators within the districts varied in number from 1 to 50. The 89 districts varied in wealth, as determined by the assessed valuation, from 10.5 million to just over 1 billion dollars. Mean bachelor's and master's degree salaries for the districts were $19,410 and $21,957 respectively. Only 11 districts had a doctor's degree salary schedule.

The Quality Practices In Inservice Education Questionnaire contains statements that constitute "good" practices in inservice education. Using a scale of one to four (1 = little; 2 = somewhat; 3 = considerable; 4 = great) the superintendents were asked to assess the extent these "good" inservice practices were occurring in their school district. These practices were divided into three areas: planning, implementation and evaluation.

As a group, the extent of involvement in all three areas of inservice education was "considerable." Means for the three separate areas, as indicated in Table 5, were: planning (2.72), implementation (2.85) and evaluation (2.76). The superintendents assessed the occurrence of implementation practices as being slightly greater than that of planning and evaluation. Standard deviation and variance measures indicated a great deal of homogenity in the data, as the degree of dispersion about the mean for all three areas was statistically small.

TABLE 5

Superintendents' Inservice Data Summary*

Variable	Mean	SD	Variance	N
Planning	2.72	0.55	0.30	89
Implementation	2.85	0.42	0.17	89
Evaluation	2.76	0.57	0.33	89

* As measured by the Quality Practices In Inservice Education Questionnaire.

Even when the 89 districts were examined individually, as in Table 6, the vast majority fell in the "considerable" range (2.5 - 3.49) for all three areas.

TABLE 6

Occurrence of District Inservice Practice by Area*

Extent	Mean Scores	Planning N	Planning %	Implementation N	Implementation %	Evaluation N	Evaluation %
Little	1.0 - 1.49	3	3%			1	1%
Somewhat	1.5 - 2.49	24	27%	20	22%	24	27%
Considerable	2.5 - 3.49	59	66%	65	73%	54	61%
Great	3.5 - 4.0	3	3%	4	4%	10	11%

*As measured by the Quality Practices In Inservice Education Questionnaire.

The extent of occurrence at both ends of the scale was minimal (less than 4%) for all three areas, save evaluation. The extent of occurrence for eleven percent of the districts in that area was "great." No district was found

to be doing "little" in the implementation area.

Since the quality practice scores were so closely clustered around the middle of the continuum ("somewhat" and "considerable"), they were divided, for analysis purposes, by area into quartiles. The 89 districts were then compared in terms of quartile placement for each of the three areas. Findings of this comparison revealed that 21 (24%) districts were primarily in the first quartile for all three areas, 28 (31%) were primarily in the two middle quartiles, 18 (20%) were primarily in the fourth quartile and 22 (25%) were primarily in three different quartiles. Names were arbitrarily given to these new categories of quality practices occurrence and defined as follows:

Great Extent -- three first quartiles or two first quartiles and
   one second quartile.

Moderate Extent -- three middle quartiles (second or third) or
   two middle quartiles and one first or fourth quartile.

Little Extent -- three fourth quartiles or two fourth quartiles
   and one third quartile.

Inconsistent Extent -- three different quartiles or two areas
   more than one quartile apart.

Tables 7 through 10 provide categorical listings of the 89 districts and their inservice area subscores.

TABLE 7

Extent of District Inservice Practice
Occurrence by Quartile*

Great Extent
Three 1st quartiles or two 1st quartiles and one 2nd quartile
(2nd quartile in parenthesis)

Mean Scores

District ID Number	Planning	Implementation	Evaluation
1	3.44	3.20	3.75
2	3.22	3.00 (2)	3.50
3	2.89 (2)	3.53	3.25
6	3.17	3.33	3.63
8	3.33	3.27	3.50
14	3.39	3.20	3.00 (2)
19	3.44	3.33	3.50
21	3.83	3.33	3.63
22	3.06 (2)	3.20	3.50
27	3.33	3.40	3.25
28	3.06 (2)	3.47	3.50
31	3.78	3.40	2.88 (2)
33	3.44	3.33	3.13 (2)
42	3.06 (2)	3.47	3.25
43	3.17	3.60	3.38
47	3.17	3.20	3.00 (2)
60	3.44	3.07 (2)	3.63
64	3.17	3.20	3.38
69	3.33	3.07 (2)	3.38
87	3.22	3.60	3.25
88	3.00 (2)	3.33	3.38

*As measured by the Quality Practices In Inservice Education Questionnaire.

TABLE 8

Extent of District Inservice Practice
Occurrence by Quartile*

Moderate Extent
Three middle quartiles or two middle quartiles and
one 1st or 4th quartile
(1st or 4th quartile in parenthesis)

Mean Scores

District ID Number	Planning	Implementation	Evaluation
4	2.56	2.73	2.13 (4)
9	2.50	2.47 (4)	2.75
13	2.67	2.87	3.00
17	2.72	2.60	2.13
23	2.44	3.13	3.00
32	2.94	3.00	2.75
37	2.94	2.87	3.00
38	2.50	2.20 (4)	2.50
39	2.89	2.93	2.75
40	2.72	2.27 (4)	2.50
41	3.22 (1)	3.07	3.13
44	2.94	2.60	2.63
45	2.83	3.00	3.00
48	2.72	2.73	2.63
50	2.72	2.33 (4)	2.50
53	2.44	2.73	2.63
62	2.67	3.00	3.00
65	2.78	2.80	2.75
67	2.44	3.07	2.63
70	2.67	2.80	3.13
71	3.11 (1)	3.00	3.00
74	2.83	3.40 (1)	3.13
75	3.06	2.93	2.63
76	2.56	2.60	2.25 (4)
77	2.78	3.00	2.88

District ID Number	Planning	Implementation	Evaluation
79	2.78	3.07	3.13
81	2.50	3.07	2.75
82	3.00	2.67	2.63

---

*As measured by the Quality Practices In Inservice Education Questionnaire.

TABLE 9

Extent of District Inservice Practice
Occurrence by Quartile*

Little Extent
Three 4th quartiles or two 4th quartiles
and one 3rd quartile
(3rd quartile in parenthesis)

Mean Scores

District ID Number	Planning	Implementation	Evaluation
5	2.11	2.27	2.38
12	2.11	2.40	1.88
16	2.39	2.20	2.38
26	2.06	2.47	1.88
35	2.28	2.60 (3)	2.13
36	1.83	2.80 (3)	2.00
49	2.06	2.53	2.00
51	2.39	2.53	2.13
56	1.22	2.13	2.50 (3)
58	1.33	1.87	1.50
59	1.17	2.53	2.38
66	1.67	2.07	1.50
72	2.22	2.20	2.25
73	2.28	2.60 (3)	2.00
80	2.11	2.40	2.38
84	2.28	2.47	2.38
85	1.94	2.27	1.88
86	2.89	2.47	2.88

* As measured by the Quality Practices In Inservice Education Questionnaire.

TABLE 10

Extent of District Inservice Practice
Occurrence by Quartile*

Inconsistent Extent
Three different quartiles or two areas more
than one quartile apart
(quartiles in parenthesis)

Mean Scores

District ID Number	Planning	Implementation	Evaluation
7	3.33 (1)	2.73 (3)	3.13 (2)
10	2.22 (4)	3.00 (2)	3.50 (1)
11	2.83 (2)	2.80 (3)	2.38 (4)
15	2.78 (3)	2.47 (4)	2.88 (2)
18	2.39 (4)	3.00 (2)	2.38 (4)
20	2.28 (4)	3.00 (2)	2.50 (3)
24	3.22 (1)	2.87 (3)	3.13 (2)
25	2.94 (2)	3.27 (1)	2.63 (3)
29	2.50 (3)	3.13 (2)	3.50 (1)
30	2.94 (2)	2.67 (3)	2.38 (4)
34	3.44 (1)	2.67 (3)	2.75 (3)
46	3.17 (1)	2.93 (3)	2.63 (3)
52	2.56 (3)	3.53 (1)	3.25 (1)
54	3.06 (2)	2.40 (4)	3.13 (2)
55	1.72 (4)	2.47 (4)	3.38 (1)
57	2.39 (4)	3.00 (2)	3.38 (1)
61	2.61 (3)	3.53 (1)	3.00 (2)
63	3.50 (1)	2.87 (3)	1.38 (4)
68	3.22 (1)	2.73 (3)	2.75 (3)
78	2.33 (4)	2.93 (3)	2.88 (2)
83	2.83 (2)	2.87 (3)	2.25 (4)
89	2.89 (2)	2.47 (4)	2.88 (2)

* As measured by the Quality Practices In Inservice Education Questionnaire.

Research Question Number Four

What is the level of staff morale in selected Cook County school districts?

Halpin and Croft's Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire was administered to 761 teachers from 78 Cook County, Illinois, elementary school districts (excluding the Chicago Public School System). This group of teachers was fairly representative of all nine grade levels in that there was no less than 5.7% or no more than 12% at any grade level, and was best described as being female (82%), white (94%), with tenure status (93%) and between thirty and fifty years of age (59%). The average number of years of teaching experience for this group was 15, and nearly half (43%) of the teachers held advanced degrees. Almost eighteen percent (17.5%) of the teachers taught in a combination grade level classroom or had multiple grade level responsibilities, and the average class size was 24.7.

The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire describes behavior or conditions that occur within a school. The 761 teachers were asked to indicate to what extent each of these conditions characterized their school by choosing one of the following statements: (1) rarely occurs; (2) sometimes occurs; (3) often occurs; and (4) very frequently occurs.

Data from this questionnaire were gathered and analyzed on a school district basis. No attempt was made to analyze either individual or individual school responses. These data are presented in Table 11 which has been broken down into the eight dimensions of school climate described by Halpin

and Croft in their original study. The first four dimensions (subtests) measured the perceived characteristics of the faculty as a group, whereas the latter four pertained to the perceived characteristics of the principal as leader. All scores are the mean of the district for the eight separate dimensions.

TABLE 11

Eight Dimensions of School Climate[1]

Mean Scores

1. Rarely occurs
2. Sometimes occurs
3. Often occurs
4. Very frequently occurs

District ID Number	Group Subtests				Leader Behavior Subtests			
	Disengagement	Hindrance	Esprit	Intimacy	Aloofness	Production Emphasis	Thrust	Consideration
1	1.56	2.18	3.07	2.55	2.20	2.18	3.09	1.89
3	1.57	1.65	3.03	2.73	1.94	2.32	2.38	1.67
4	1.59	1.83	3.29	2.89	1.95	1.88	3.00	2.12
5	1.89	1.85	3.15	2.63	2.22	2.43	3.51	2.31
7	1.39	1.57	3.52	2.87	2.07	2.10	3.04	2.19
8	1.80	1.83	3.30	2.86	2.22	2.43	3.56	2.67
9	2.38	2.40	2.48	2.70	2.25	2.02	2.46	1.94
11	1.57	1.94	3.24	2.75	2.00	1.89	3.18	1.94
12	1.77	2.11	3.25	2.83	1.78	2.43	2.98	1.97
14	2.12	2.37	2.80	1.91	2.02	2.46	2.93	2.00
15	1.55	1.75	3.30	3.04	2.22	2.75	3.11	3.00
16	1.65	1.79	2.93	2.80	2.08	2.39	3.26	2.29
17	1.72	1.89	3.12	2.70	2.06	2.10	2.93	1.79
18	1.68	2.18	2.75	2.31	2.22	2.24	2.96	1.80
19	1.73	2.14	3.06	2.50	2.09	2.12	3.02	1.88
20	1.79	1.84	2.91	2.43	2.03	2.17	2.80	1.78
21	1.57	1.89	3.14	2.59	2.06	2.04	3.12	2.02
22	1.57	2.23	3.05	2.39	1.91	1.86	3.02	2.12
23	1.68	2.40	2.78	2.51	2.27	2.00	2.56	1.43
24	1.43	1.33	3.17	2.52	1.70	2.14	2.89	1.78

[1] As measured by the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire.

District ID Number	Group Subtests				Leader Behavior Subtests			
	Disengagement	Hindrance	Esprit	Intimacy	Aloofness	Production Emphasis	Thrust	Consideration
25	2.28	1.83	2.95	2.64	2.19	2.75	2.94	2.25
26	1.68	2.19	2.78	2.62	1.72	2.19	2.35	1.56
27	1.71	1.33	3.07	2.86	2.00	1.90	2.65	1.91
28	1.48	2.33	3.23	2.96	2.14	2.57	3.53	2.58
29	1.66	1.53	3.08	2.34	2.00	2.86	2.91	1.90
30	1.94	2.17	2.61	3.23	1.94	2.14	3.06	1.81
31	1.50	2.00	3.40	2.86	2.52	2.33	2.89	2.00
32	1.72	2.46	3.08	2.35	2.19	2.35	3.26	2.06
33	2.06	1.93	2.58	2.11	2.18	2.17	2.80	1.80
34	1.40	2.00	3.00	2.50	2.00	2.07	3.14	2.00
35	1.61	1.94	3.14	2.56	1.90	2.10	2.96	2.06
36	1.33	1.33	3.67	2.91	2.26	2.57	3.00	1.72
37	1.58	1.63	2.83	2.54	2.00	2.21	2.67	1.92
38	2.17	1.56	2.60	2.14	1.96	2.05	2.74	1.56
39	2.12	2.23	2.92	2.46	2.11	2.43	2.87	2.33
40	1.37	2.17	3.27	2.24	1.74	1.57	3.04	1.44
42	1.42	1.80	3.16	2.70	2.04	2.06	3.14	2.00
43	1.79	2.21	2.63	2.59	2.08	2.40	3.07	1.99
44	1.67	2.06	2.97	2.33	1.80	1.93	2.24	1.53
45	1.57	1.47	3.47	2.74	1.82	1.74	3.69	2.25
47	1.52	1.87	2.96	2.91	2.18	2.69	3.29	1.93
48	1.70	2.61	3.13	2.71	2.11	2.52	2.00	1.17
49	1.80	2.25	2.90	2.36	2.06	2.29	3.22	1.75
50	1.76	2.09	2.57	2.33	2.06	2.30	2.65	1.78
51	1.22	1.69	3.38	2.43	2.02	2.02	3.48	1.75
52	1.77	2.40	2.63	2.41	2.26	2.19	2.49	1.51
53	1.49	2.22	2.90	2.13	2.42	2.56	3.15	1.78
54	1.57	1.74	2.94	2.46	2.06	2.21	2.91	1.61
55	1.50	1.72	3.02	2.31	1.83	2.26	2.96	1.86
57	1.62	2.19	2.72	2.56	2.01	2.33	2.85	1.91

District ID Number	Group Subtests				Leader Behavior Subtests			
	Disengagement	Hindrance	Esprit	Intimacy	Aloofness	Production Emphasis	Thrust	Consideration
58	1.86	1.88	2.49	2.45	2.18	1.90	2.78	1.67
59	1.58	1.50	3.40	2.55	2.07	2.48	3.09	2.00
60	1.86	1.99	2.81	2.61	2.24	2.26	2.84	1.80
61	2.16	1.57	2.64	2.60	1.91	1.97	3.00	2.03
62	1.45	1.29	3.33	2.96	2.00	2.57	3.28	2.08
63	1.53	1.97	2.93	2.45	1.93	1.91	2.63	1.75
64	1.77	2.17	2.57	2.60	2.11	2.24	2.35	1.39
65	1.87	2.38	2.53	2.46	2.13	2.36	2.69	1.85
66	1.86	1.67	2.26	1.89	2.11	1.91	2.67	1.43
67	1.82	2.04	2.86	2.31	2.13	2.10	3.10	1.71
69	1.59	1.95	3.07	2.74	2.12	1.86	3.09	1.93
71	1.40	1.79	3.23	2.75	2.08	2.32	3.22	1.75
72	1.68	1.86	3.13	2.50	1.91	2.36	3.00	2.03
73	1.57	2.53	2.71	1.98	2.06	2.33	3.01	1.90
74	2.16	2.55	2.20	2.08	2.03	1.84	2.54	1.69
75	1.75	1.94	3.33	2.70	1.94	2.16	2.96	1.83
76	1.57	1.50	3.53	2.76	2.11	3.05	3.19	1.83
77	1.30	1.67	3.07	2.95	1.44	1.91	2.44	1.89
78	1.49	1.71	2.94	2.51	2.03	2.29	2.38	1.38
79	1.50	1.90	2.94	2.63	2.13	2.06	3.20	2.27
80	1.66	2.00	3.01	2.35	1.94	2.16	3.10	2.07
82	1.58	1.68	2.91	2.42	1.94	1.90	2.54	1.55
84	1.70	1.80	3.02	2.76	2.03	2.10	3.20	2.11
85	2.03	2.33	2.63	2.37	2.12	2.36	3.19	1.95
86	1.95	2.42	2.53	2.50	2.50	2.14	2.94	1.92
87	1.41	2.11	2.76	2.29	1.94	1.91	2.91	1.79
88	1.67	1.89	2.80	2.38	2.26	1.91	2.89	1.83
89	1.59	2.05	3.02	2.55	2.16	2.47	2.87	2.01

Using the Climate Openness Index (Thrust Score + Esprit Score - Disengagement Score) the 78 districts were analyzed in terms of their relative "openness" or "closedness." The premise of this research effort was that the more "open" a school district might be the higher the level of staff morale and vice versa. Employing a continuum of negative two (-2) to positive seven (+7) with a midpoint of two and one-half (2.5), the data revealed that all 78 districts were above the midpoint or in the "open" end of the continuum. A wide variance (2.56 - 5.64) was found in the "openness" range of the continuum. Nevertheless, all districts were deemed to be "open" and, therefore, characterized as having varying degrees of high morale.

As a way of differentiating between the levels of "openness" or high morale, the 78 districts were divided equally into three subgroups and were arbitrarily classified as Extremely Open, Moderately Open and Minimally Open. As can be seen in Tables 12, 13 and 14, districts in the Extremely Open end of the continuum had mean scores between 4.56 and 5.64, those in the middle of the continuum (Moderately Open) had mean scores between 3.92 and 4.54, and those approaching the "closed" end of the continuum (Minimally Open) had mean scores between 2.56 and 3.91. Mean scores for the first 76 districts (5.64 - 3.07) were rather equally spaced when ranked from high to low. No district was more than .11 apart from another in that grouping. However, a difference of approximately .50 was noted between the first 76 mean scores and the last two. These two districts were less than .10 away from the "closed" end of the continuum.

TABLE 12

School Climate Openness Index*
Thrust Score + Esprit Score - Disengagement Score

Extremely Open

Mean Scores

Rank	Thrust	Esprit	Disengage-ment	(T+E-D)	District ID Number
1	3.48	3.38	1.22	5.64	51
2	3.69	3.47	1.57	5.59	45
3	3.00	3.67	1.33	5.34	36
4	3.53	3.23	1.48	5.28	28
5	3.04	3.52	1.39	5.17	7
6	3.28	3.33	1.45	5.16	62
7	3.19	3.53	1.57	5.15	76
8	3.56	3.30	1.80	5.06	8
9	3.22	3.23	1.40	5.05	71
10	3.04	3.27	1.37	4.94	40
11	3.09	3.40	1.58	4.91	59
12	3.14	3.16	1.42	4.88	42
13	3.11	3.30	1.55	4.86	15
14	3.18	3.24	1.57	4.85	11
15	2.89	3.40	1.50	4.79	31
16	3.51	3.15	1.89	4.77	5
17	3.14	3.00	1.40	4.74	34
18	3.29	2.96	1.52	4.73	47
19	3.00	3.29	1.59	4.70	4
20	3.12	3.14	1.57	4.69	21
21	3.20	2.94	1.50	4.64	79
22	2.89	3.17	1.43	4.63	24
23	3.26	3.08	1.72	4.62	32
24	3.09	3.07	1.56	4.60	1
25	3.09	3.07	1.59	4.57	69
26	3.15	2.90	1.49	4.56	53

* As measured by the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire.

TABLE 13

School Climate Openness Index*
Thrust Score + Esprit Score - Disengagement Score

Moderately Open

Mean Scores

Rank	Thrust	Esprit	Disengage-ment	(T+E-D)	District ID Number
27	3.26	2.93	1.65	4.54	16
27	2.96	3.33	1.75	4.54	75
29	3.20	3.02	1.70	4.52	84
30	3.02	3.05	1.57	4.50	22
31	2.96	3.14	1.61	4.49	35
32	2.96	3.02	1.50	4.48	55
33	2.98	3.25	1.77	4.46	12
34	3.00	3.13	1.68	4.45	72
34	3.10	3.01	1.66	4.45	80
36	3.02	3.06	1.73	4.35	19
37	2.91	3.08	1.66	4.33	29
37	2.93	3.12	1.72	4.33	17
39	3.22	2.90	1.80	4.32	49
40	2.87	3.02	1.59	4.30	89
41	2.91	2.94	1.57	4.28	54
42	2.91	2.76	1.41	4.26	87
43	2.44	3.07	1.30	4.21	77
44	3.01	2.71	1.57	4.15	73
45	3.10	2.86	1.82	4.14	67
46	2.96	2.75	1.68	4.03	18
46	2.63	2.93	1.53	4.03	63
48	2.89	2.80	1.67	4.02	88
49	2.65	3.07	1.71	4.01	27
50	2.85	2.72	1.62	3.95	57
51	2.80	2.91	1.79	3.92	20
51	2.67	2.83	1.58	3.92	37

* As measured by the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire.

TABLE 14

School Climate Openness Index*
Thrust Score + Esprit Score - Disengagement Score

Minimally Open

Mean Scores

Rank	Thrust	Esprit	Disengage-ment	(T+E-D)	District ID Number
53	3.07	2.63	1.79	3.91	43
54	2.54	2.91	1.58	3.87	82
55	2.38	3.03	1.57	3.84	3
56	2.38	2.94	1.49	3.83	78
57	3.19	2.63	2.03	3.79	85
57	2.84	2.81	1.86	3.79	60
59	3.06	2.61	1.94	3.73	30
60	2.87	2.92	2.12	3.67	39
61	2.56	2.78	1.68	3.66	23
62	2.93	2.80	2.12	3.61	14
62	2.94	2.95	2.28	3.61	25
64	2.24	2.97	1.67	3.54	44
65	2.94	2.53	1.95	3.52	86
66	3.00	2.64	2.16	3.48	61
67	2.65	2.57	1.76	3.46	50
68	2.35	2.78	1.68	3.45	26
69	2.00	3.13	1.70	3.43	48
70	2.78	2.49	1.86	3.41	58
71	2.49	2.63	1.77	3.35	52
71	2.69	2.53	1.87	3.35	65
73	2.80	2.58	2.06	3.32	33
74	2.74	2.60	2.17	3.17	38
75	2.35	2.57	1.77	3.15	64
76	2.67	2.26	1.86	3.07	66
77	2.54	2.20	2.16	2.58	74
78	2.46	2.48	2.38	2.56	9

* As measured by the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire.

Research Question Number Five

What is the relationship between the presence of formalized
staff development program elements and the level of staff
morale in selected Cook County school districts?

Whereas research questions three and four dealt with the variables of

staff development and staff morale separately, question five sought to deter-

mine the relationship between the two.

Of the 89 Cook County elementary school districts that responded to the

Quality Practices In Inservice Education Questionnaire, 67 of them indicated a

consistent extent of involvement in all three areas of inservice training: plan-

ning, implementation and evaluation. These are the districts that, when grouped

by quartile placement for all three areas, formed the categories of great extent,

moderate extent and little extent found in research question three. However,

only 58 of the 67 districts were included in research question four which dealt

with levels of staff morale. The other nine districts did not respond to the staff

morale questionnaire and were, therefore, excluded from the study. These 58

districts then became the sample from which the relationship between the pres-

ence of staff development elements and the level of staff morale was determined.

Means of the three areas of inservice training scores combined were

compared with the Climate Openness Index scores for all 58 districts in the

question five sample. Using a test of statistical significance known as chi-

square and a two-way crosstabulation procedure, the relationship and probabil-

ity of that relationship between the two variables were determined. As can be

seen in Table 15, a positive chi-square score of 14.64 with four degrees of

freedom was found, which is statistically significant at the .001 level.

TABLE 15

Relationship Between Presence of Staff Development
Elements and Level of Staff Morale in Selected
Cook County School Districts

N = 58

Staff Morale
(degree of openness)

Staff Development (extent of involvement)	Minimally	Moderately	Extremely	
Little	4	8	4	16
Moderate	10	5	9	24
Great	6	5	7	18
	20	18	20	58

This finding indicated that there was a positive relationship between the presence of formalized staff development elements (extent of involvement) and the level of staff morale (degree of openness). The greater the extent of involvement in staff development program practices the more open the school climate or the higher the level of staff morale. Based on the perceptions of the superintendent, school districts which were involved to a little extent were perceived by teachers to be minimally open; those involved to a moderate extent were perceived as moderately open; and those involved to a great extent were perceived as extremely open.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to analyze selected school districts to determine the impact of formalized staff development program elements on staff morale. Five research questions provided a framework by which the purpose of the study was accomplished: (1) What do available research and literature say are the necessary elements of a formalized staff development program? (2) What do available research and literature indicate are the factors affecting and affected by the level of staff morale? (3) To what extent or degree are the necessary elements of a formalized staff development program present in selected Cook County school districts? (4) What is the level of staff morale in selected Cook County school districts? and (5) What is the relationship between the presence of formalized staff development program elements and the level of staff morale in selected Cook County school districts?

In order to accomplish the purpose of this study, the following methods and procedures were utilized:

1. The population consisted of all 115 superintendents and all 14,467 teachers of elementary school districts in Cook County, Illinois (excluding the Chicago Public School System).

2. The sample consisted of 89 elementary school superintendents in

Cook County that responded to the Quality Practices In Inservice Education Questionnaire. One thousand one hundred sixteen teachers from the 89 elementary school districts that responded to the initial questionnaire formed the sample for the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire.

3. The research and literature were reviewed relative to the topics of formalized staff development program elements and staff morale.

4. The National Inservice Network Quality Practices Task Force Quality Practices In Inservice Education Questionnaire was mailed to all elementary school district superintendents in Cook County.

5. A follow-up mailing for non-respondents to the questionnaire and fact sheet was completed.

6. Halpin and Croft's Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire was mailed to a selected sample of the staff of each school district that responded to the initial questionnaire.

7. Letters of appreciation were sent to all superintendents who participated in the study.

8. The data received from the questionnaires were tabulated and analyzed.

9. Conclusions were drawn, and recommendations were made.

The limitations of this study were those inherent in using a mailed questionnaire.

While there are other district and building level variables, such as number of schools, student enrollment, size of staff, student/teacher ratio, assessed valuation of district, teacher salary schedule, etc., that impact on

staff morale, this study was limited to determining the relationship between the presence of formalized staff development program elements and the level of staff morale.

The study was delimited to public elementary school district (K-8) superintendents and teachers. It was, also, delimited by the fact that the study confined itself to Cook County, Illinois (excluding the Chicago Public School System) public school districts.

This chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations of the study resulting from the review of the literature as applied to the questions addressed in the study and analysis of questionnaire responses and demographic information.

Conclusions from Literature and Research

Several conclusions to this study evolved. They were based solely on the evidence found in the study and did not reflect the opinions of any particular individual. The conclusions reflected only the data gathered and reported.

1. Although the literature search indicated that the elements of a formalized staff development program varied from one research study to the next, the following elements of planning, implementation and evaluation were found in all major staff development studies.

Necessary planning elements found in the research were: integrating the staff development program into the total organizational system; developing written supportive staff development policies; assessing the needs of staff development participants; developing short and long term staff development goals;

and including all groups affected by the staff development program as decision makers.

Elements of implementation necessary in a formalized staff development program were: providing concrete experiences aimed at specific skills; individualizing and relating staff development activities to on-the-job needs; conducting staff development activities on the participants' work site and during the participants' work day; utilizing local resource personnel as trainers; providing participants with positive feedback on their progress; and allowing participants to observe and consult with master teachers.

Those evaluation elements found to be necessary were: basing decisions regarding the effectiveness of the staff development program on the evaluations of program participants; providing ongoing program evaluation feedback to participants; frequently reporting data on all major aspects of the staff development program to all audiences concerned; and determining the impact of the staff development program on students.

2. The importance of staff morale was highlighted by the fact that the related research indicated that staff morale was a very important factor in student achievement.

Although the results of staff morale research were sometimes contradictory and not always conclusive, sufficient empirical data were available to support the hypothesis that there is a positive correlation between student achievement and the level of staff morale.

Researchers occasionally alluded to other factors affected by morale,

such as student satisfaction, student attitude or teacher satisfaction, but the majority of research work was centered on the factor of student achievement.

3. Although the literature review indicated that the level of staff morale was affected by a combination of factors, the principal was found to be the most important factor with respect to staff morale.

Staff development of inservice training was one of several factors most often found to have an effect on staff morale. Other factors included in the research were: achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, interpersonal relations, advancement, age, sex, experience, facilities and equipment, supplies, student attitudes, parental support, salary and, most significantly, administrative practices. Factors which affected the level of morale positively were often the converse of factors which had an adverse effect on staff morale.

The principal, in study after study, was found to be the key factor in establishing and maintaining positive staff morale. The attitude, policies, procedures, understanding of individual teachers, and philosophy of the principal were all major staff morale factors. Administrative practices found to have a direct influence on staff morale were: praising and giving credit when it is warranted; supporting the teacher in conflicts with students and parents; giving special attention to the teacher's physical comfort; assuming responsibility for administrative actions; demonstrating knowledge regarding school methods, materials, strategies and practices; and encouraging the teacher's professional growth.

Conclusions from Current Study

1. The Quality Practices In Inservice Education Questionnaire was

found by the participants in the current study to accurately assess the extent to which the necessary elements of a formalized staff development program were present in their school districts.

The quality practice statements developed by the Task Force on Quality Practices in Inservice Education (not a part of this study) reflected the findings of the research relative to the necessary elements of a formalized staff development program. These statements were validated by the Task Force in two separate phases. The validation effort was conducted nationwide and included over 300 individuals representing a broad sampling of key educational agencies and role groups.

Respondents to the questionnaire used in the current study offered only positive comments regarding the clarity and importance of the quality practice statements and the format in which they were presented. The rating scale appeared to be an adequate measure of occurrence in that all respondents completed the questionnaire in its entirety without editorializing. Availability of funding the quality practices was the only problem cited by respondents.

2. All of the necessary elements of a formalized staff development program found in the literature were present to a considerable extent in the majority of Cook County elementary school districts.

The percentage of elementary school districts when classified by geographic area (Cook County quadrants) and size (number of schools, number of teachers and student enrollment) varied little proportionately from population to sample.

Cook County elementary school district superintendents assessed the extent quality practices in inservice education were occurring as considerable (2.5 - 3.49). Group means for the three separate areas were: planning (2.72), implementation (2.85) and evaluation (2.76).

A large majority of superintendents indicated that their districts were "considerably" involved in the planning (66%), implementation (73%) and evaluation (61%) aspects of a formalized staff development program.

3. Based upon teacher responses, staff morale in Cook County elementary school districts was determined to be high.

All 78 school districts fell in the high level or "open" end of the climate continuum as measured by the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire. Mean scores for the districts, however, varied significantly from 2.56 - 5.64 with the "openness" range being 2.5 - 7.0.

4. A positive relationship existed between the presence of formalized staff development program elements and the level of staff morale in Cook County elementary school districts.

Only school districts that met the following criteria were included in this determination: the superintendents and a minimum of two teachers from single-school districts returned the questionnaires; or, the superintendents and a minimum of three teachers from multiple-school districts returned the questionnaires; and the superintendent indicated a consistent extent of involvement in all three areas of staff development.

A positive chi-square score of 14.64 with four degrees of freedom was

found when the staff development mean scores were compared with the staff morale mean scores. This finding is statistically significant at the .001 level.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are based on research data and the conclusions noted above:

1. Specific planning, implementation and evaluation elements should be included in a formalized staff development program. The literature and research have provided the staff developer with empirical data to support the inclusion of certain elements and the exclusion of other elements in a staff development program. The success of the staff development effort is dependent to a great extent on the degree to which these necessary elements are in place.

2. Administrators should recognize the powerful influence of staff morale on student achievement. In a day when the public is so very student-achievement conscious, the administrator must be acquainted with the findings of staff morale research. Only then will wise resource (time, money and people) management decisions be made that will directly affect the achievement of students.

3. Principals should recognize that they are the single most important factor with respect to staff morale. Administrators should be conscious of the many variables which in combination affect morale but should be especially careful to examine their administrative practices to see how they specifically affect the level of staff morale. Changes in these practices should be made in light of the research findings.

4. School districts should formally assess their staff development effort against the research findings. Instruments such as the Quality Practices In Inservice Education Questionnaire are now available for such an assessment. Identifying the strengths and weaknesses of the staff development effort is the first step in providing a well-defined formalized staff development program.

5. Principals should continually assess the level of staff morale. A formal assessment of morale may be necessary initially, but the principal should use the findings of staff morale research as a barometer to informally assess the level of morale on a day-to-day basis. Small, frequent administrative practice adjustments are recommended rather than a complete overhaul.

6. Establishing and maintaining a formalized staff development program should be a major priority for any elementary school district. Recognizing the positive relationship between the staff development effort and the level of staff morale, school districts should provide a broad range of staff development opportunities. The district staff development program design should be an outgrowth of the research on the necessary elements of a formalized staff development program.

Recommendations for Further Study

Recommendations for further study include addressing the following concerns:

1. Replicate the study in another county or geographic area in order to generalize the data to a larger population.

2. Replicate the study using secondary school districts as the sample

in order to determine if the results would compare favorably with this study.

3. Replicate the study to consider leadership/management style of the building principal in the sample to see if there is a relationship between leadership/management style and staff morale.

4. A study should be conducted to see if there is a relationship between the presence of formalized staff development elements and student achievement.

5. Replicate the study using an interview method to determine the extent the necessary elements of a formalized staff development program are present.

6. A correlation between the Halpin and Croft instrument and other morale/school climate instruments should be conducted.

7. A further refinement of the Quality Practices In Inservice Education Questionnaire is recommended to assure additional construct validity and reliability.

8. More research should be conducted relative to the elements of a formalized staff development program.

9. More research should be conducted relative to the factors affected by the level of staff morale.

10. A study should be conducted to see if there is a relationship between the demographics of a district, i.e., size, wealth, etc., and the presence of formalized staff development program elements.

11. A study should be conducted to see if there is a relationship

between the demographics of a district, i.e., size, wealth, etc., and the level of staff morale.

12. Replicate the study using individual elementary schools as the unit of analysis.

13. An item analysis in terms of the rank ordering of the necessary elements of a formalized staff development program would be desirable to provide additional data for analysis.

14. A longitudinal study should be conducted to determine the long-term effects of a formalized staff development program on the level of staff morale.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books

Alfonso, Robert J.; Firth, Gerald R.; and Neville, Richard F. Instructional
Supervision. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1981.

Beach, Dale S. Personnel: The Management of People at Work. New York:
Macmillan Co., 1967.

Bentley, R. R. and Remple, A.M. Manual for the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire.
West Lafayette, IN.: University Book Store, 1967.

Berman, Paul and McLaughlin, Milbrey Wallin. Federal Programs Supporting
Educational Change, Volume VIII: Implementing and Sustaining Inno-
vations. Santa Monica, CA.: Rand Corp., 1978.

Davis, Ralph C. Industrial Organization and Management. New York: Harper
& Brothers, 1940.

Denham, Carolyn and Lieberman, Ann, ed. Time to Learn. Washington, D.C.:
U.S. Department of Education, National Institute of Education, 1980.

Diaz, Richard; Joyce, Bruce R.; McKibbin, Michael D.; and McNair, Kathleen M.
Interviews: Perceptions of Professionals and Policy Makers. Stanford,
CA.: Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching,
Stanford University, 1976.

Dillon-Peterson, Betty, ed. Staff Development/Organization Development.
Alexandria, VA.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Develop-
ment, 1981.

Griffiths, Daniel E. Human Relations in School Administration. New York:
Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1956.

Herzberg, Frederick. The Managerial Choice. Homewood, IL.: Dow Jones-
Irwin, 1976.

Hoy, W.K. and Miskel, C.G. Educational Administration: Theory Research
and Practice. New York: Random House, 1982.

Hunter, Madeline. Prescription for Improved Instruction. El Segundo, CA.:
    TIP Publications, 1976.

Kelley, Edgar A. Improving School Climate. Reston, VA.: The National
    Association of Secondary School Principals, 1980.

Labat, Margaret G. "Problems and Issues of Staff Development." Staff Develop-
    ment: Staff Liberation. Edited by Charles W. Beegle and Roy A.
    Edelfelt. Washington, D.C.: ASCD, 1977.

Lawrence, Gordon. Patterns for Effective Inservice Education: A State of the
    Art Summary of Research on Materials and Procedures for Changing
    Teacher Behaviors in Inservice Education. Tallahassee, FL.: Florida
    State Department of Education, 1974.

Lonsdale, Richard C. "Maintaining the Organization in Dynamic Equilibrium."
    Behavioral Science and Educational Administration. Sixty-third Year-
    book of the National Society for the Study of Education. Edited by
    Daniel E. Griffiths. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1964.

Lucio, William H., and McNeil, John D. Supervision: A Synthesis of Thought
    and Action. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1979.

Miller, Lynn. "BTES: Implications for Staff Development." Time to Learn.
    Edited by Carolyn Denham and Ann Lieberman. Washington, D.C.:
    U.S. Department of Education, National Institute of Education, 1980.

Powell, Marjorie. "The Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study: A Brief History
    of a Major Research Project." Time to Learn. Edited by Carolyn
    Denham and Ann Lieberman. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department
    of Education, National Institute of Education, 1980.

Russell, Sister Frances; Thompson, Steven R.; and Wood, Fred H. "Designing
    Effective Staff Development Programs." Staff Development/Organiza-
    tion Development. Edited by Betty Dillon-Peterson. Alexandria, VA.:
    Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1981.

Schiffer, Judith. School Renewal Through Staff Development. New York:
    Teachers College Press, 1980.

West, Sara C. "How Research Helps Staff Development: In Schools and in Big
    Business." Staff Development: Staff Liberation. Edited by Charles
    W. Beegle and Roy A. Edelfelt. Washington, D.C.: ASCD, 1977.

Wiles, Kimball. Supervision for Better Schools. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.:
    Prentice-Hall, 1967.

Periodicals

Anderson, Carolyn S. "The Search for School Climate: A Review of the Research." Review of Educational Research (Fall, 1982), pp. 368-420.

Anderson, Lester W. "Teacher Morale and Student Achievement." Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 46 (May, 1953), pp. 693-698.

Bentley, Ralph R., and Rempel, Averno M. "Teacher Morale: Relationship with Selected Factors." The Journal of Teacher Education, Vol. XXI Number 4 (Winter, 1970), pp. 534-539.

Bhella, Surjit K. "Principal's Leadership Style: Does It Affect Teacher Morale?" Education, Vol. 102 Number 4 (Summer, 1982), pp. 369-376.

Blocker, Clyde E., and Richardson, Richard C. "Twenty-Five Years of Morale Research: A Critical Review." Journal of Educational Sociology, Vol. 36 (January, 1963), pp. 200-210.

Brickman, William W., ed. "Studies of Teacher Morale." School and Society, Vol. 92 Number 2239 (February 22, 1964), pp. 63-64.

Burrello, Leonard C., and Orbaugh, Tim. "Reducing the Discrepancy Between the Known and the Unknown in Inservice Education." Phi Delta Kappan, LXIII #6 (February, 1982), pp. 385-388.

Dillon, Elizabeth A. "Staff Development: Whose Job Is It?" Educational Leadership, XXXII #2 (November, 1974), pp. 137-140.

Ellenburg, F.C. "Factors Affecting Teacher Morale." Education Digest, Vol. XXXVIII Number 7 (March, 1973), pp. 5-7.

ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management. "Synthesis of Research on Staff Development." Educational Leadership, XXXVIII (November, 1980), pp. 182-185.

Hendee, Raymond E. "Toward Effective Staff Development Plans and Programs." Educational Leadership, XXXIV #3 (December, 1976), pp. 163-164.

Johnston, Gladys S., and Yeakey, Carol C. "Administrators' and Teachers' Preferences for Staff Development." Planning and Changing, 8 (Winter, 1977), pp. 230-238.

Kalis, Maryann Castelli. "Teaching Experience: Its Effect on School Climate, Teacher Morale." National Association of Secondary School Principals' Bulletin, Vol. 64 Number 435 (April, 1980), pp. 89-102.

Kelley, Edgar A. "Auditing School Climate." Educational Leadership, Vol. 39 Number 3 (December, 1981), pp. 180-183.

Kells, Patricia P. "Quality Practices in Inservice Education." The Developer, (January, 1981), pp. 1-6.

Laird, Robert, and Luetkemeyer, Joseph F. "The Relationship Between the Leader Behavior of Principals and Teacher Morale in the Vocational Centers of Maryland." Journal of Industrial Teacher Education, (Spring, 1976).

Linkous, Saundra W., and Magoon, Robert A. "The Principal and Effective Staff Morale." National Association of Secondary School Principals' Bulletin, Vol. 63 Number 427 (May, 1979), pp. 20-28.

Marsh, David D., and McLaughlin, Milbrey Wallin. "Staff Development and School Change." Teachers College Record, Vol. 80 Number 1 (September, 1978), pp. 69-93.

Miller, William C. "Staff Morale, School Climate and Educational Productivity." Educational Leadership, Vol. 38 Number 6 (March, 1981), pp. 483-486.

Phi Delta Kappa's Center of Evaluation, Development and Research. Practical Applications of Research Newsletter, Vol. 5 Number 3 (March, 1983).

Thompson, Steven R., and Wood, Fred H. "Guidelines for Better Staff Development." Educational Leadership, XXXVII #5 (February, 1980), pp. 374-377.

Washington, Jr., Roosevelt, and Watson, Hoyt F. "Positive Teacher Morale -- The Principal's Responsibility." National Association of Secondary School Principals' Bulletin, Vol. 60 Number 399 (April, 1976), pp. 4-6.

Reports

Baker, M.G.; Hill, W.C.; Howey, K.R.; Joyce, B.R.; Parker, D.W.; Vance, B.A.; Waterman, F.T.; and Yarger, S.H. Issues to Face, Inservice Teacher Education Report 1. Palo Alto, CA.: Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, Stanford University, 1976.

Chandler, B.J., and Mathis, Claude. "The Effect of School Salary Policies on Teacher Morale." Unpublished research study, Northwestern University, 1957.

ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management Research Action Brief. "School Climate," Number 4. University of Oregon, Eugene, OR., February, 1978.

National Inservice Network. Quality Practices Task Force Final Report. Bloomington, IN.: Indiana University School of Education, 1980.

National Staff Development Council. Position Paper of the National Staff Development Council, Rev. 5 (October 3, 1980).

Papers

Beamer, John Leo. "The Relationship of Administrative Leadership Practices to Teacher Morale in the Public Elementary Schools of Charles County, Maryland." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, George Washington University, 1969.

Capper, George H. "A Study of Supervisory Procedures and Behaviors in Relation to Teacher Morale in Selected Cook County Schools." Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Loyola University of Chicago, 1981.

Dennis, Evie G. "An Exploratory Analysis of School Climates: Factors Affecting Morale in the Schools." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Nova University, 1973.

APPENDIX A

Prairie-Hills
Elementary School District

OFFICE OF THE SUPERINTENDENT

April 11, 1983

May I please introduce you to Mr. Keith Buell. Keith has worked with me for some ten years as an assistant to me and as a building principal. In the last three years, Keith has developed and admini-stered our district in-house teacher training program.
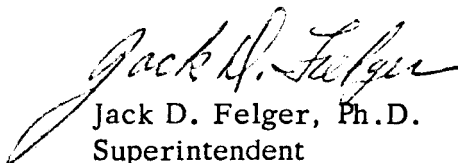
He is now doing his research for his doctorate degree at Loyola University. His research topic will concentrate on Staff Develop-ment/Staff Morale.

I have carefully read his research design materials and feel that his is one of the most needed and will be one of the most significant studies of its kind.

May I urge you to help Keith and, thereby, help us by completing the enclosed materials. Copies of the final study will be provided if you wish.

Thank you very much for your interest and cooperation. It is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Jack D. Felger, Ph.D.
Superintendent

sf

12333 68th Court
Palos Heights, Illinois 60463

April 27, 1983

I am a graduate student at Loyola University of Chicago working on my doctoral dissertation. My director is Dr. Max A. Bailey, Associate Professor, Department of Administration and Supervision. The purpose of my study is to determine the impact of formalized staff development program elements on staff morale.

One phase of my research design requires me to secure from each elementary school district superintendent in Cook County information relative to the current status of his/her staff development program. The Quality Practices In Inservice Education Questionnaire has been chosen as the data gathering instrument. I request you respond to the questionnaire and return it to me in the enclosed self-addressed, stamped envelope. A summary of the results of the study will be sent to all respondents who so indicate in the district information section of the questionnaire. Number coding is for the sole purpose of facilitating data gathering and analysis. All information will be kept strictly confidential and will be used for academic purposes only.

A limited number of respondents to the questionnaire will be asked to further assist the researcher by distributing a staff morale instrument to several district teachers at selected grade levels.

Your response by Friday, May 6, 1983, would be appreciated.

Thank you in advance for your consideration and attention to this request.

Sincerely,

Keith Buell

Enclosures

APPENDIX B

12333 68th Court
Palos Heights, Illinois 60463

May 9, 1983

Thank you for responding to my request for assistance in the collection of data for my doctoral dissertation at Loyola University of Chicago.

As I had indicated in the first request, a limited number of respondents would be asked to distribute a staff morale instrument to several district teachers at selected grade levels. This instrument, Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire, will provide baseline data relative to the level of staff morale in elementary school districts so that the relationship between the presence of formalized staff development program elements and the level of staff morale may be determined. The research procedure calls for a stratified sample of district teachers. Therefore, would you please distribute the introductory letter and questionnaire found in the self-addressed, stamped envelopes. The schools and grade levels that form my teacher sample have been designated on the envelopes.

Due to the small number of respondents participating in this phase of the study, your continued cooperation is appreciated and most essential to the completion of the study.

Again, I thank you in advance for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Keith Buell

Enclosures

12333 68th Court
Palos Heights, Illinois 60463

May 9, 1983

Dear Teacher:

I am a graduate student at Loyola University of Chicago working on my doctoral dissertation. The purpose of my study is to determine the impact of formalized staff development program elements on staff morale.

The superintendent of your district has provided me with staff development program information. Your assistance is requested in assessing the present level of staff morale. Halpin and Croft's Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire has been chosen for this assessment. Please respond to the questionnaire and return it to me in the self-addressed, stamped envelope. An optional teacher information section is included for you to fill out which will assist me in constructing a background profile. Questionnaire number coding is for the sole purpose of facilitating data gathering and analysis. All information will be kept strictly confidential and will be used for academic purposes only.

Your response by Wednesday, May 25, 1983, would be appreciated.

Thank you in advance for your consideration and attention to this request.

Sincerely,

Keith Buell

Enclosures

APPENDIX C

February 7, 1983

Dr. Leonard C. Burrello
Project Director
National Inservice Network
2853 East Tenth Street, Cottage L
Bloomington, Indiana 47405

Dear Dr. Burrello:

I am a doctoral student at Loyola University of Chicago and am in the midst
of preparing my dissertation proposal. My tentative dissertation topic is "An
Analysis of the Impact of Formalized Staff Development Programs on Staff
Morale in Selected Cook County, Illinois, Public School Districts."

I read with great interest the Quality Practices Task Force Final Report. It
appears to me that the Task Force has validated a listing of quality practice
statements that could form the basis of a questionnaire for further research
in the area of inservice education/staff development. With this in mind, I
have two requests:

1. What is the possibility of receiving a listing of the literature
   reviewed and the matrix used in the development of the original
   critical factors in quality inservice education?

2. How might I obtain permission to use the final listing of quality
   practice statements as a data gathering instrument in my dis-
   sertation?

Any assistance you may be able to provide relative to the development of my
dissertation topic is most appreciated.

Sincerely,

Keith Buell
12333 68th Court
Palos Heights, Illinois 60463

INDIANA UNIVERSITY | SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
W.W. Wright Education Building
3rd and Jordan
Bloomington, Indiana 47405

(812) 335-2734

Feburary 24, 1983

Keith Buell
12337 68th Court
Palos Heights, IL   60463

Dear Mr. Buell:

Regarding your letter of February 7, 1983, enclosed is "Quality
Practices in Inservice Education".   As with all NIN products, any
or all of the document may be reproduced or quoted with correct
reference as to the source.

Another source you might find useful is a dissertation by Patricia
Jean Jamison, "The Development and Validation of a Conceptual
Model and Quality Practices Designed to Guide the Planning, Imple-
mentation, and Evaluation of Inservice Education, University of
Maryland Graduate School, 1981.

Sincerely,

Leonard C. Burrello
Associate Professor

enclosure

MACMILLAN PUBLISHING CO., INC.
866 Third Avenue, New York, N. Y. 10022

May 5, 1983

Mr. Keith Buell
12333 68th Court
Palos Heights, IL   60463

Dear Mr. Buell:

You have our permission to use, in the English language only, the
"Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire" from THEORY AND
RESEARCH IN ADMINISTRATION by Andrew W. Halpin, subject to the
f ollowing limitations:

Permission is granted for usage of the material in the manner and
for the purpose as specified in your letter of May 3, 1983. If your
doctoral dissertation is published, other than by University Microfilms,
it is necessary to reapply for permission;

Permission is granted for a fee of $35.00. This fee is payable upon
signing of this letter of agreement;

Full credit must be given on every copy reproduced as follows:

    Reprinted with permission of Macmillan Publishing Company
    from THEORY AND RESEARCH IN ADMINISTRATION by Andrew W. Halpin.
    © Copyright by Andrew W. Halpin, 1966.

If you are in agreement, kindly sign and return one copy of this letter
with your remittance; the second copy is for your records.

Thank you very much.

                                        Sincerely yours,

                                        Agnes Fisher

                                        (Mrs.) Agnes Fisher
                                        Permissions Manager

AGREED TO AND ACCEPTED:

_____
Keith Buell

APPENDIX D

Quality Practices In Inservice Education Questionnaire

National Inservice Network Quality Practices Task Force

The statements in this questionnaire constitute good practices in inservice education. Please indicate to what extent each of these practices is presently occurring in your school district by circling the appropriate letter following each statement. The letters after each statement have the following meanings:

L   Little
S   Somewhat
C   Considerable
G   Great

Use your personal/professional judgment concerning principles underlying inservice practices. Please answer every item.

1.0   Planning

1.1   The inservice education program is an integral part of the total organizational system within which it functions.   L S C G

1.2   Written policy exists to support the inservice education program.   L S C G

1.3   The assumptions and the theoretical rationale underlying the inservice program are explicitly stated.   L S C G

1.4   The inservice education program design describes the organizational role, responsibility and support for planning, implementation and evaluation of the program.   L S C G

1.5   Procedures exist to assure the program of adequate fiscal, material, staff and facility resources.   L S C G

1.6   Federal, state, and local policies pertaining to the inservice education program are studied by planning participants.   L S C G

1.7   The inservice program design includes plans for facilitating the implementation of quality practices throughout the system.   L S C G

1.8 The inservice program design is long range and provides for ongoing implementation, support and evaluation. L S C G

1.9 The inservice education program provides opportunities for all school personnel to act as participants. L S C G

1.10 Personnel from agencies involved or affected by the inservice education program are included in the planning process. L S C G

1.11 All groups which are affected by the inservice education program, including parents and students, have a voice in decisions regarding the program. L S C G

1.12 Procedures exist to assure inclusion of community resources for the inservice education program. L S C G

1.13 The inservice program design recognizes the vital importance of the participants' perceptions of the need for the training proposed. L S C G

1.14 An assessment of the strengths and needs of the prospective participants and the systems is part of the inservice program design. L S C G

1.15 Inservice program goals are derived primarily from a set of educational goals for students, including students with handicaps. L S C G

1.16 The inservice program design defines a dynamic and continuous process that is flexible and responsive to changing needs and new requirements. L S C G

1.17 The inservice program design includes goals which are designed to reduce undue stress and to increase both competence and morale among program participants. L S C G

1.18 The inservice program design includes both short-term and long-term goals. L S C G

2.0 Implementation

2.1 Information about inservice activities is systematically communicated to all audiences concerned. L S C G

2.2 Inservice activities include students as teachers/
learners whenever possible.   .   L S C G

2.3 Inservice content and strategies are drawn from
and designed to meet the assessed needs of students,
personnel and organizations.   L S C G

2.4 Programs include activities to meet the needs of
leadership personnel, with special attention to
building principals.   L S C G

2.5 Inservice activities are individualized, insofar as
possible, to meet the needs and goals of individual
participants.   L S C G

2.6 Inservice providers are selected on the basis of
qualifications for specific tasks.   L S C G

2.7 Inservice activities make use of peer-teaching strat-
egies and participant-created materials, whenever
appropriate.   L S C G

2.8 On-site demonstrations with students are included
when appropriate to the inservice education experi-
ence.   L S C G

2.9 Participants are provided with positive feedback on
their progress and with follow-through consultation
which is kept separate from the system's personnel
evaluation procedures.   L S C G

2.10 Inservice activities are offered in logical sequence.   L S C G

2.11 Inservice activities are offered frequently.   L S C G

2.12 Inservice activities are planned and conducted with
minimum interference to the students' ongoing in-
structional program.   L S C G

2.13 Inservice activities are conducted primarily during
participants' normal working hours.   L S C G

2.14 Inservice activities are conducted, whenever pos-
sible, on the participants' work site.   L S C G

2.15 Inservice locations are selected to provide the most appropriate setting for the knowledge, skills and attitudes to be acquired and demonstrated.   L S C G

3.0   Evaluation

3.1   Participants and others affected by the inservice education programs are major providers of data for evaluation.   L S C G

3.2   Decisions concerning the inservice education program consider ongoing program evaluation by program participants and others affected by the program.   L S C G

3.3   The inservice evaluation design is comprehensive and addresses the process components: planning, implementation, and dissemination.   L S C G

3.4   The inservice evaluation design is responsive to knowledge, skill, and affective outcomes.   L S C G

3.5   Data from evaluation is used for ongoing planning of the inservice program.   L S C G

3.6   The inservice education evaluation design is reliable and valid.   L S C G

3.7   The evaluation design includes plans to frequently report data on all major aspects of the program -- including impact on students -- to all major audiences.   L S C G

3.8   The documentation of the impact of inservice activities should include the perceptions of students themselves whenever appropriate.   L S C G

Optional: Please provide background information requested below:

Number of Schools: _____

Student Enrollment: _____

Number of Teachers: _____

Student-Teacher Ratio: _____ : _____

Number of Administrators: _____

Assessed Valuation of District: _____

Median Teacher Salary:

    Bachelor's Degree _____

    Master's Degree _____

    Doctor's Degree _____

Please send summary of results _____

Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire

The items in this questionnaire describe behavior or conditions that occur within a school. Please indicate to what extent each of these conditions characterize your school by circling the appropriate number following each statement. The numbers after each statement have the following meanings:

1. Rarely occurs
2. Sometimes occurs
3. Often occurs
4. Very frequently occurs

Do not evaluate the items in terms of "good" or "bad" behavior, but read each item carefully and respond in terms of how well the statement describes your school.

Please respond to every item.

1. Teachers' closest friends are other faculty members at this school.   1 2 3 4

2. The mannerisms of teachers at this school are annoying.   1 2 3 4

3. Teachers spend time after school with students who have individual problems.   1 2 3 4

4. Instructions for the operation of teaching aids are available.   1 2 3 4

5. Teachers invite other faculty to visit them at home.   1 2 3 4

6. There is a minority group of teachers who always oppose the majority.   1 2 3 4

7. Extra books are available for classroom use.   1 2 3 4

8. Sufficient time is given to prepare administrative reports.   1 2 3 4

9. Teachers know the family backgrounds of other faculty members.   1 2 3 4

1. Rarely occurs
2. Sometimes occurs
3. Often occurs
4. Very frequently occurs

10. Teachers exert group pressure on non-conforming faculty members.   1 2 3 4

11. In faculty meetings, there is a feeling of "let's get things done."   1 2 3 4

12. Administrative paperwork is burdensome at this school.   1 2 3 4

13. Teachers talk about their personal life to other faculty members.   1 2 3 4

14. Teachers seek special favors from the principal.   1 2 3 4

15. School supplies are readily available for use in classwork.   1 2 3 4

16. Student progress reports require too much work.   1 2 3 4

17. Teachers have fun socializing together during school time.   1 2 3 4

18. Teachers interrupt other faculty members who are talking in staff meetings.   1 2 3 4

19. Most of the teachers here accept the faults of their colleagues.   1 2 3 4

20. Teachers have too many committee requirements.   1 2 3 4

21. There is considerable laughter when teachers gather informally.   1 2 3 4

22. Teachers ask nonsensical questions in faculty meetings.   1 2 3 4

23. Custodial service is available when needed.   1 2 3 4

24. Routine duties interfere with the job of teaching.   1 2 3 4

25. Teachers prepare administrative reports by themselves.   1 2 3 4

26. Teachers ramble when they talk in faculty meetings.   1 2 3 4

27. Teachers at this school show much school spirit.   1 2 3 4

1. Rarely occurs
2. Sometimes occurs
3. Often occurs
4. Very frequently occurs

28. The principal goes out of his way to help teachers.   1 2 3 4

29. The principal helps teachers solve personal problems.   1 2 3 4

30. Teachers at this school stay by themselves.   1 2 3 4

31. The teachers accomplish their work with great vim,
    vigor, and pleasure.   1 2 3 4

32. The principal sets an example by working hard himself.   1 2 3 4

33. The principal does personal favors for teachers.   1 2 3 4

34. Teachers eat lunch by themselves in their own classrooms.   1 2 3 4

35. The morale of the teachers is high.   1 2 3 4

36. The principal uses constructive criticism.   1 2 3 4

37. The principal stays after school to help teachers finish
    their work.   1 2 3 4

38. Teachers socialize together in small select groups.   1 2 3 4

39. The principal makes all class-scheduling decisions.   1 2 3 4

40. Teachers are contacted by the principal each day.   1 2 3 4

41. The principal is well prepared when he speaks at school
    functions.   1 2 3 4

42. The principal helps staff members settle minor differences. 1 2 3 4

43. The principal schedules the work for the teachers.   1 2 3 4

44. Teachers leave the grounds during the school day.   1 2 3 4

45. Teachers help select which courses will be taught.   1 2 3 4

46. The principal corrects teachers' mistakes.   1 2 3 4

47. The principal talks a great deal.   1 2 3 4

1. Rarely occurs
2. Sometimes occurs
3. Often occurs
4. Very frequently occurs

48. The principal explains his reasons for criticism to teachers.   1 2 3 4

49. The principal tries to get better salaries for teachers.   1 2 3 4

50. Extra duty for teachers is posted conspicuously.   1 2 3 4

51. The rules set by the principal are never questioned.   1 2 3 4

52. The principal looks out for the personal welfare of teachers.   1 2 3 4

53. School secretarial service is available for teachers' use.   1 2 3 4

54. The principal runs the faculty meeting like a business conference.   1 2 3 4

55. The principal is in the building before teachers arrive.   1 2 3 4

56. Teachers work together preparing administrative reports.   1 2 3 4

57. Faculty meetings are organized according to a tight agenda.   1 2 3 4

58. Faculty meetings are mainly principal-report meetings.   1 2 3 4

59. The principal tells teachers of new ideas he has run across.   1 2 3 4

60. Teachers talk about leaving the school system.   1 2 3 4

61. The principal checks the subject-matter ability of teachers.   1 2 3 4

62. The principal is easy to understand.   1 2 3 4

63. Teachers are informed of the results of a supervisor's visit.   1 2 3 4

64. The principal insures that teachers work to their full capacity.   1 2 3 4

Optional: Please provide background information requested below:

Student Enrollment: _____

Number of Teachers _____

Teaching (Grade) Level: _____

Class Size: _____

Tenure Status (Yes or No); _____

Total Teaching Experience (Years): _____

Age: _____

Sex: _____

Race: _____

Degree Status: _____
    (Bachelor's, Master's, Doctor's)

APPENDIX E

Task Force Questionnaire

Directions:

Rate each quality practice by circling one response to each of the three questions. Use your personal/professional judgment concerning principles underlying inservice practices. Please feel free to add comments in the space provided on page 9. Please answer every item.

```
Name _____
Position _____
Address _____
City/State _____

Do you wish to receive a copy of the final
list of statements of quality practices?
        Yes _____          No _____
```

L = Little   S = Somewhat   C = Considerable   G = Great

Sample:

	How important is the practice?	To what extent is this practice presently occurring within local school systems?	How difficult would it be to implement this practice in local school systems?
The importance to education of my completing this questionnaire. L S C G			

	How important is the practice?	To what extent is this practice presently occurring within local school systems?	How difficult would it be to implement this practice in local school systems?
1.0 Planning	Circle one	Circle one	Circle one
1.1 Management			
1.1.1 The inservice education program is an integral part of the total organizational system within which it functions.	L S C G	L S C G	L S C G

1.1.2	Written policy exists to support the inservice education program.	L S C G	L S C G	L S C G
1.1.3	The assumptions and the theoretical rationale underlying the inservice program would be explicitly stated.	L S C G	L S C G	L S C G
1.1.4	Procedures exist to assure inclusion of community resources for the inservice education program.	L S C G	L S C G	L S C G
1.1.5	Procedures exist to assure and access adequate numbers of personnel, adequate fiscal, material and facility resources.	L S C G	L S C G	L S C G
1.1.6	The inservice education program design describes the organizational role, responsibility and support for planning, implementation and evaluation of the program.	L S C G	L S C G	L S C G
1.1.7	An assessment of the strengths and needs of the prospective participants and the system is part of the inservice program design.	L S C G	L S C G	L S C G
1,1.8	The inservice program design is long range and provides for on-going support and evaluation.	L S C G	L S C G	L S C G

1.1.9   The inservice program design
includes both short-term and
long-term goals.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

1.1.10   The inservice program design
defines outcome expectations,
including knowledge, skill and
affective goals.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

1.1.11   The inservice program design
defines a dynamic and continuous
process that is flexible and res-
ponsive to changing needs and new
requirements.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

1.1.12   The inservice program design
includes plans for facilitating
the implementation of quality
practices throughout the system.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

1.2   Participants

1.2.1   Federal, state, and local poli-
cies pertaining to the inservice
education program are studied
by planning participants.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

1.2.2   Agencies involved or affected by
the inservice education program
are included in the planning process.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

1.2.3   The inservice education program provides opportunities for all school personnel to act as participants.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

1.2.4   All groups which are affected by the inservice education program, including parents and students, have a voice in decisions regarding the program.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

1.2.5   The inservice program design includes goals which are designed to prevent "burnout" and to increase both competence and morale among program participants.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

1.2.6   The inservice program design recognizes the vital importance of the participants' perceptions of the need for the training proposed.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

1.3   Students

1.3.1   Inservice activities are planned and conducted with minimum interference to the students' ongoing instructional program.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

1.3.2   Inservice program goals are derived, primarily, from a comprehensive set of educational goals for students, including students with handicaps.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

2.0   Implementation

2.1   Management

2.1.1   Inservice content and strategies are directly derived from the assessed needs of students, personnel and organizations concerned.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

2.1.2   Inservice activities are offered frequently.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

2.1.3   Inservice activities are offered in a logical sequence.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

2.1.4   Information about inservice activities is systematically communicated to all audiences concerned.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

2.1.5   Inservice providers are selected on the basis of qualifications for specific tasks.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

2.1.6   Inservice activities are conducted, whenever possible, on the participants' work site.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

2.1.7   Inservice locations are selected to provide the most appropriate setting for the knowledge, skills and attitudes to be acquired and demonstrated.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

2.1.8   Inservice activities are conducted primarily during participants' normal working hours.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

2.1.9   Inservice activities make use of participant created materials whenever possible.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

2.1.10   The inservice education program provides participants with positive feedback on their progress from program leaders, peers and clients.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

2.1.11   The goals of individual participants for inservice should be defined and acknowledged in the overall program goals to the maximum extent possible.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

2.2   Participants

2.2.1   Inservice education programs provide for the assessed needs of leadership personnel, building principals in particular.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

2.2.2   Inservice activities are individualized,
        insofar as possible, to each parti-
        cipants' assessed needs and desires. L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

2.2.3   Inservice activities emphasize
        peer-teaching learning.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

2.2.4   Inservice participants should have
        access to follow-through consulta-
        tion which is separate from the
        personnel evaluation process of the
        system.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

2.3 Students

2.3.1   Inservice activities include stu-
        dents as teachers/learners when-
        ever possible.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

2.3.2   On-site demonstrations with stu-
        dents are included when appropriate
        to the inservice education experi-
        ence.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

3.0 Evaluation

3.1 Management

3.1.1   Decisions concerning the inservice
        education program are based upon
        the evaluations of program partici-
        pants and others who are affected
        by the program.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

3.1.2   The inservice education evalua-
        tion design addresses the process
        components, planning, implemen-
        tation and evaluation.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

3.1.3   The inservice education evalua-
        tion design is reliable and valid
        and includes plans to frequently
        report data on all major aspects of
        the inservice program to all audi-
        ences concerned for ongoing planning. L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

3.1.4   Efforts to discuss and spread in-
        formation on inservice programs
        are evaluated.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

3.2   Participants

3.2.1   Participants and others affected
        by the inservice education program
        are major providers of data for
        evaluation.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

3.2.2   Ongoing program evaluation feed-
        back will be provided to the par-
        ticipants so that it may affect the
        inservice effort.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

3.3 Students

3.3.1   The impact of inservice acti-
vities on students should be
documented as part of the in-
service effort.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

3.3.2   The documentation of the impact
of inservice activities should in-
clude the perceptions of students
themselves whenever appropriate.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

3.3.3   The impact of inservice activi-
ties on students should be fre-
quently reported to the concerned
audiences.   L S C G   L S C G   L S C G

APPENDIX F

Quality Practices in Inservice Education Statements

Developed by Quality Practices Task Force
of National Inservice Network
Indiana University
August 1980

I. Quality practice in inservice education recognizes that programs must be

integrated into and supported by the organization within which they function.

> The inservice education program is an integral part of the total
> organizational system within which it functions.
>
> Written policy exists to support the inservice education program.
>
> The assumptions and the theoretical rationale underlying the in-
> service program are explicitly stated.
>
> The inservice education program design describes the organi-
> zational role, responsibility and support for planning, imple-
> mentation and evaluation of the program.
>
> Procedures exist to assure the program of adequate fiscal,
> material, staff and facility resources.
>
> Federal, state, and local policies pertaining to the inservice
> education program are studied by planning participants.
>
> The inservice program design includes plans for facilitating
> the implementation of quality practices throughout the system.
>
> The inservice program design is long range and provides for
> ongoing implementation, support and evaluation.
>
> Information about inservice activities is systematically com-
> municated to all audiences concerned.

II. Quality practices in inservice education are designed to result in programs

which are collaborative.

> The inservice education program provides opportunities for
> all school personnel to act as participants.

Personnel from agencies involved or affected by the inservice education program are included in the planning process.

All groups which are affected by the inservice education program, including parents and students, have a voice in decisions regarding the program.

Inservice activities include students as teachers/learners whenever possible.

Procedures exist to assure inclusion of community resources for the inservice education program.

Participants and others affected by the inservice education program are major providers of data for evaluation.

III. Quality practices in inservice education are designed to result in programs which are needs based.

The inservice program design recognizes the vital importance of the participants' perceptions of the need for the training proposed.

An assessment of the strengths and needs of the prospective participants and the systems is part of the inservice program design.

Inservice program goals are derived primarily from a set of educational goals for students, including students with handicaps.

Inservice content and strategies are drawn from and designed to meet the assessed needs of students, personnel and organizations.

Programs include activities to meet the needs of leadership personnel, with special attention to building principals.

IV. Quality practices in inservice education are designed to result in programs which are responsive to changing needs.

The inservice program design defines a dynamic and continuous process that is flexible and responsive to changing needs and new requirements.

Inservice activities are individualized, insofar as possible, to meet the needs and goals of individual participants.

The inservice program design includes goals which are designed to reduce undue stress and to increase both competence and morale among program participants.

Inservice providers are selected on the basis of qualifications for specific tasks.

Inservice activities make use of peer-teaching strategies and participant-created materials, whenever appropriate.

On-site demonstrations with students are included when appropriate to the inservice education experience.

Participants are provided with positive feedback on their progress and with follow-through consultation which is kept separate from the system's personnel evaluation procedures.

V. Quality practices in inservice education are designed to result in programs which are accessible.

Inservice activities are offered in a logical sequence.

Inservice activities are offered frequently.

Inservice activities are planned and conducted with minimum interference to the students' ongoing instructional program.

Inservice activities are conducted primarily during participants' normal working hours.

Inservice activities are conducted, whenever possible, on the participants' work site.

Inservice locations are selected to provide the most appropriate setting for the knowledge, skills and attitudes to be acquired and demonstrated.

VI. Evaluation of inservice activities is an essential component of a quality program and should be designed and conducted in ways compatible with the underlying philosophy and approach of the program.

Decisions concerning the inservice education program con-
sider ongoing program evaluation by program participants
and others affected by the program.

The inservice program design includes both short-term
and long-term goals.

The inservice evaluation design is comprehensive and ad-
dresses the process components: planning, implementation,
and dissemination.

The inservice evaluation design is responsive to knowledge,
skill, and affective outcomes.

Data from evaluation is used for ongoing planning of the
inservice program.

The inservice education evaluation design is reliable and
valid.

The evaluation design includes plans to frequently report
data on all major aspects of the program -- including impact
on students -- to all major audiences.

The documentation of the impact of inservice activities
should include the perceptions of students themselves when-
ever appropriate.

APPROVAL SHEET

The dissertation submitted by Thomas Keith Buell has been read and approved by the following committee:

>   Dr. Max A. Bailey, Director
>   Associate Professor, Department of
>   Administration and Supervision, Loyola
>
>   Dr. Karen S. Gallagher
>   Associate Professor, Department of
>   Administration and Supervision, Loyola
>
>   Dr. Robert L. Monks
>   Director, Department of Continuing
>   Education, Loyola

The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation is now given final approval by the Committee with reference to content and form.

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.

November 21, 1983
Date

Max Bailey
Director's Signature