Climate in Catholic Schools: A Comparative Study of Three Types of Organizational Structures

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CLIMATE IN CATHOLIC SCHOOLS: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THREE TYPES OF ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURES

by

Andra Zommers

A Dissertation
Submitted to the
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requirements for the
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Dr. Van Cooley, Advisor

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I have spent nearly ten years working in the Catholic schools of the Diocese of Kalamazoo, first as a teacher and now as a building principal. The students, teachers, and families have brought me a great deal of joy and it is a privilege to serve in a community that centers on Christ.

The topic of Catholic schools and their future is of great interest to me. As the Catholic schools in Kalamazoo struggled through change in order to remain viable, I experienced the impact that a changing climate can have on a school community. This experience led me to my topic for this dissertation.

I am grateful to the chair of my dissertation committee, Dr. Van Cooley, who provided guidance and feedback throughout the completion of my work. I sincerely thank Dr. Jianping Shen for his patience and the guidance that he provided in working with the national data set. I thank Dr. Margie Geasler for her expertise and for providing invaluable feedback on my dissertation.

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Andra Zommers
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The mission of Catholic schools in the United States is to educate children who will become useful contributors to society, a mission common to public schools. However, Catholic schools have distinct characteristics that distinguish them from their public counterparts, and that provide a unique climate, conducive to academic excellence and to building a lifelong relationship with Jesus, the Master Teacher.

Guidance for Catholic schools around the world comes from the Catholic Church itself. In 1965, the Second Vatican Council published the Declaration on Christian Education, Gravissimum educationis. The document describes these distinguishing characteristics of Catholic schools:

"The influence of the Church in the field of education is shown in a special manner by the Catholic school. No less than other schools does the Catholic school pursue cultural goals and the human formation of youth. But its proper function is to create for the school community a special atmosphere animated by the Gospel spirit of freedom and charity, to help youth grow according to the new creatures they were made through baptism as they develop their own personalities, and finally to order the whole of human culture to the news of salvation so that the knowledge the students gradually acquire of the world, life and man is illumined by faith. (par. 8)"

McDermott (1997) writes that Jesus Christ is the cornerstone of Catholic schools. Bishops and pastors base their mission of providing Catholic education on Jesus' charge to His apostles to go out and teach all people. Unless Catholic schools are inspired by Scripture and by Jesus, the root of Church tradition, efforts to build effective Catholic schools will be in vain (Cook, 2001). Parents enroll their children in Catholic schools
because they expect the school to fulfill this mission. Teachers expect this environment as they look for employment in Catholic schools.

Catholic schools are experiencing a variety of difficulties, among them changing demographics and finances. In countries other than the United States, governments are putting obstacles in the way of Catholic education (Sacred Congregation for Religious Education, 1997, par. 7). Some of these difficulties mirror the challenges public schools are experiencing, including increasing student needs in a time of limited funding, shifts in populations and demographics and declining enrollment. The challenges are bringing about reorganization of Catholic schools, which causes uncertainty and instability in the schools. The changes can be positive or negative depending on the school’s willingness to change and the effect of the change on the school’s climate (Hoy & Hoy, 2003).

Declining enrollment in Catholic schools, among other reasons, is forcing change in organizations that have been considered effective for many decades. In the past, Catholic schools have been able to adapt to changes gradually. The rate of change in today’s society requires the Church and schools to react quickly to adapt to a new environment (Hallinan, 2000). The Church in the United States has resources to meet these challenges, but must draw on the experiences in the past and an understanding of successful school organizations to bring about the best possible change (“Report: Catholics Must Rethink Parochial School System,” 2007).

Consistent decline in enrollment nationwide puts Catholic schools at a critical point where reorganization is necessary in order to survive. How can these changes be made without losing the distinct characteristics, the unique climate, that exists in Catholic schools?
Background of the Study

Catholic schools are unique in that they provide quality education in core subject areas and quality religious education. Both are integrated into effective programs that serve society and the Catholic Church (Drahmann, 1985). Teachers and administrators who become a part of the Catholic school system are aware that they are subject to the authorities that govern the Catholic Church and that all decisions made and actions taken, regardless of the school's organizational structure, are to further the mission of the Church, as well as effectively educate the students.

Organization of Catholic Schools

The very first Catholic schools in the United States were established in Florida and Louisiana in the 17th century. It was in 1840 that Catholic bishops in this nation made the first references to the struggles that Catholic children were encountering in the Protestant-influenced public school system (Guerra, 2004; Hunt, 2005; Palestini, 2004; Sander, 2005).

In 1884, 71 bishops of the Catholic Church in America met for the Third Plenary Council of Baltimore (Guerra, 2004). The bishops directed that a school should be established in each parish and should be maintained by the parish. This directive stemmed from the bishops' view that public schools fostered violence toward and lies about Catholics. In response to the directive, Catholic schools began springing up across the country. The schools reached their peak enrollment in the middle of the 1960s, when more than 4.5 million children enrolled in parish elementary schools (Guerra, 2004;
It was in this era that Catholic schools served as a source of pride for the Church. Catholic schools formed students who were well-educated, moral, and sensitive to both the teachings of the Church and the needs of the world (Hallinan, 2000).

The discussions of education at the Third Plenary Council also established diocesan school boards and/or superintendents to standardize and establish some control over schools. The Third Plenary Council, while instrumental in establishing Catholic schools in all parishes, did not take into account that the Church lacked the funds necessary to educate every child (Walch, 2003). This problem exists today as Catholic schools struggle to continue their mission and to be good stewards of money. Nonetheless Catholic schools did, and still do, strive to provide education equal or superior to public schools. They are also focused on social issues, justice and peace, graduating students that engage in social activism and community service (Hallinan, 2000).

Traditionally Catholic schools are organized under one of three structures: Parochial, Diocesan, and Private. Inter-parochial schools, an offshoot of parochial schools, have emerged as a fourth type of Catholic school structure. The National Catholic Education Association (NCEA), which is responsible for research and development of Catholic schools in the nation, reported in 1990-1991 that 85% of Catholic schools were parish schools, 8.9% were inter-parish schools, 2.3 were classified as diocesan schools and 3.8% were private Catholic schools (Harkins, 1993). By 2004, the demographics had changed. Guerra (2004) reported that 67% of Catholic schools were parish schools, 12% were inter-parish schools, 10% were diocesan schools, and 11% were private schools.
Though set up differently, the organizational structures have common elements. Each of the organizational structures has a school board with certain responsibilities; each of the systems is, in the end, responsible to the bishop of the diocese where the school is located; and each of the structures has building principals who answer for the daily operations of the schools.

Decision making differs in each of the structures of Catholic schools. Parochial or parish schools identify the pastor as the school’s canonical administrator. However, the pastor, along with the local school board, is responsible for hiring a principal to oversee the operations of the school. The principal’s actions most likely are preceded by policies established by the local board and approved by the parish pastor (Drahmann, 1985). Local school boards operate according to by-laws approved by the pastor and are consultative in nature. The members of local school boards are parents or alumni of the school and their charge is to take ownership of school issues. Committees of the board include finance, development, and planning, and local board members are involved in ensuring that the mission and vision of the school are nurtured (Convey & Haney, 1997). Inter-parochial schools operate under these same guidelines, but for the number of pastors involved. Instead of one pastor, a group of pastors or supporting parishes participate in the decision making for the school or schools.

In diocesan schools, the bishop, the canonical leader of a diocese, a regional unit established by the Catholic Church, is the chief teacher, shares in the ministry of teaching, and is the administrator of diocesan schools. The operations of diocesan schools are delegated to a superintendent and an office of schools (Drahmann, 1985). An advisory or consultative school board also governs diocesan schools. The bishop approves by-laws
and policies of the diocesan school board and the function of the diocesan board is similar to that of the parochial school board. The diocesan board works in a variety of committees, has ownership of school issues, and strives to keep communication open with all key groups. The diocesan school board’s primary function is to advise the superintendent on issues of development, finance, and, to some degree, curriculum (Convey & Haney, 1997).

Private Catholic schools are most often owned and controlled by a religious order. These schools are established with the permission of the bishop and are subject to the bishop’s authority, but operate largely independent of the diocesan office of Catholic schools. Private schools can also be established and operated by a lay school board, but are still subject to the approval of the diocesan bishop (Drahmann, 1985).

Climate in Schools

Hoy and Hoy (2003) define climate as the characteristics that are unique to an organization, that distinguish one organization from another, essentially the personality of the organization. Climate is the subjective experience of those within schools. Climate strongly influences the members of the organization: in the case of schools, the staff, students, and families of a school. A positive climate has a healthy effect on students’ ability to learn and to develop (Cohen, Shapiro, & Fisher, 2006). A positive climate has a healthy effect on staff behavior, job satisfaction, and interactions between administrators, staff, students, and parents.

Catholic schools, and those involved in Catholic schools, are committed to the organization and to the unique climate in Catholic schools. Those committed view their
participation in the life of the school as a ministry and they believe that their collective value, that is, the value of the community, is greater than the sum of its parts (Haney & O'Keefe, 1999; Hoy & Miskel, 2001; Sacred Congregation for Religious Education, 1988).

McDermott (1997) writes about climate in Catholic schools by identifying social behaviors and the structure of a communal school organization as the key to a positive, open climate. In addition, shared values within the school community, and distinct social relations among the membership of the school, foster collegiality and community.

Many public and private schools are effective at building community. Catholic schools provide the unique opportunity for students to be members of both an academic community and a religious community. In 1972, the National Conference of Catholic Bishops published the document *To Teach as Jesus Did*. The document reinforces the belief that the Catholic Church must be active in its educational efforts and that forming, or shaping, people in community is central to these efforts. The Bishops stressed the importance of providing strong academic programs in order to educate each child, but that building a living and faithful community is a goal specific to Catholic education (Cook, 2001).

*Organizational Structure and Climate*

The attention of administrators is being focused on efficiency and on function as schools struggle to be fiscally responsible. Cook (2001) warns that this focus renders the people within the schools nameless and faceless. They function simply to fill a role. This anonymity of workers allows for schools to become organizationally neat, but devoid of
any human distinction. To counteract this negative outcome, schools must focus on climate as intensely as they focus on becoming fiscally sound. Miller and Fredericks (1990) write that as schools identify their climate, they have the additional power of understanding predictors for other important school related outcomes, such as the effect of socioeconomic status on achievement and the effect of achievement on school success.

Hoy, Tarter, and Kottkamp (1991) stress that open organizational climates are conduits to effective schools. As schools plan for future growth and as schools restructure their organizations, they must focus on four areas. First, school organizations must secure sufficient resources and environments that accommodate their needs, and second, schools must ensure solidarity and cohesiveness within their systems. Additionally, schools must set and implement reasonable and relevant goals while creating and preserving their unique values and their unique climates (Hoy & Hoy, 2003).

While strong community is a good predictor of an open climate, the opposite is also true. An open, positive climate is a good predictor of open communication, authentic leadership, and shared decision making, which are characteristics of a strong community. Johnson, Livingston, Schwartz, and Slate (2000) list school climate as a characteristic of effective schools. They also specify effective instruction, high expectations, leadership, and parental feedback as effective school characteristics. These predictors are all highly valued within Catholic schools.

Kushner and Helbling (1995) add to this list of characteristics, focusing on collegiality as central to effective organizations. Shared decision making through a team approach, communication of goals, and communication links between school staff and top leaders are critical in building school community.
There is a difference in the way teachers and administrators perceive their role in decision making. The difference could stem from the approach both groups take to leadership. Ideally both administrators and teachers are empowered to contribute to decisions that impact curriculum, professional development, and financial issues. Shen (1998, 2001) examined longitudinal data from 1987 to 1994 to evaluate changes occurring in school leadership. While principals perceived teacher leadership to be on the rise, especially in school-wide curricular decisions, teachers viewed their own influence over these decisions to have remained unchanged. Teachers felt their power was confined to making decisions in the classroom. The discrepancy between these perceptions must not be overlooked. Understanding the difference in perceptions could contribute to bringing about positive changes and more participatory leadership.

The majority of Catholic schools continue to operate as parish schools that have been highly successful. However, in light of declining enrollment, Catholic schools must look at restructuring in order to operate more efficiently. As Catholic schools consider their future, they are challenged to address all four areas identified by Hoy and Hoy (2003) as necessary for effective schools: resources, cohesiveness, shared goals, and preservation of values and climate.

Small Catholic schools have had built-in advantages for success, most of them pertaining to their sense of community and positive, open climates. Kealey (1998) suggests that the success of bigger schools, consolidated systems, and multi-parish efforts will depend on how much the new organizations will incorporate the advantages, the values, and the virtues of small Catholic schools into their new structures.
Change is imminent, but change will be successful only if organizations are mindful of their present assets and if the future includes that which is lacking in the present. Catholic schools must restructure their organizations to address the needs for the future, while maintaining the unique characteristics that have allowed them to be effective schools to date.

Purpose of the Study

As Catholic schools experience change, as the schools reorganize in order to ensure their future, Catholic school leadership must understand the relationship between organizational structure and school climate. This information will aide administration, staff, and families in preserving a positive school climate within a reorganized structure.

Schools have different climates. Drahmann (1985) also states that patterns of governance and participation in decision making vary tremendously among schools. A school's climate depends largely upon the teaching staff and the administration intimately involved in the daily life of the school. Students and families are contributors to the school’s climate, guided by the patterns and practices established by the organization.

Despite the differences in governance structures, Catholic schools strive to provide a climate that espouses the mission of the Catholic Church. Schools must recognize that they are a part of the greater Church structure and their mission must reflect the mission of the Church.

The purpose of this study was to describe Catholic school structures, to define school climate, and to evaluate whether climate is different in each of the school structures. The following research questions guided the study.
**Question 1**

Can the three types of Catholic elementary schools be distinguished by the way school climate is perceived by teachers and by principals?

**Question 2**

Within each type of Catholic elementary school, does the perception of climate vary between teachers and principals?

The Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) provides empirical data about Catholic schools in the United States. The surveys are completed by school principals and by teachers, both of whom have a unique perspective regarding the climate of their school. Evaluating principals' and teachers' responses to a number of questions, and then comparing the responses among the three types of schools, adds a dimension to understanding the school's climate.

The following questions taken from the SASS questionnaires furthered our understanding of the climate of Catholic schools within each of the three organizational structures:

1. Are faculty and staff generally satisfied with their jobs in the school?
2. To what extent do teachers and administrators view teacher absenteeism as a problem in their school?
3. How do teachers and administrators perceive decisions are made within each of the organizational structures, including decisions on curriculum and standards, discipline, professional development, and budget?
Significance of the Study

Catholic schools in this country have a long history that precedes the establishment of the United States of America. Since their beginnings, Catholic schools have seen both significant growth and serious decline in student population. Catholic school leaders must be cognizant of changes in their future and make decisions that help retain a maximum number of students throughout the process of change (McDonald, 2006).

Positive school climate can be a force in retaining families in Catholic schools. By analyzing the national data set, this study can provide an overview of school climate in each of three types of Catholic schools. Catholic school leaders can use the results of this study to make decisions about restructuring their schools.

The public sector should also be aware of how Catholic schools are organized and how organization contributes to the overall positive experience of students and families. Palestini (2004) states that, along with other private schools, Catholic schools are better at adapting to their environment. Environments that are flexible can utilize aspects of successful systems to maximize their potential. McDonald (2006) writes that parents of Catholic school students are generally satisfied with their school experience. Using the results of this study, public and charter school administrators can make good decisions about their own schools.

This study also investigated whether there is a difference in the way teachers and principals perceive their school’s climate within each of the Catholic school structures. Studies have been done in the past comparing teacher and principal perceptions of
leadership within schools (Shen, 1998, 2001, 2005). Discrepancies between teachers’ and principals’ perceptions of leadership could influence the way that school administrators are educated (Shen, 1998, 2001, 2005). The results of this study could help researchers understand whether there is also a difference in the way principals and teachers perceive climate.

Operational Definitions

The following definitions were used for the purpose of this study:

*Catholic school*—regular elementary or secondary school with a Roman Catholic religious orientation or affiliation.

*Teacher*—regular full-time teacher teaching only in one school. The actual question from the Private School Teacher Questionnaire Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) 2003-2004 was: What was your MAIN activity LAST school year (2002-2003) (Question 5)?

*Principal*—the head of the school.

*Organizational structure of Catholic schools*—systems of governance within Catholic schools. Structures used in this study include: (a) parochial (inter-parochial), (b) diocesan, and (c) private.

*Parochial schools*—part of the educational mission of a parish with the pastor of the parish as the canonical administrator. The principal of a parochial school is responsible to the pastor and the school must adhere to diocesan policies (Sheehan, 1990). Inter-parochial schools are the exception to the traditional organizational structure of parish schools. These are schools supported by more than one parish with principals
being accountable to one pastor who is the canonical administrator. A regional school board with limited jurisdiction can govern inter-parochial schools or dioceses can establish the school as a separate juridic person.

Diocesan schools—organized as a system where the principal is accountable to the head of the diocese, the bishop, through the superintendent of schools (Sheehan, 1990).

Private Catholic—schools owned and operated by lay boards. These schools receive approval from the diocesan bishop in order to be acknowledged as Catholic schools. Often private Catholic schools are part of the mission of a religious order and are administered by the order (Sheehan, 1990).

Climate in Catholic schools—defined by a set of variables within the SASS including: teacher satisfaction with school, teacher absenteeism, and decision making from both the teachers’ and the principals’ perspective.

Conceptual Framework

Figure 1 illustrates the study that was conducted. The Schools and Staffing Surveys provided data to answer the two questions stated earlier. First, can the types of Catholic elementary schools be distinguished by school climate as perceived by teachers and by principals? Second, within each of the types of schools, does perception of climate vary between teachers and principals? This information is critical to Catholic school organizations as they plan for their futures.
CLIMATE IN CATHOLIC SCHOOLS
A comparative study of three types of organizational structures

Figure 1. Climate in Catholic Schools
Strengths and Limitations of the Study

The national data used contributed to the strength of this study. The sample size and the method of soliciting responses by the National Center for Education Statistics are widely accepted. SASS data are also nationally recognized as reliable and valid. The results of the survey are weighted, further improving the national estimates (Tourkin et al., 2007).

In this study, I used multiple measures to gauge climate in Catholic schools. By comparing teacher and principal perceptions on decision making and teacher absenteeism, I was able make assumptions about the climate of the schools. The 2003-2004 SASS data also included a question about teacher satisfaction with the school and this question directly asks whether the experience within a school is positive or negative.

There are limitations to my study. The research is purely quantitative and provides relevant data pertaining to the climate in Catholic schools. Understanding climate fully, however, requires an in-depth and objective look into the operations of each school.

Second, the study used an already existing data set. The data were collected prior to the inception of this study and the research questions were formulated in part, using the existing data.

Last, the Schools and Staffing Survey includes inter-parochial schools within the parochial category, due to the similarities in the organizational structures of the two. Based on my experience in Catholic schools, parochial and inter-parochial schools can be very different in climate.
Organization of the Study

This study is organized into five chapters. Chapter I provides an introduction to the study, including the background, purpose, research questions, significance of the study, operational definitions, conceptual framework, and the strengths and limitations of the study. Chapter II focuses on existing literature about organizational structures of schools and structures of Catholic schools, climate in schools and climate specific to Catholic schools, and the structure of schools in relationship to the climate in schools. Chapter III details the methodology for the study, including the design, the sample, weighting, instrumentation, data collection, and the data analysis procedures. Results of the study are presented in Chapter IV, and Chapter V provides and interpretation of the results and suggestions for future research.
CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The need for reorganizing Catholic schools is directly tied to the problem of shrinking student population. Declining enrollment in Catholic schools is attributed to a variety of factors. As cited in Toppo (2008), Karen Ristau, president of the National Catholic Education Association, is quoted as saying, “We didn’t build schools fast enough” as demographics shifted in the mid to late 20th century and Catholics moved to the suburbs. In addition, the responsibility for Catholic schools was taken from the general population of a parish and laid solely on the parents of Catholic school students. This speaks against the directive of the Bishops in the late 1880s that parishes take full responsibility for building and sustaining schools. Parishes gave a large percent of available funds to fulfilling the Catholic school mission.

School choice initiatives are also an issue. Cech (2008) discussed the rise in number of charter schools around the nation, especially in urban areas, as a threat to the future of Catholic schools. Publicly funded charter schools are tuition-free alternatives to public education. Families struggling with the rising cost of tuition in Catholic schools have an alternative for their children, which meets their educational needs and, many times, fulfills the family’s need for community. Catholic school administrators are aware of this issue, but have few, if any, options to counter the advance of charter schools.

While Catholic schools were staffed by religious men and women in the 1950s, they are now served by laypersons. Prior to the second Vatican council, many religious
orders saw teaching as their primary mission. Since the 1960s, membership in religious congregations has declined and, in addition, there is a new freedom within these congregations to pursue ministries other than the traditional ministry of teaching (Mueller, 2000). A half century ago, religious teachers were given nominal salaries. Today, while Catholic school salaries are not at public school levels, the salaries of lay teachers require funds that can be obtained only through raising tuition ("Loss and Gain," 2005).

Greeley (1992) was very direct in his evaluation of the decline of Catholic schools. He identified the leadership of the Catholic Church and schools as the reason that schools are struggling. Society has generated a feeling that the Catholic experience has little value, and the leadership of our Church and of our schools has offered little to counter this perception for fear of public conflict. The lack of vision and lack of support has led to financial crisis in the Church, making Catholic schools a luxury for a select few.

Catholic schools are at a critical point in their history; in order to continue to provide Catholic education to their students, schools must reorganize. Declining enrollment, among other reasons, is dictating that schools make decisions that may lead them to a new organizational structure (Hallinan, 2000). The change must be balanced with maintaining a distinctly Catholic climate, built on community and permeated by Gospel values.

What type of organizational structure fosters the most positive school climate? Daling, Rolff, and Kleekamp (1993) write that organizations vary as to their written and unwritten rules and regulations, as well as to standards and values they set for their
members. Every level of an organization, the individual, the small groups within an organization, the leadership, has a set of norms that contribute to the overall norms and the climate of the organization.

Catholic schools must succeed on two levels. They must be effective educational organizations, educating students well and striving to operate as professional learning communities. Catholic schools must also be faith communities, fostering faith formation in students and in staff (Jacobs, 2004). Failure on one or the other of these levels can lead to an ineffective Catholic school organization.

School climate is a significant factor in the success of a school. A positive school climate allows for effective change leading to improved teaching and learning. When the climate is good, teachers, parents, and students are operating in optimal conditions for achievement (Bulach & Malone, 1994).

Organizational Structures of Schools

Organizational structures of schools have patterns and follow designs that dictate how information is evaluated and how decisions are made and performance measured. The design of an organization is meant to make obvious its core values and how its mission is best served (Hotz, 1995). Every aspect of schools, including the basic organization or governance, is integral to a positive school climate. (Bryk & Schneider, 2002).

The organizational structure of schools is commonly referred to as the system (Seitsinger & Zera, 2002). This system is made up of many subsystems that are often interrelated and undistinguishable. Systems go through periods of equilibrium and periods
of disequilibrium and rely on the cooperation of the subsystems to emerge in a better state of functioning (Seitsinger & Zera, 2002). Many organizational models have been tested throughout the years. Mueller (2000) stresses that whatever the model, partnership and collaboration are key to a system’s success. In addition, no one model has been defined as ideal in governing schools.

The predominant school configuration in the United States is the local school district. The school district is a subdivision of the state with certain rights and responsibilities. The school district’s purpose is to provide education for all residents of the district (Knezevich, 1984; Steller, 1988). The American way of delivering education through local school districts was unique at its time of inception. The control and authority of schools transferred from religious authorities and private institutions to public or civil authorities. This led to the notion that education is a function of the state (Knezevich, 1984).

School districts are operated by boards made up of citizens. Members of the boards are most often elected, but can also be appointed by the mayor. School districts vary in size and function from state to state. Most districts operate elementary schools, as well as high schools. Districts can be abolished, altered, consolidated, or created by the state, all based on the needs of the constituents (Steller, 1988). School districts are funded in part by foundation grants from the states. In addition, districts receive categorical funding from the state and can raise funds through local tax levies. School districts also receive discretionary funds from the federal government for specific programs (Webb & Mueller, 1984).
School districts are further organized into intermediate units or regional educational service agencies. These agencies provide both administrative and supervisory services, as well as supplementary programs to districts. They work for the state, performing services for districts within their geographic region (Knezevich, 1984).

A mix of entities provides structure and governance to school districts that face a number of issues. Districts are governed by state constitutions and regulations, and they fall under the federal constitutional and legislative regulations. Activities include governmental functions, such as student instruction, food service, and transportation, but also local activities such as concerts and athletic events, governed by local regulations (Steller, 1988).

The predominant organizational structure of American schools remains the "scientific management" model that came about in the early years of the Industrial Age. Businesses first moved to a system of "scientific management" and schools followed suit focusing on efficiency and structure (Coleman, 1995). During the 20th century, school systems tried new approaches that focused more on human relations. Teacher empowerment and teacher participation in decision making became a priority within school systems. School systems tried new ways of doing business such as site-based management, alternative schooling options, and curriculum and instruction reform. However, the hierarchies of the "scientific management" model remain today (Coleman, 1995; Rettig, 2004).

Renchler (2000) wrote that school governance has been used by local, state, and federal government as a way to influence policy in school districts and to put accountability measures in place that track and improve the quality of public schools.
Reforms and changes have been implemented in response to public outcry, both revising and ignoring certain levels of current governance structure. As values and needs change, revisions to the governance structure of schools are recycled, such as decentralization and state or local government control. Although there is little evidence that organizational structure effects student achievement, governance is an area that has been altered and redesigned in hopes of affecting change (Kirst, 2002).

Toward the end of the 20th century, charter school systems were established. These schools evolved in response to the need for change in public schools and have become competitors in the race for students (Buchen, 2000). Charter schools are governed by organizations that take full responsibility for school operations, including administration, building maintenance, food service, support services, and teacher training (Burch, Donovan, & Steinberg, 2006). Charter school supporters say that their schools are successful because they are free of bureaucratic rules and regulations that weigh heavily on public school systems. Teachers in charter school communities believe that they have greater freedom in decision making that affects teaching and learning (Craciun & Ziebarth, 2002; Fox, 2002). In addition to charter schools, home schooling has become easier and more popular in a time that allows many professionals to work from their homes (Buchen, 2000).

Organizational Structure of Catholic Schools

Catholic schools are unique organizations that serve to educate students in the human dimension, but also in the religious dimension. McDermott (1997) calls the Catholic school a community of learners, teachers, administrators, parents, and staff, as
well as a faith community of young Christians and adults who come together to make Christ present. The purpose of the Catholic schools is to educate the mind, but also the soul and spirit, bringing a blend of learning and believing to the school community.

Those who become a part of the Catholic school’s mission and ministry should understand the hierarchical nature of the Catholic Church. The Catholic school is an organization on its own, but at the same time it is a part of the structure of the Church and must recognize the role of Church leadership as a valuable component of the school’s governance (Drahmann, 1985).

While Catholic schools vary in their structure, they are part of the Catholic Church which is constant. The structure of schools is dependent on the philosophy of the bishop, pastor, or religious organization which oversees the school. Ultimately, though, the structure of the schools should fit within the overall structure of the Church, as the mission of the Church and the Catholic school is the same (Brown & Greeley, 1970). Where Catholic schools were once predominantly parochial, there are now a number of organizational structures: single parish, consolidated or inter-parochial, private, and diocesan schools (Krahl, 1998).

Every participant in Catholic education, from Church authorities to teachers and parents within schools, must be a part of the governance and decision making of their schools. The degree of involvement varies and that involvement often defines the effectiveness of the Catholic school (Drahmann, 1985). Hocevar (1989) writes that Catholic school governance can take on a variety of roles: articulating and monitoring the philosophy and mission of the school, creating and monitoring policies that are
appropriate to the mission, overseeing the administration of the school, ensuring quality education or development of human and financial resources of the school community.

Catholic schools are organized by dioceses. This stems from the organization of the Catholic Church which is divided into regions or dioceses, headed by a bishop. Drahmann (1985) identifies the bishop as the chief teacher within his diocese. Those who participate in the Catholic education of children within the diocese share in the bishop’s teaching ministry. The bishop holds authority over all schools in his diocese.

Bishops assign many of the administrative tasks of their school systems to diocesan officials. The role of diocesan offices has changed over the last two decades. With the decline of religious order involvement in schools, diocesan offices, specifically school superintendents, have attempted to expand their support services to schools, particularly in the training of administrators and boards, financial oversight, and curriculum assistance (Bryk et al., 1993).

Bryk, Carriedo, Lee, and Holland (1984) indicated that, regardless of their organizational structure, Catholic schools can be autonomous. The principal, while working in cooperation with a board, a pastor, the bishop, or superintendent, often acts as chief administrative officer. This is similar to the combined efforts of the public school principal and superintendent. The responsibilities are endless: fiscal responsibility, development and fundraising, public relations and recruitment, selection and supervision of staff, discipline, and instructional leadership.

Autonomy can lead to conflict. According to Canon Law, the bishop has authority over all Catholic schools in his diocese. However, within the system, there are religious orders running Catholic schools that may or may not fall under the influence of the
bishop. In addition, parish councils and local school boards are part of the organization of schools. The interpretation of governance also varies among bishops. Some bishops exert more influence and authority over schools than others. Many bishops focus on Church teachings, while others take a visible role in school administration only in response to crises (Bryk et al., 1993).

In the 19th century, the parochial school was an example of a creative organizational structure that was extremely effective ("Making God Known," 2006). The parochial school approach fostered integration and a reciprocal relationship between school and parish. Parochial schools remain the most common Catholic schools in the United States, as well as the most vulnerable to demographic shifts that necessitate change to ensure continued operation ("Making God Known," 2006). Authority in parochial schools is given to pastors, who serve as chief administrative officers of their parishes (Bryk et al., 1993). The pastor shares the governance of schools with boards and principals. Each participant has an area of expertise and/or responsibility. Boards generally establish policy and are responsible for policy and finance decisions, while the pastor's overall responsibility is to offer spiritual leadership to staff and students and to oversee parish finances, including the parish financial commitment to the school. The school's administrator has primary responsibility of the operations of a school, within the policy and financial constraints imposed by the board, by the parish, or by diocesan authorities (Drahmann, 1985).

Diocesan schools are a newer Catholic school structure. Formal responsibility for diocesan schools lies with the diocese, whose religious and executive leader is the bishop. The major decision-making group for a diocesan school is a diocesan board of religious
and lay members appointed by the bishop. The board is advisory to the bishop, who generally follows the recommendations of the board on policies pertaining to personnel, operations, and finances of the school. Diocesan schools often have a local board to advise the principal on daily operations of the school. Dioceses do not often subsidize schools; however, in the case of a school experiencing financial crisis, the diocese would be liable for any losses incurred. Neither diocesan nor local boards are involved in such areas as curriculum and supervision of instructional staff. This is left to the principal and schools’ staff, making diocesan schools somewhat autonomous (Bryk et al., 1993).

Private Catholic schools, while existing only with the permission of the bishop, operate somewhat independently of the diocesan Catholic school system. Some may be bound to follow diocesan norms regarding religion curriculum and Catholicity. Others rely more on the guidance of their religious order or lay board (Sheehan, 1990).

Religious orders played a critical part in the establishment of private Catholic secondary schools, as these schools were controlled by the religious order that founded them. After Vatican II, the number of religious orders began to decline and there were fewer religious teachers to staff schools. Religious orders moved from owning these Catholic high schools to sponsoring them financially (Bryk et al., 1993). Religious orders began to provide the leadership to reorganize. Traditionally, decisions were subject to the authority of the order’s council, which supported the school financially, as well as through the supply of personnel to the school (Drahmann, 1985). As leadership of private Catholic schools shifted to lay administrators, decisions were made by administrators with the help of lay boards. It is interesting to note that some religious orders are under the supervision of the bishop and so the line of authority over the school goes back to the
bishop. However, there are religious orders that fall under the authority of a papal agency in Rome. The bishop would exercise influence over these schools only in extraordinary circumstances.

A relatively recent addition to structures of Catholic schools is the inter-parochial or regional school. This new mode of operation has evolved to meet the needs of financially struggling parishes and the declining enrollment of Catholic schools (Kilbride, 1995). The change is a new way of thinking about Catholic education, in which inter-parochial schools are supported by more than one parish. The structure of this system is still being defined. Some dioceses appoint a regional board and principals are accountable to the board, which operates with limited jurisdiction. Other dioceses establish these regional schools as a separate juridic person with the principal as the canonical administrator. Another model of an inter-parochial system includes a pastor representative as the school’s canonical administrator. This pastor represents all pastors of supporting parishes and the school’s principal is accountable to the pastor representative (Sheehan, 1990).

The process of making decisions varies slightly within the different structures of Catholic schools. Drahmann (1985) explains this process. Policies, general directives for action, are set at the diocesan level. Local boards set local policies that adhere to broader diocesan policies. Within these directives, pastors, administrators, and teachers specify the manner in which the policy is carried out and when it is to be carried out. Procedures for policies are most often set by administrators and followed by administration, parents, and teachers (Bryk et al., 1984). To maintain relationships, administrators are well advised to consult with parents, teachers, even students when issuing regulations.
Convey and Haney (1997) define the differences in structure, as well as the efficacy of parochial, diocesan, and private Catholic school boards. Parochial or parish schools have local consultative boards that serve as advisors to the principal and operate within by-laws approved by the local pastor. Parish school boards often include committees to oversee school finances, development, and board nominations. Diocesan school boards are similar in structure and operations. These boards are also consultative, but by-laws are approved by the bishop, in conjunction with the superintendent of schools. Diocesan boards also include policy committees and are generally larger than local school boards. Both of these boards are similar to the newer inter-parish boards. Inter-parish boards may include one or all pastors of supporting parishes, who have the ultimate say on all matters (Convey & Haney, 1997; Kilbride, 1995).

Each type of school board has its negatives. Local boards of parish schools are perceived to be more effective than diocesan or inter-parish boards. This is due in part to their closer ties to the local school community. Diocesan and inter-parish boards are criticized for their lack of vision and lack of ownership of issues. Parochial boards are criticized for their lack of training.

Regardless, each board, including private school boards, uses consensus more than voting to make decisions. The boards establish goals and strive to communicate with their ultimate authority, bishop, superintendent, parish pastor, religious community, and with their school community (Convey & Haney, 1997).
School Climate

Positive school climate is essential to the success of a school. The climate of a school establishes the pattern for teaching and learning. School climate can be a positive influence on the learning environment, whereas negative school climate can be a barrier to effective teaching and learning (Freiberg, 1998; Hoy & Hoy, 2003; Noonan, 2004).

School climate is difficult to define and difficult to accurately measure according to specific variables (Anderson, 1982; Brookover et al., 1978). However, most researchers agree on the elements of a school’s climate. These elements include the physical structure, the school’s size, support staff involvement, and the quality of interactions among constituents, among other elements (Anderson, 1982; Freiberg, 1998). Other researchers refer to school climate as internal characteristics that distinguish one school from another and that influence the behavior of the organization’s members (Hoy & Miskel, 2001). Tagiuri and Litwin (1968) were among the first to describe climate. They identified four dimensions that make up the total climate: a physical dimension, a social dimension, an organizational dimension, and the school’s culture. A school’s physical dimension includes its building size, age, and design, as well as the resources available to the school. The social dimension includes the race, gender, status, education level, and morale of the students, teachers, and staff in the school. Third, the organization dimension refers to how the school is organized and how decisions are made. Last, the school’s culture includes shared values, beliefs, and norms of all school constituents. Miles (1964) continues the early work defining climate as a product of 10 dimensions:
goals, communication, equal power, resources, staff cohesiveness, staff morale, innovation, autonomy, adaptability, and problem-solving ability.

Hoy et al. (1991) wrote that “school climate is the relatively enduring quality of the school environment that is experienced by participants, affects their behavior and is based on their collective perception of behavior in schools” (p. 10). Krommendyk (2007) stresses that the relationship between a school organization and the people who work there is powerful. The influence of the organization on the people and the influence of the people on the organization becomes the school’s climate and this climate influences the way that teachers behave. Climate is difficult to define objectively. It becomes a subjective definition of common characteristics in schools. Hoy and Clover (1986), Hoy, Tarter, and Bliss (1990), and Kelley, Thornton, and Daugherty (2005) simply state that the climate of a school is its personality.

Many studies have focused on personal relationships as an element of school climate. Hoy and Hoy (2003) identify two major elements of school climate: the interaction between the principal and teachers and the interaction among teachers. The authors also attribute climate to the organizational structure of a school and school politics. Hoy and Clover (1986) suggest that climate impacts performance because it motivates members of an organization, that the relationships among teachers and between teachers and administrators shape motivation and so, shape behavior. Other researchers confirm that while simplistic, defining school climate by the relationships among students, teachers, staff, administration, families, and the community may be the most accurate way to do so. School climate is represented in every interaction and every decision made (Noonan, 2004).
Bryk and Schneider (2002) stated that the effectiveness of an organization is directly linked to the quality of the social relationships that exist within the organization. The dynamics among teachers, students, and their families affect student attendance. The relationships between administrators and teachers influence the group’s willingness to reflect on practices and reform the organization. Renchler (2000) indicated that student achievement in schools cannot be adequately addressed until relationships among teachers, administrators, and school boards have been addressed. A healthy social subsystem supports a positive climate. Openness and trust within an organization, the positive climate of a school, support effective organizations open to change (Bulach & Malone, 1994).

Leadership, another subsystem of schools, has always been perceived to be important in an organization’s ability to function effectively. Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) linked leadership to the overall climate of the school, as well as the climate within individual classrooms. Seitsinger and Zera (2002) offered flexibility as a key leadership quality. School leaders who focus on student-centered decisions, and are able to realign their decision-making processes based on student needs, will find themselves in a better position to move the organization to a new level.

In regards to staff relationships, Hoy and Hoy (2003) group climate into four types: open climate, engaged climate, disengaged climate, and closed climate. First, the open climate is characterized by cooperation and respect among the staff, students, and families of a school. Second, an engaged climate in a school setting means that the teachers are highly professional and perform at a very high level, while the principal is essentially ineffective. A disengaged school is the opposite: the principal is considered
open and supportive, but staff members are unwilling to work cooperatively with the leadership. Lastly, a closed climate is the most negative, with teachers and administrators simply performing tasks without any sense of involvement or ownership in the school (Hoy & Hoy, 2003).

School climate that is open and positive is also inclusive. It should follow that teacher absenteeism is not a problem within schools that are inclusive. Schools that possess a closed or disengaged climate are, most likely, exclusive. Life in these schools might be restrictive and impersonal and teachers may feel alienated and choose not to attend (Dougherty, 1999). Both the educators and the administrators must take responsibility for these feelings of alienation and establish school policies that stress the importance of teacher attendance and that move the school toward an open, inclusive climate.

An open climate in schools fosters trust, pride, and commitment in its members. These attributes lead to a healthy environment, and a cooperative organization focused on academic excellence and success. Hoy et al. (1991) highlight personalities, relationships, and leadership as the major contributors to a positive climate. Hoy and Hoy (2003) identified the relationship of principal and teachers and the relationships among teachers as the most important contributors to climate. Both studies agree that administrators and teachers are key players in setting the climate within a school, and a positive climate is essential to effective teaching and learning. Noonan (2004) identified seven factors important to a healthy school climate: models, consistency, depth, democracy, community, engagement, and leadership. According to Noonan (2004), teachers as models have an impact on the school’s climate. Students and families are influenced by
what teachers say, but more so by what teachers do. Consistency is the second important factor to positive school climate. Rion-Gaboury (2005) added that a shared vision within a school lights the path toward a positive school climate. A shared vision is a unifying statement that provides consistency in messages to students and families. Coleman (1995) also referred to consistency in areas that contribute to a school community. He defined three critical elements as a way to measure the sense of community: shared values, shared activities, and shared relations.

Beyond consistency, Noonan (2004) identifies depth as important to maintaining a positive school climate. Shared visions and mission statements provide an effective first impression, but they must also influence the interactions among staff, students, and families to have a lasting effect.

Relationships are key factors in positive school climate. Democracy, shared leadership, and shared decision making is important to maintaining positive relationships. This isn’t always easy in an organization that has historically been structured as a hierarchy, but the effects of teachers participating in decisions leaves a lasting impact on the school’s climate (Noonan, 2004; Perry, 1908; Rion-Gaboury, 2005).

Royal and Rossi (1999) added that climate is not always constant. There may be differences in teachers’ perceptions of the school community and that community must be continually fostered to maintain a positive climate. Patterson (2004) wrote that teacher leaders make powerful contributions to the school’s culture and climate. Educators tend to be a long-term force within a school and they can influence the dynamics of the school both positively and negatively. People are happier when they have control over their work environment. Giving teachers a role in decision making can bring them on board as
change agents and conduits in promoting an open school climate (Beachum, 2004; Vail, 2005). Shared leadership and decision making leads to trust and empowerment. Working together keeps people from locking in to certain roles and breaks down barriers. As teachers are critical in effective schools, empowering them and building a collaborative work environment generates enthusiasm and leads to positive school reform (Beachum, 2004; Jacobs, 2004; Stuckey, 1995).

During students’ years in school, they need to experience relationships with outstanding educators, including directors and non-teaching staff. Personal involvement and genuine reciprocity of educators strengthens that which is taught and what is retained by students (Sacred Congregation for Religious Education, 1997).

A sense of community impacts the relationship between teachers and parents, as well as between the school and its students (Noonan, 2004). Typically students come into a school building at the beginning of a school day and leave at the end of a school day. In between, the school’s doors are closed, but any person working in a school knows that a school never has too much help. If families are engaged, if parents become a part of the school community, it is likely that the school’s climate will be impacted positively (Noonan, 2004; Royal & Rossi, 1999). Wallin (2003) added that students must be engaged in the community. Participating in school community builds pride and attachment to the school. The school becomes a place where students want to be and this contributes to an atmosphere of community. Not only should students be involved, but they should take part in identifying problems and becoming agents of change. Engaging students in school reform, engaging them as problem solvers, empowers students to serve
others in their community and so, contributes to a climate where serving others is valuable (Noonan, 2004).

Lastly, Noonan (2004) identified leadership as a contributing factor to school climate. A strong school leader supported by the community, teachers, staff, and families can ensure that a positive school climate is maintained. Perry (1908) understood this long ago, saying that

the conscientious and observant principal will greatly appreciate the cultural value of his position . . . he conducts himself with loyalty and courtesy . . . his view epitomizes the whole range of human experience, and the comprehension and the sympathy of his insight are the measure of his own gain in true culture. (p. 330)

Hoy et al. (1991) agreed that administrators are central to a cohesive system and a key element in healthy schools.

For this study, climate will be defined by a number of items on the SASS teacher and principal questionnaires. Each of the items from the survey—teacher absenteeism, teacher influence on decision making, and teacher job satisfaction—contributes to the overall climate of a school.

Teacher Absenteeism

Teacher absenteeism poses a problem to public and private schools. Classrooms must be supervised at all times; therefore, when teachers are absent, substitute teachers must be hired as classrooms must be supervised at all times. The quality of substitute teachers varies and, regardless, a teacher's absence means a disruption of learning. Teachers who are absent often leave students open to severe disruptions in academic programs (Martin, 1987).
As cited in Pitkoff (2003), the National Council on Teacher Quality says that students spend up to 1 year of their 13-year school career being taught by substitute teachers. If 1/13 of a normal student's school career is spent without a regular classroom teacher, even greater teacher absenteeism would show a larger problem within a school. Furthermore, in Martin (1987), the author cites a study done by the National Association of Secondary Schools in 1979 that reports that high levels of teacher absenteeism occur in districts where collaboration among faculty is low. Leithwood and Beatty (2008) write that teacher absenteeism can be attributed to high levels of stress or burnout, caused by dissatisfaction with the job. Among other conditions, teacher dissatisfaction can be traced back to, among other conditions, non-participative leadership styles and having no influence on decisions.

Teacher Influence on Decision Making

Shared decision making requires a high degree of trust and participation. School leaders must be open to input from all interested parties and those interested must be actively engaged in the process. In an environment of participation, all members have an opportunity for involvement. The intent is to build relationships and foster understanding among participants (Giancola & Hutchinson, 2005).

The shared decision-making process is most effective when viewed as a means of building consensus, rather than limiting the process to reaching compromise. In this way, members of the decision-making process integrate their individual ideas or goals into an innovative new vision or goal. The decision makers, the consensus builders transform one another as they arrive at a shared decision (Giancola & Hutchinson, 2005).
Prior to the 1960s, collegiality and shared decisions were the norm in schools. Faculty participation in governance was formalized in the 1960s; however, this served only to widen the gap between leadership and teachers (Del Favero & Bray, 2005). The process of centralizing administrative functions broke down the relationships and trust critical between faculty and leadership. Returning to a culture of shared decision making rebuilds the trust and can lead to positive outcomes, such as openness to change, high motivation, and mutual respect (Del Favero & Bray, 2005; Zimmerman, 2006). Increased levels of trust also lead to higher levels of teacher participation in the school organization, beyond the responsibilities of the school day (Muller & Thorn, 2007). Lovely (2005) notes that the wisdom of working together toward decisions supersedes any decisions coming out of an individual’s desire for triumph.

**Teacher Job Satisfaction**

*Job satisfaction* can be defined as the positive emotions that one feels as a result of experiences on the job. It is a pleasant feeling that contributes to a person’s desire to sustain these experiences (De Nobile & McCormick, 2008; Leithwood & Beatty, 2008).

A teacher’s job satisfaction is often associated with conditions in the classroom that are under the teacher’s control (Leithwood & Beatty, 2008). However, sustained job satisfaction depends on multiple factors: decision making, communication, supportive relationships, meaningful professional development, mentoring programs, and positive school climate (De Nobile & McCormick, 2008; Leithwood & Beatty, 2008; Leithwood & McAdie, 2007). Bahamonde-Gunnell (2000) also found that classroom conditions, including relationships with students and recognition, had a great effect on job
satisfaction, and added that respect among teachers and involvement in school governance strengthened the feeling of satisfaction. Bahamonde-Gunnell (2000) states that teachers who feel they are facilitating student learning and are members of a school with a positive climate are most likely to be satisfied in their jobs.

School climate can be defined as simply as the quality of relationships in a school community, or climate may be thought of as a series of complicated interactions. Regardless of the way climate is defined, it's clear that a positive climate enables all members of a school community to teach and learn at the highest level (Freiberg, 1998). Visiting a number of schools quickly confirms that there is a different feel to each building. A positive, open climate is certainly a goal to be desired. Even without attaching climate to other outcomes, such as effective change, the importance of positive climate is evident. A school with a positive climate is an organization that works. There is a high level of job satisfaction. Teachers, families, and students feel comfortable, the environment is supportive, and relationships are characterized by respect and cooperation (Hoy et al., 1990). These are schools where morale is high and everyone is engaged in education.

Catholic School Climate

There is an expectation in society that climate will always be open and positive among families and staff who attend and work in Catholic schools. Catholic schools evoke imagery of peace and harmony. The expectation is that if God is the central component of the community, people will automatically join together, and the community will be inclusive and will emanate hospitality just because it is rooted in Catholic faith
(Kallhoff, 1995). The expectation may be unfair, as Catholic communities, as any other community, have the same trials and the same barriers to overcome in building an open climate that can last. However, it is the same expectation that the Catholic Church has of its schools. In the document, *The Religious Dimension of Education in Catholic Schools* (Sacred Congregation for Religious Education, 1988), the Church writes:

> The religious dimension of the school climate strengthens the quality of the formation process, so long as certain conditions are verified—conditions that depend both on teachers and students. It is worth noting, once again, that the students are not spectators; they help to determine the quality of this climate. Some of the conditions for creating a positive and supportive climate are the following: that everyone agree with the educational goals and cooperate in achieving them; that interpersonal relationships be based on love and Christian freedom; that each individual, in daily life, be a witness to Gospel values; that every student be challenged to strive for the highest possible level of formation, both human and Christian. In addition, the climate must be one in which families are welcomed, the local Church is an active participant, and civil society—local, national, and international—is included. If all share a common faith, this can be an added advantage. (par. 103)

Bryk et al. (1993) conducted extensive research in Catholic high schools in the United States with the intent of understanding the success of the schools they studied. The authors wrote about the obvious and distinctive atmosphere they experienced within the schools. The words “we are community” (p. 127) were used by staff and students in the high schools visited, capturing the essence of the climate in these buildings. Walch (2000) adds that the success of Catholic schools is built on three traditions: tenacity, adaptability, and community. The author is bold in saying that these traditions, if adhered to, will ensure the survival of Catholic schools.

Instruction in classrooms in Catholic schools tends to be ordinary, mimicking instruction in many public schools. However, students in a study of Catholic schools by Bryk et al. (1993) described their teachers as uniquely patient, kind, and happy in their
jobs. A study by Bempechat, Bouley, Piergross, and Wenk (2008) reported the same results, that given the opportunity to talk about their experiences in Catholic schools, students focused on their teachers’ commitment to their learning. The students’ responses demonstrated a mutual respect among students and teachers and a focus on high standards and a personal interest in students held by teachers. The climate is permeated by the professionalism of teachers, as well as their personal Christian approach to the students they teach (Sacred Congregation for Religious Education, 1988). Hallinan (2000) characterized the climate as one where individual rights and freedom are supported, at the same time promoting social activism and a sense of responsibility to those in need. Bryk et al. (1993) defined the Catholic community as one that shifts the focus from individual self-interest to social justice and equity. Greeley (1996) adds that Catholic schools operate from the Catholic perspective of human nature and human community, and that everything accomplished is done in the light of the school’s purpose statement. Beyond that, the author believes that Catholic school teachers don’t realize the high ideals that they attain.

There are distinct beliefs, unique activities, and structure that are typical to Catholic schools. The underlying force, the foundation for positive climate within these schools, is the sense of community. Bryk et al. (1993) identified the variety of organizational components that contribute to climate. Shared beliefs bring coherence to the community and add meaning to daily life in the school. Unique activities support these beliefs and generate life within the community, and the roles and boundaries within the organization affirm the commitment to community. Bryk (1995) echoed these thoughts and goes on to say that participation in this community is voluntary. All
involved in the community understand that membership is a choice and it includes responsibility, perhaps facilitating a greater connection and loyalty to the school.

Participatory decision making is generally accepted in Catholic education, but the model of this participatory environment varies from school to school (Harper, 1980). Kushner and Helbling (1995) reported results from the Catholic Elementary Teacher Survey conducted in 1994. The survey solicited information from Catholic elementary school teachers on their involvement in decision making and planning for their school's future. Teachers responded positively to contributing to the future of the school, being a part of the goal setting process, and espousing those goals. Decision making was viewed as part of this goal-oriented process. Bryk et al. (1993) conducted a similar survey and found the same. Teachers felt they had considerable voice in decisions about curriculum and school goals. However, only a small minority of teachers felt they had any influence in determining the school's budget.

This commitment to community is clear in To Teach as Jesus Did (National Conference of Catholic Bishops, 1972), where U.S. bishops write that

Community is central to educational ministry both as a necessary condition and an ardently desired goal. The educational efforts of the Church must therefore be directed to forming persons-in-community: for the education of the individual Christian is important not only to his solitary destiny but also to the destinies of the many communities in which he lives. (par. 13)

Fortna (2004) referred to the United States Conference of Catholic Bishops in his research on Catholic middle schools. United States Bishops call all Catholic schools to be faith communities. Bishops charge schools to develop a commitment to community with the students and to help them achieve the social skills necessary to participate in the
community. Everyone in the school is responsible for the community: the staff, students, parents, and pastors.

Focus on doctrine, teachings, traditions, and rituals of the Catholic Church permeates Catholic school education. Buechlein (1999) writes about the values in Catholic schools that sometimes run countercultural to our society. The author doesn’t claim that Catholic schools are without fault, but those schools that focus on the Ten Commandments as the foundation of their curriculum make these values come alive under the premise that, without exception, God comes first.

The religious nature of the schools, it turns out, is also that which provides students and their families a sense of belonging to a unique group. This sense of belonging fosters commitment to the community, which enhances the school’s positive climate (Fortna, 2004). United States Bishops also require Catholic schools to focus on service and involvement of families. This focus leads to caring and trusting relationships that support all members of the community. All of these conditions are right for maintaining climate that is open and positive.

Positive climate and effective learning communities require committed members. The quality of human relationships is at the core of understanding the climate in Catholic school communities. Teachers in Catholic schools use unique terminology when describing their jobs. They refer to their activities within the school as their ministry, their vocation, or their calling. Their reasons for teaching in a Catholic community are often different than their public school counterparts. They possess a love of teaching, but they also hold a strong commitment to the Catholic Church’s mission to educate students in the Catholic faith (Bryk et al., 1993). Hallinan (2000) also indicated that Catholic school
teachers are generally more satisfied with their working conditions and their jobs than their counterparts, perhaps, in part, due to their strong commitment to the Church. It is interesting to note that McGrath and Princiotta (2005) reported private school teachers as generally happier than their public school counterparts with the organizational structure of their schools.

Job satisfaction contributes to positive school climate. Bryk et al. (1993) reported that, compared to their public school counterparts, Catholic high school teachers were more likely to be satisfied with their jobs. These Catholic school teachers felt their work was valuable, not only in instructing students in their subject areas, but also in shaping young people. Teachers referred to their work as a ministry and indicated they would recommend their students pursue teaching as a career.

The educational mission of the school is part of a larger commitment of the Catholic Church, rooted in the spiritual development of each child. Parents view the role of the teacher as going beyond teaching core curriculum, and this expectation is mirrored by the enthusiasm of parents who call their teachers dedicated and involved in their children's lives and their spiritual formation (Bryk et al., 1993).

Administrators have a unique role in the Catholic school community because they have a powerful influence on the school's climate or environment. McDermott (1997) identified the communal organization, the inspirational ideology, and the governance of the schools as contributing factors to positive climate. The spirit of openness, cooperation, teamwork, and joy begin with the school's leadership. By listening, trusting, risking, and caring, the schools' leadership can encourage students, teachers, and parents to participate fully and openly. Cook (2001) and Haney and O'Keefe (1999) assert that
Catholic educational leaders require more than the skills associated with professional educational leadership, with academics and best practices. School leadership must lead students to be attentive to humanity, to respond to need, to stand up for the rights of all humans, and to form an environment of reconciliation. Catholic school administrators must have a plan to build the Catholic culture within the school, taking the school to the level of communal commitment called for by the United States Catholic Bishops.

Catholic school principals also describe themselves differently than do their public school counterparts. Catholic school leaders do not see their role in the school as strictly administrative. They do not aspire to leadership positions in Catholic schools simply because they enjoy administrative tasks more than teaching tasks, or because they desire to further their careers. Just as Catholic school teachers, Catholic school principals refer to the community as their highest motivation for becoming administrators. Their desire to build and sustain the community and their commitment to their founding organization, the Church, is what drives them, and they find their guidance in two great sources: the Scriptures and the magisterium of the Church (Bryk et al., 1993; Palestini, 2004).

It is difficult to identify which factor—attention to core curriculum, the community, governance, or ideology—contributes most to the success of Catholic schools (Bryk et al., 1993; Jacobs, 2004). Meyer (2007) writes that Catholic schools are among those that need not go back to basics because they never left them, because Catholic schools have always adhered to high academic standards and Christian behavior. Sander (2001) called these, and many other factors, the “Catholic school effect.” Sander’s study found that Catholic school students achieved better test scores and graduation rates than
students in public schools. The positive school effect cannot be attributed to higher expenditures, as Catholic schools tend to have a lower per pupil cost of education than do public schools, but the effect can certainly be attributed in part to a positive school climate. Chubb (1992) added that Catholic school students are excelling because they are doing the common sense things: paying attention to academics, utilizing resources effectively, and involving families in the education of their students.

The distinguishing characteristics of Catholic schools are critical to the “Catholic school effect.” One could assume that the physical features of the Catholic school—proximity of school buildings to churches, presence of religious sisters and priests, student uniforms, as well as attention to discipline—provide this effect. In the 1950s and the 1960s, Catholic schools were known as places where students wore uniforms and nuns used rulers to the knuckles of students as a classroom management technique (Arenson, 1996). Religious have now been replaced by lay instructors and corporal punishment is no longer allowed in any school system. Resources are still tight, but the “Catholic school effect” still exists. It could be the uniforms, but Hudson (2003) names orderly environment, celebration of liturgy, retreats, and prayer as contributors to the feel of a Catholic school. These visible effects are symbolic of the true advantage of Catholic schools, which is the community (Bryk et al., 1993). A study done by Brunsma and Rockquemore (1998) supports the understanding that while visible attributes, such as uniforms, are often equated with Catholic schools, they are more a public symbol of commitment to the community rather than a factor leading to success of students.

Fusco (2005), Hudson (2003), and Watkins (1992) all attribute the “Catholic school effect” to the relationships in the school building, to the community committed to
the Church and each other. McDermott (1997) calls this a community with two purposes: learning and believing. Catholic school communities strongly support parents as the primary educators and encourage parental involvement in schools. Catholic schools also draw students into the larger Catholic Church community, providing another opportunity for commitment and belonging (Fusco, 2005; McDermott, 1997; Watkins, 1992).

As our society moves more toward an emphasis on individualism, the Catholic Church remains rooted in community. By definition, Church requires participation of more than one individual. Students in Catholic schools report that the community they experience influences their motivation to excel academically and to succeed in their aspirations. The support they feel from teachers and from students provide the impetus for success (Hudson, 2003). Furthermore, Bryk et al. (1993) identify the extended role of the teacher as a strong factor in the quest for excellence in Catholic schools.

The Catholic Church has published numerous documents on the role of the Catholic school teacher: To Teach as Jesus Did (National Conference of Catholic Bishops, 1972), The Catholic School on the Threshold of the Third Millennium (Sacred Congregation for Religious Education, 1997), and The Religious Dimension of Education in a Catholic School (Sacred Congregation for Religious Education, 1988). Common to every document is the attention to teaching as a vocation. Teachers are called to be more than professionals. They are fulfilling the mission of the Church, recognizing Jesus Christ in their students, and forming human persons using Jesus as their model. Students in their care develop academically, as well as ethically and socially, and are transformed by their experience (McDermott, 1997).
McDermott (1997) identified shared values, shared activities, and distinctive social relationships as contributors to unique Catholic school climate. Haney and O'Keefe (1999) said that the faith foundation of Catholic schools helps students learn to see, to have hearts that respond to need, and teaches them to be courageous in their commitment to being contributors to the common good. Palestini (2004) related the success of Catholic schools in exhibiting a clear identity and climate to the understanding that the Catholic school community has of its ultimate goal for Catholic education, the perpetuation of faith.

Summary

Catholic schools have reached a critical point and schools are looking for creative responses to serious challenges. Structure, the way a school is organized, is essential. But an ineffective structure, structure for the sake of structure, can lead to the demise of Catholic schools (Brown & Greeley, 1970). As structural decisions are being made, careful attention must be given to ensuring that the climate remains effective for implementation of the Catholic school’s mission.

Hallinan (2000) writes that Catholic schools must continue to make a contribution to society, including academic excellence and the formation of faithful students. This formation is a distinct piece of the climate of a Catholic school. Guerra (2000) calls this a sensitivity to the concerns of the Catholic community, the need to maintain a school’s Catholic identity, thus its Catholic climate. If this is lost, Catholic schools are no longer necessary in our society.
The document *The Catholic Schools on the Threshold of the Third Millennium* (Sacred Congregation for Religious Education, 1988) calls Catholic schools to courageous renewal. It goes on to state:

This overview of the joys and difficulties of the Catholic school . . . prompts us to reflect on the contribution it can make to the formation of the younger generation on the threshold of the third millennium, recognizing, as John Paul II has written, that “the future of the world and of the Church belongs to the younger generation, to those who, born in this century, will reach maturity in the next, the first century of the new millennium.” Thus the Catholic school should be able to offer young people the means to acquire the knowledge they need in order to find a place in a society. . . . It should be able, above all, to impart a solid Christian formation. And for the Catholic school to be a means of education in the modern world, we are convinced that certain fundamental characteristics need to be strengthened. (par. 8)

Given that Catholic schools must find a way to reorganize in order to be viable in the future, this study describes the current organizational structures as they exist in Catholic schools. A positive climate is considered to be an essential element in successful schools and this study seeks to define positive climate. Finally, the investigation explores whether the climate is perceived as different in each of the types of structures within Catholic schools.
CHAPTER III

METHODS

The purpose of this study was to assess the relationship between the three Catholic school structures—parochial, diocesan, and private—and several aspects of school climate. The investigation utilized a research design that quantifies school climate and the relationship between the structure of each Catholic school and its climate. Using results of the research, one should be able to draw inferences about the general Catholic school population.

Chapter III includes subsections on research design, research sample, instrumentation, and data analysis.

Data Source

The data for this study were obtained from the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) 2003-2004. The survey was conducted by the United States Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) and is the nation’s most extensive survey of elementary and secondary schools and those who staff them. SASS is widely used in research on elementary and secondary education (Cleveland, 2008; Cooley & Shen, 2005; Erickson, 2007; Shen, 2005; Shen, Rodriguez-Camps, & Rincones-Gomez, 2000; VanderJagt, Shen, & Hsieh, 2005; Xie, 2008) Survey research is a powerful tool in educational research. Our understanding of education is enhanced by carefully describing phenomena occurring within education. And this is best done by
asking and answering questions on a survey (Suter, 2006). Survey research allows one to draw inferences about a population's attitudes. The ability to generalize from a small sample of individuals to a large population is economical and saves a researcher time (Creswell, 2003; Strizek, Pittsonberger, Riordan, Lyter, & Orlofsky, 2007; Suter, 2006).

The NCES collects, analyzes, and reports data related to education for the federal government of the United States. Its primary purpose is to fulfill a congressional mandate to report on the condition of education in the United States, publish reports based on the data analyzed, and assist education organizations using the data to improve teaching and learning. NCES provides clear, consistent, reliable data to the U.S. Department of Education, Congress, the states, and education researchers.

SASS was developed in response to the need for studies providing national data on education in the 1980s. The first survey results were reported in a report titled Excellence in Schools Surveys and Analysis Study published in 1985. The surveys have developed over the years to better fit the needs of researchers. NCES has evaluated each administration of the survey to understand which topics to eliminate or retain and which topics to expand (Strizek et al., 2007). The amount of data and the ability to link questionnaires allows researchers to examine relationships throughout the education system. Many of the variables are related, but the NCES does not explore complex relationships and interactions among the variables (Tourkin et al., 2007). That task is left to the researcher. In total, there are five questionnaires: school district, principal, school, teacher, and school library media center questionnaires. All questionnaires offer data on public and private schools (Tourkin et al., 2007).
SASS provides the most comprehensive statistics on American public and private K-12 school systems, schools, teachers, and administrators. It includes data from the Bureau of Indian Affairs-funded schools as well. Survey questions cover characteristics and qualifications of teachers and administrators, hiring practices, professional development, class sizes, and other pertinent data. The 2003-2004 SASS data also include public charter schools as part of the sample. The 2003-2004 survey is the fifth administration of the SASS (Strizek, Pittsosnberger, Riordan, Lyder & Orlofsky, 2006, 2007).

The survey is cross-sectional, with data collected at one time (Creswell, 2003). The 2003-2004 SASS surveyed three sectors of schools: public schools, Bureau of Indian Affairs schools, and private schools. Private schools are defined as those providing instruction in grades 1 through 12 not in a public system and in a building not used primarily as a private home (Strizek et al., 2007).

For the purpose of this study, SASS surveys completed by administrators and by teachers in Catholic schools were used. The results are grouped according to the organizational structures identified by the SASS: parochial (inter-parochial), diocesan and private Catholic schools (Strizek et al., 2007).

Responses from teachers and responses from principals from each of the types of Catholic elementary schools were evaluated. As teachers and principals have been identified as key players in an open and positive school climate (Hoy & Hoy, 2003), both perspectives were used.

One of the purposes for the 2003-2004 SASS principal questionnaires was to obtain the principals’ judgments on school issues. The questionnaires for public and
private school principals vary slightly to reflect the difference in the types of schools. Likewise, one of the purposes for the 2003-2004 teacher questionnaire was to obtain information from teachers about attitudes and perceptions about teaching (Tourkin et al., 2007).

Both the Private School Teacher Questionnaire and the Private School Principal Questionnaire asked the question, “To what extent is teacher absenteeism a problem in this school?” Both surveys listed “Teacher Absenteeism” and asked for one of four responses ranging from “Not a Problem” to “Serious Problem.” Both of these questions address the problem of teacher absenteeism in schools, which is an aspect of school climate. The questions are displayed in Table 1. Note that the coding in each of the surveys differs, the most positive response being 4 on the teacher survey and 1 on the principal survey.

Table 1

*Teacher Absenteeism*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher questionnaire #66d Coding</th>
<th>To what extent is each of the following a problem in this school? Teacher absenteeism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Serious problem 1</td>
<td>Moderate problem 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal questionnaire #31h Coding</td>
<td>Not a problem 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent is each of the following a problem in this school? Teacher absenteeism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Teachers' involvement in school policy and decision making contributes to an open, inclusive climate. The SASS Teacher Questionnaire asked the question, "How much actual influence do you think teachers have over school policy at this school in each of the following areas?" I chose to use teacher responses in the areas of “Establishing curriculum,” “Determining the content of in-service professional development programs,” “Setting discipline policy,” and “Deciding how the school budget will be spent.” Responses were given on a 4-point Likert scale, ranging from “No influence” to “A great deal of influence.” The question is displayed in Table 2.

Table 2

*Teacher Involvement in School Policy and Decision Making—Teachers’ Perspective*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher questionnaire #62 Coding</th>
<th>No influence</th>
<th>Minor influence</th>
<th>Moderate influence</th>
<th>A great deal of influence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How much actual influence do you think teachers have over school policy at this school in each of the following areas?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Establishing curriculum</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Determining the content of in-service professional development programs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Setting discipline policy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. Deciding how the school budget will be spent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The SASS Principal Questionnaire asked, “How much actual influence do you think each group or person has on decisions concerning the following activities?” I chose to use principal responses to “Teachers” influence in the areas of “Establishing curriculum at this school,” “Determining the content of in-service professional development programs for teachers at this school,” “Setting discipline policy at this school,” and “Deciding how your school budget will be spent.” Responses were given on a 4-point scale ranging from “No influence” to “Major influence.” The question is displayed in Table 3. Note that the coding in Tables 2 and 3 is alike, meaning both the teacher and principal surveys were coded in the same way.

The SASS questionnaires asked about attitudes. The teacher questionnaire asked teachers to respond on a 4-point scale—“Strongly agree,” “Somewhat agree,” “Somewhat disagree,” and “Strongly disagree”—to the statement, “I am generally satisfied with being a teacher at this school.” The principal questionnaire asked respondents to “indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements.” Principals could respond “Strongly agree,” “Somewhat agree,” “Somewhat disagree,” and “Strongly disagree” to the statement “The faculty and staff at this school like being here; I would describe them as a satisfied group.” Table 4 shows these questions. The coding is the same on teacher and principal surveys. The responses are coded 1 to 4, the most positive response being 1 and the most negative response being 4. This is opposite of the decision-making questions and the teacher absenteeism question on the principal survey.

I used SASS data, known as existing or secondary data, for this study. Secondary data are often collected for an entirely different purpose than the research at hand.
Table 3

*Teacher Involvement in School Policy and Decision Making—Principals’ Perspective*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principal questionnaire #14</th>
<th>Response to (3) Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How much actual influence do you think each group or person has on decisions concerning the following activities?</td>
<td>No influence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coding</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Establishing curriculum at this school</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Determining the content of in-service professional development programs for teachers at this school</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Setting discipline policy at this school</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. Deciding how your school budget will be spent.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, analyzing existing or secondary data involves less time and less money (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). Validity and reliability of collected data are important to a study. Creswell (2003) defines validity as the ability to draw useful inferences from scores gained by a survey instrument. A valid study provides correct or truthful inferences based on the results gained through data analysis. Reliability is defined as consistency, stability, and the ability to reproduce results using the data regardless of when a study is
Table 4

*Attitudes*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Somewhat agree</th>
<th>Somewhat disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher questionnaire</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Coding

I am generally satisfied with being a teacher at this school.

Principal questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Somewhat agree</th>
<th>Somewhat disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>#12 b</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Coding

The faculty and staff at this school like being here; I would describe them as a satisfied group.

Conducted (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). Choosing a nationally recognized data collection tool provides reliability and validity to the study.

Research Design

Sample

The population for this study is Catholic school teachers, $N = 164,000$, and administrators, $N = 7,899$, who worked in Catholic schools in the school year 2003-2004. The sample consists of all those Catholic elementary school teachers and administrators that responded to the 2003-2004 SASS Private School Teacher and Private School Principal Questionnaires, $n = 2,163$/teachers, $n = 605$/principals.
Sampling is the process of drawing a subset, or sample, from a larger group, or population. Sampling allows for inferences, which are a logical way to draw conclusions about a population based on data about a sample. A sample is typically smaller in size than the population, making the research more manageable both time wise and financially (Johnson & Christensen, 2008; Suter, 2006).

The SASS is designed to provide estimates at the national, regional, and state level for the private school sector, including Catholic parochial, diocesan, and private schools and their teachers and principals. The sampling frame for private schools was based on the 2001-2002 Private School Universe Survey, with updates on private schools collected by the Census Bureau in the fall of 2002 (Tourkin et al., 2007). The SASS private school sample size is 3,622. The goals for the 2003-2004 SASS private school sample size allocation included producing national private school sector estimates. The sampling frame for teachers consisted of lists of teachers provided by schools in the SASS sample (Strizek et al., 2007; Tourkin et al., 2007).

Sample Selection Procedures

In the past, SASS accumulated lists of teachers from rosters provided on paper by sampled schools. The Census Bureau suggested revising the field data for the 2003-2004 SASS. The 2003-2004 data collection began by establishing personal contact with schools and then sending field representatives to collect teacher lists. Representatives keyed roster information into laptops during their visits to cooperating schools. Sampled schools were asked to provide descriptive information about teachers, including level of experience, teaching status, race/ethnicity, and subject matter taught.
Teachers were also stratified into one of four teacher types: Asian/Pacific Islander, American Indian/Alaskan Native, new (3 years or fewer teaching), and experienced (more than 3 years teaching). The goal of sampling was multi-faceted: to select at least 1,600 Asian/Pacific Islander and 1,600 American Indian/Alaska Native teachers, to select a minimum of 2,300 new teachers, select a minimum of 1 and maximum of 20 teachers per school, to minimize the variance of teacher estimates within school stratum, and to select between 3 and 8 teachers per school depending upon grade and sector taught. New teachers were over sampled by a factor of 1.5 for private schools to ensure there would be enough new private school teachers in the 2003-2004 SASS.

Teacher records within each school were sorted and teachers were identified with a unique number. Teachers were then selected systematically and with equal probability within each teacher stratum in each school. Weighting was used to adjust for the schools that did not provide teacher lists (Tourkin et al., 2007).

Instrumentation

Data for the 2003-2004 SASS were collected during the 2003-2004 school year. Verification of school names, addresses, and principals' names was done in June of 2003. Introductory letters were mailed to schools in September of 2003. Field representatives mailed postcards to schools notifying them that they would be calling in September and October. This was followed by a phone call to set up appointments for visits. From October through January, field representatives visited schools to distribute principal and school questionnaires, as well as library media center questionnaires in public schools, and to obtain teacher rosters. Once field representatives had rosters, distribution of
teacher questionnaires followed. Field representatives followed up on the surveys through May of 2004.

Schools, principals, and teachers were asked to return questionnaires within 2 weeks. Follow-up efforts began after the 2-week window and included telephone calls and personal visits to schools to obtain completed surveys or verify that they had been mailed. The unweighted response rate for 2003-2004 SASS Private School Teacher questionnaires by mid-April 2004 was 81.6% and the weighted response rate was 82.4. The unweighted response rate for 2003-2004 SASS Private School Principal questionnaires by mid-April 2004 was 73.8% and the weighted response rate was 74.9.

NCES uses sampling weights so that generalizations about a population can be made using results obtained from a sample of the population (Cooley & Shen, 2005; VanderJagt et al., 2005). Unweighted responses refer to the number of interviewed sampled units divided by the number of in-scope (eligible) units. Weighted response rate refers to the base-weighted number of interviewed cases divided by the eligible base-weighted cases. Specific to Catholic schools, the weighted response rate of Catholic school principals was 82.9%, and weighted response rate of Catholic school teachers was 75.8%.

The 2003-2004 SASS used a field-based strategy of data collection. The intent was to increase the response rate. Response rates were actually lower for school, principal, and school library media center questionnaires. Response rates for teacher questionnaires were about the same as the 1999-2000 survey.

The response rate for private schools was 75.8%, which warrants a closer look at the non-responses. After close analysis, 5 of 165 comparisons were found to be
significant, including Catholic diocesan and other religious strata. A closer analysis was also done for private school principal response rate, which was 74.9%. Again, some noteworthy differences occurred in the Catholic diocesan, Jewish, and other religious strata. The analyses did not reveal any substantial bias. Overall response rate for private school teachers was 85.4%. An analysis of nine strata did occur, but evidence of substantial bias was not found.

Once data were collected for the 2003-2004 SASS, data processing began. Census Bureau field representatives began the data processing phase, which was concluded by Census Bureau clerical staff and analysts. Program staff also had the responsibility of ensuring that data files were acceptable for public release. Data were reviewed for errors and rigorously examined before release (Tourkin et al., 2007).

The 2003-2004 Private School Principal questionnaire is organized into 7 sections. For the purpose of this study, data from Section II, Goals and Decision Making, and Section V, School Climate and Safety, were used. The Private School Teacher questionnaire is organized in to 11 sections. Section VIII, Decision Making, and Section IX, Teacher Attitudes and School Climate, were used for this study.

The following questions, taken from the SASS principal questionnaire, were used for this study:

1. To what extent is teacher absenteeism a problem in this school?

2. How much actual influence do you think teachers have over school policy at this school in each of the following areas? Establishing curriculum; Determining the content of in-service professional development programs; Setting discipline policy; Deciding how the school budget will be spent.
3. The faculty and staff at this school like being here; I would describe them as a satisfied group.

The following questions, taken from the SASS teacher questionnaire, were used for this study:

1. To what extent is teacher absenteeism a problem in this school?
2. How much actual influence do you think teachers have over school policy at this school in each of the following areas? Establishing curriculum; Determining the content of in-service professional development programs; Setting discipline policy; Deciding how the school budget will be spent.
3. I am generally satisfied with being a teacher at this school.

By evaluating the teacher and principal responses to each of the survey questions, I have an understanding of certain factors contributing to school climate within each type of Catholic school. Further, by comparing teacher and principal responses to each question, I understand whether there is consistency in the way that teachers and principals view these factors of climate within each of the types of Catholic school.

Data Analysis

Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the data related to the research questions. In order to make results of the analyses clearer, the teacher absenteeism variable on the principals’ survey and the teacher job satisfaction variable on both principal and teacher surveys were recoded. Once recoded, responses to all survey questions looked similar. All responses were ranked 1 to 4, moving from the most negative response to the most positive response.
Research Question 1

The first question states: Can the three types of Catholic elementary schools be distinguished by how school climate is perceived by teachers and by principals?

A weighted one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of each item that makes up "climate" was done to establish how both teachers and principals rate "climate" in their Catholic schools. An ANOVA is an analysis of two or more means in order to determine whether there is a statistical difference between the means. The simplest extension of a t test, or analysis of two means, is a one-way ANOVA, where the effect of each independent variable, in this case three independent variables, on a dependent variable is analyzed (Johnson & Christensen, 2008; Slavin, 1984). Research designs examining interactions among variables are common in education, just as interactions are common in the classroom. The ANOVA produces an F statistic and is the most commonly used analysis in educational research (Suter, 2006).

Research Question 2

The second question states: Within each type of Catholic elementary school, does the perception of climate vary between teachers and principals?

Having established an understanding of how climate is viewed within each of the Catholic school structures, differences in teacher and principal perceptions were studied. Inferential statistics were used to conduct a test on whether there was a difference between teachers and principals perceptions of the climate factors within each type of Catholic school.
A t test determined whether there is a difference in how principals and teachers perceived each of the climate factors within their schools. The t test is one of the most common statistical analyses used. It allows one to compare two means, testing the difference between two groups, in this case teachers and principals (Johnson & Christensen, 2008; Suter, 2006).

In order to conduct a t test, a new data set was created, pulling one data set in to the other and adding a new variable to distinguish class. The new variable is a categorical variable establishing a class for teachers and a class for principals. The variables describing climate—teacher absenteeism, job satisfaction, and decision making—remained the same but were renamed, as each variable had been assigned a slightly different title in each of the existing data sets.

Summary

In Chapter III, methods used in the study have been identified, including the data source, sample, instrumentation, and data analysis. The study is intended to understand climate in Catholic schools with three different organizational structures. In addition, the study identifies whether there is a difference in teachers’ and principals’ perceptions of climate. The data collected by NCES are the nationally recognized 2003-2004 SASS data set. “Climate” is a variable made up of multiple variables relating to school climate.

The study was rooted in two research questions. Descriptive and inferential statistics provide information leading to answering these two questions. An analysis of variance reveals whether there is a difference in the way climate is perceived within three
types of Catholic school organizational structures. An analysis of the means reveals whether teachers' and principals' perceptions of climate vary.
CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This study investigated the relationship between three Catholic school structures—parochial, diocesan, and private—and several characteristics of school climate. The Schools and Staffing Survey 2003-2004, a national data set, was used to conduct the study. Analysis was completed to determine whether there were differences in school climate in the three structures of Catholic schools and to determine whether there was a difference in the way that principals and teachers perceived the climate in each of the Catholic school structures. Data from the SASS 2003-2004 Private School Teacher Questionnaire and Private School Principal Questionnaire were used. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the data related to the research questions. Each analysis differed in the focus that it brought to the issue of school climate. Table 5 illustrates how the variables, the research questions, and the items on the survey instrument are related to each other.

Responses from Catholic elementary school teachers, \( n = 2,163 \), and Catholic elementary school principals, \( n = 605 \), were extracted from the SASS 2003-2004 Private School Teacher and Private School Principal Questionnaires. A relative weight was calculated for each respondent, whereas final weights are already established for all variables within the data set based on all respondents. Respondents are a sample of the entire population of Catholic elementary school teachers and principals. Samples are
Table 5

Variables, Research Questions, and Items on the 2003-2004 SASS Teacher and Principal Survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Research Question</th>
<th>Items on Teacher Survey</th>
<th>Items on Principal Survey</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Independent Variable: Type of Catholic School</td>
<td>Inferential Statistics: Can the three types of Catholic elementary schools be distinguished by how school climate is perceived by teachers and by principals?</td>
<td>#64u: I am generally satisfied with being a teacher at this school.</td>
<td>#12b: The faculty and staff at this school like being here; I would describe them as a satisfied group.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependent variable: Climate</td>
<td>#66d: To what extent is each of the following a problem in this school: Teacher absenteeism.</td>
<td></td>
<td>#31h: To what extent is each of the following a problem in this school: Teacher absenteeism.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Independent Variable: Teacher and Principal | Inferential Statistics: Within each type of Catholic elementary school, does the perception of climate vary between teachers and principals? | #62: How much actual influence do you think teachers have over school policy at this school in each of the following areas? B. Establishing curriculum; C. Determining the content of in-service professional development programs; F. Setting discipline policy; G. Deciding how the school budget will be spent. | #14 (3): How much actual influence do you think each group or person has on decisions concerning the following activities? B. Establishing curriculum at this school; C. Determining the content of in-service professional development for teachers at this school; F. Setting discipline policy at this school; G. Deciding how your school budget will be spent. |

 weighted to approximate the population, making the sample nationally representative of Catholic elementary school teachers and principals. A relative weight is calculated based
on the size of the sample for this study. The relative weight for teachers was calculated as follows:

$$\text{Rel}_\text{wt\_teach} = \frac{n \times \text{fin\_wt\_teach}}{\text{sum}(\text{fin\_wt\_teach})}$$

where $n = 2163$ and $\text{sum}(\text{fin\_wt\_teach}) = 111308.82$.

The relative weight for principals was calculated as follows:

$$\text{Rel}_\text{wt\_prin} = \frac{n \times \text{fin\_wt\_prin}}{\text{sum}(\text{fin\_wt\_prin})}$$

where $n = 605$ and $\text{sum}(\text{fin\_wt\_prin}) = 6530.22$.

The relative weights for each group were checked for accuracy by ensuring that they totaled 2,163 for teachers and 605 for principals.

As noted in Chapter III, the direction in which survey responses were coded, from most positive response to most negative response or vice versa, varied from question to question. In order to provide clearer results of the analyses, the teacher absenteeism variable on the principals' survey and the teacher job satisfaction variable on both principal and teacher surveys were recoded. Once recoded, responses to all survey questions move in the same direction. All responses are ranked 1 to 4, moving from the most negative response to the most positive response.

Descriptive statistics provided general information about each of the variables, including means, standard deviations, and frequency of responses. This information was helpful in providing an understanding of any variances found through the ANOVA and analysis of means. While not of primary interest to the study, the descriptive statistics allow the researcher to form a broader picture and a deeper understanding of the results of the research questions. The descriptive statistics for this study are reported in Appendix B. In addition, visual representations of the frequencies of responses for each of the
climate variables, for teachers and principals within each of the types of Catholic schools, are found in Appendix C.

A one-way analysis of variance was used to determine whether the three groups in this analysis—parochial, diocesan, and private Catholic schools—could be distinguished by their climate. Three characteristics or aspects defined climate. The selected characteristics from the 2003-2004 Schools and Staffing Survey were teacher job satisfaction, teacher absenteeism, and teacher participation in decision making in the areas of curriculum, professional development planning, discipline, and budget planning. This chapter will report on the findings about school climate within each of the Catholic school structures from both the teachers’ and the principals’ perspective.

Next, the perceptions of principals and teachers were analyzed as they pertain to climate in the schools. A new data set was created, pulling the teacher data set in to the principal data set and adding a new variable to distinguish between two classes, teacher and principal. The new variable was a categorical variable, teachers and principals. The variables describing climate—teacher absenteeism, job satisfaction, and decision making—remained the same but were renamed, as each variable had been assigned a slightly different title in each of the existing data sets.

A two sample t test, or analysis of means, was conducted on each of the variables defining climate in order to determine whether there was a difference in perceptions between principals and teachers. This type of analysis can be conducted on two independent groups, when the subjects of the groups are not connected, in this case, principals and teachers. A t test, or analysis of means, is a common statistical test. As a difference in means, the value of $t$, increases, the $p$ level, or probability that chance
factors or statistical error could explain a relationship, decreases (Johnson & Christensen, 2008; Slavin, 1984; Suter, 2006).

An alpha of .05 is usually preset by statistical software and is often used in educational research. Alpha refers to the probability of a Type I error occurring. A Type I error is made in a study if the null hypothesis is incorrectly rejected (Johnson & Christensen, 2008; Slavin, 1984; Suter, 2006). The alpha, or $p$ value, was set at .05 for this study, meaning that 95% of the time any differences in means could be attributed to chance. If the alpha falls below .05, then it is said that the results are probably not due to chance; rather, they are statistically significant and can be attributed to the independent variables.

The purpose of the research was to contribute to literature on structures of Catholic schools and their effect on school climate. Using results of the research, one can draw inferences about the general Catholic school population, and so, make informed decisions on restructuring schools to ensure future success.

The results are presented in this section, Chapter IV, organized according to the research questions.

Research Question 1 Results

*Can the three types of Catholic elementary schools be distinguished by how school climate is perceived by teachers and by principals?*

It is hypothesized that the characteristics of climate are different in each of the three types of Catholic schools and so, schools can be distinguished by their climate.
Null Hypothesis

There is no difference in the characteristics that define climate among the three types of Catholic schools.

A one-way ANOVA was performed using each of the six items describing climate as predictors of the organizational structure of Catholic schools. The structures of the schools, the independent variables, were those identified in the survey: parochial (inter-parochial), diocesan, and private. Items from the 2003-2004 SASS teacher questionnaire and principal questionnaire were the dependent variables: job satisfaction, teacher absenteeism, and participation in decision making in the areas of curriculum, professional development planning, establishing discipline, and budget planning. The sample included 1,348 teachers and 377 principals from parochial Catholic schools, 737 teachers and 205 principals from diocesan Catholic schools, and 78 teachers and 23 principals from private Catholic schools. A description of variables for the ANOVA can be found in Tables 1, 2, 3, and 4. The results of the analysis are reported in Tables 6 and 7. Table 6 reports results of the teachers surveyed, while Table 7 reports the results of the principals. These results determined whether the three types of Catholic schools can be distinguished by how their climate is perceived by teachers and by principals.

There were two significant $p$ values within this ANOVA. For the variables “teacher influence on curriculum decisions” and “teacher influence on professional development decisions,” the $p$ values fall below 0.05, $p = 0.0013$ and $p = 0.0205$, respectively, indicating that there is a statistically significant difference in the means of two or three of the groups. Further evaluation of the data on “teacher influence on
Table 6

One-way ANOVA of Three Types of Catholic Schools and Characteristics of School Climate as Perceived by Teachers (n = 2163)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Parochial</th>
<th>Diocesan</th>
<th>Private</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$M$</td>
<td>$SD$</td>
<td>$M$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>3.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Absenteeism</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>3.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher influence on curriculum decisions</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>2.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher influence on professional development decisions</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>2.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher influence on discipline decisions</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>2.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher influence on budget decisions</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Alpha level .05.

curriculum decisions” shows no significant difference in means between teachers in parochial and diocesan schools, $p = 0.2254$; however, there is a significant difference in means between teachers in parochial and private Catholic schools, $p = 0.0015$, and teachers in diocesan and private Catholic schools, $p = 0.0003$. Teachers in private Catholic schools perceive their influence on curriculum decisions ($M = 3.22$) to be greater than do the teachers in diocesan ($M = 2.87$) and parochial ($M = 2.92$) schools.

A similar result is apparent for the variable “teacher influence on professional development decisions.” There is a statistically significant difference in the means
Table 7

One-way ANOVA of Three Types of Catholic Schools and Characteristics of School Climate as Perceived by Principals (n = 605)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable Principal perception of</th>
<th>Parochial</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Diocesan</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Private</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>p value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.1547</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Absenteeism</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.0103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher influence on curriculum decisions</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.5880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher influence on professional development decisions</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.1429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher influence on discipline decisions</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.0729</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher influence on budget decisions</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.5637</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Alpha level .05.

between teachers in parochial and diocesan Catholic schools, \( p = 0.0355 \), and between parochial and private Catholic school teachers, \( p = 0.0303 \). However, there is no significant difference in means between teachers in diocesan and private Catholic schools, \( p = 0.24991 \). These results indicate that teachers in private (\( M = 2.63 \)) and diocesan (\( M = 2.53 \)) Catholic schools perceive their influence on professional development decisions to be greater than do the teachers in parochial (\( M = 2.44 \)) schools.

The remaining characteristics of climate, “teacher job satisfaction,” \( p = 0.3815 \); “teacher absenteeism,” \( p = 0.1396 \); “teacher influence on discipline decisions,”
$p = 0.2759$; and "teacher influence on budget decisions," $p = 0.2217$, indicate no statistically significant difference between their means, as measured by the ANOVA.

There was a statistically significant $p$ value in this ANOVA. For the variable "teacher absenteeism," the $p$ values fall below 0.05, $p = 0.0103$, indicating that there is a statistically significant difference in the means of two or three of the groups. Further evaluation of the data shows no significant difference in means between principals in parochial and diocesan schools, $p = 0.0601$, or between principals in diocesan and private Catholic schools, $p = 0.0727$; however, there is a statistically significant difference in means, $p = 0.0079$, between principals in parochial and private Catholic schools.

Principals in parochial ($M = 3.85$) and diocesan ($M = 3.77$) Catholic schools perceive teacher absenteeism as less of a problem than principals in private ($M = 3.61$) schools.

All other climate variables—"teacher job satisfaction," $p = 0.1547$; "teacher influence on curriculum decisions," $p = 0.5880$; "teacher influence on professional development decisions," $p = 0.1429$; "teacher influence on discipline decisions," $p = 0.0729$; and "teacher influence on budget decisions," $p = 0.5637$—indicate no statistically significant difference in means, as measured by the ANOVA.

The findings of the analysis of the first research question can be summarized as follows:

1. Teachers in private Catholic schools have more influence on curriculum decisions than do teachers in diocesan and parochial Catholic schools.
2. Teachers in private Catholic schools have more influence on professional development decisions than do teachers in diocesan and parochial Catholic schools.
3. Principals in parochial and diocesan Catholic schools perceive teacher absenteeism to be less of a problem than do principals in private Catholic schools.

These findings indicate that teachers in private Catholic schools can be distinguished from teachers in diocesan and parochial Catholic schools in the way that they perceive their influence on curriculum decisions. An implication of the finding that private school teachers perceive more influence on curriculum decisions than teachers in diocesan and parochial schools is that they are also more satisfied with this characteristic of climate within their schools. In addition, both private and diocesan Catholic school teachers can be distinguished from parochial Catholic school teachers in the way that they perceive their influence on professional development decisions. An implication of the finding that private and diocesan school teachers perceive more influence on professional development decisions than teachers in parochial schools is that they are also more satisfied with this characteristic of climate within their schools.

In general, principals of the three types of Catholic schools cannot be distinguished by the way they perceive climate within their schools, with the exception of principals of parochial and diocesan Catholic schools, who perceive teacher absenteeism to be less of a problem than do principals in private Catholic schools.

Research Question 2 Results

*Within each type of Catholic elementary school, does the perception of climate vary between teachers and principals?*
It is hypothesized that there is a difference in the way that teachers and principals perceive climate within each type of Catholic school.

**Null Hypothesis**

There is no difference in the perception of climate among teachers and principals within each type of Catholic school.

To test climate as perceived by teachers as opposed to climate as perceived by principals in each of the types of Catholic schools, a two sample $t$ test was performed on each of the six items identified as characteristics of climate. The independent variables were the two classes: teachers and principals. Items from the 2003-2004 SASS teacher questionnaire and principal questionnaire, the dependent variables—job satisfaction, teacher absenteeism, and participation in decision making—were examined in the areas of curriculum, professional development planning, establishing discipline, and budget planning. The structures of the schools were those identified in the survey: parochial (inter-parochial), diocesan, and private. The sample included 1,348 teachers and 377 principals from parochial Catholic schools, 737 teachers and 205 principals from diocesan Catholic schools, and 78 teachers and 23 principals from private Catholic schools. Results of the analysis are reported in Tables 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, and 13. These results determined whether the perceptions of teachers and principals within each type of Catholic school are different as they relate to characteristics of climate.

The two sample $t$ test on the climate characteristic “teacher job satisfaction” revealed no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of teachers and principals in each of the three types of Catholic schools.
Table 8

*Two Sample t test of Teachers’ and Principals’ Perceptions of Teacher Job Satisfaction*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of School</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Principals</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parochial</td>
<td>1348</td>
<td>3.6285</td>
<td>1348</td>
<td>3.6971</td>
<td>0.5775</td>
<td>377</td>
<td>0.0727</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diocesan</td>
<td>737</td>
<td>3.6647</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>3.6019</td>
<td>0.7507</td>
<td>0.1894</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>3.6802</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>3.5423</td>
<td>0.9333</td>
<td>0.4190</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Alpha level .05.

Table 9

*Two Sample t test of Teachers’ and Principals’ Perceptions of Teacher Absenteeism*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of School</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Principals</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parochial</td>
<td>1348</td>
<td>3.828</td>
<td>1348</td>
<td>3.8473</td>
<td>0.4126</td>
<td>377</td>
<td>0.4365</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diocesan</td>
<td>737</td>
<td>3.8622</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>3.7749</td>
<td>0.4578</td>
<td>0.0055</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>3.8707</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>3.614</td>
<td>0.8038</td>
<td>0.0212</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Alpha level .05.

The two sample *t* test on the climate characteristic “teacher absenteeism” revealed no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of teachers and principals in the parochial schools. However, both the diocesan and private school data, *t* = 0.0055 and *t* = 0.0212, demonstrate a statistically significant difference in the way the teachers and principals perceive the problem of teacher absenteeism.
Table 10

Two Sample t test of Teachers’ and Principals’ Perceptions of Teacher Influence on Curriculum Decisions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of School</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Principals</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$n$</td>
<td>$M$</td>
<td>$SD$</td>
<td>$n$</td>
<td>$M$</td>
<td>$SD$</td>
<td>$t$ value</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parochial</td>
<td>1348</td>
<td>2.9229</td>
<td>0.9269</td>
<td>377</td>
<td>3.6851</td>
<td>0.5665</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diocesan</td>
<td>737</td>
<td>2.8699</td>
<td>0.9913</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>3.6369</td>
<td>0.6102</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>3.2202</td>
<td>1.0228</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>3.708</td>
<td>0.6382</td>
<td>0.0164</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Alpha level .05.

Table 11

Two Sample t test of Teachers’ and Principals’ Perceptions of Teacher Influence on Professional Development Decisions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of School</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Principals</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$n$</td>
<td>$M$</td>
<td>$SD$</td>
<td>$n$</td>
<td>$M$</td>
<td>$SD$</td>
<td>$t$ value</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parochial</td>
<td>1348</td>
<td>2.4446</td>
<td>0.8826</td>
<td>377</td>
<td>3.4334</td>
<td>0.6578</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diocesan</td>
<td>737</td>
<td>2.5307</td>
<td>0.8987</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>3.5365</td>
<td>0.6433</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>2.6344</td>
<td>1.0051</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>3.3787</td>
<td>0.7766</td>
<td>0.0004</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Alpha level .05.

This study identified four areas of decision making in schools that contribute to the climate of a school. The analysis of the first characteristic, “teacher influence on curriculum decisions,” shows a statistically significant difference in the way that teachers and principals perceive teacher influence on curriculum decisions within all three types of
Catholic schools. The $t$ values for all three types of schools—parochial, $t < .0001$; diocesan, $t < .0001$; and private, $t = 0.0164$—all fall below the alpha level of .05, meaning that the difference cannot be attributed to chance.

The analysis of the characteristic of “teacher influence on professional development decisions” reveals much the same information as the previous variable. There is a difference in the way that teachers and principals perceive teacher influence on professional development decisions within each type of Catholic school. The $t$ values of all three types of schools—parochial, $t < .0001$; diocesan, $t < .0001$; and private, $t = 0.0004$—all fall below the alpha level of .05.

Table 12

Two Sample $t$ Test of Teachers' and Principals' Perceptions of Teacher Influence on Discipline Decisions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of School</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Principals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parochial</td>
<td>1348</td>
<td>2.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diocesan</td>
<td>737</td>
<td>2.8471</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>2.7436</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Alpha level .05.

The analysis of the characteristic of “teacher influence on discipline decisions” again reveals similar information. There is a difference in the way that teachers and principals perceive teacher influence on discipline decisions within each type of Catholic school. The $t$ values of all three types of schools—parochial, $t < .0001$; diocesan,
The analysis of the characteristic of “teacher influence on budget decisions” reveals a fourth characteristic of climate where the difference in means is statistically significant. There is a difference in the way that teachers and principals perceive teacher influence on budget decisions within each type of Catholic school. The \( t \) values of all three types of schools—parochial, \( t < .0001 \); diocesan, \( t < .0001 \); and private, \( t = 0.0006 \)—all fall below the alpha level of .05 and the difference in means cannot be attributed to chance.

The findings of the analysis of the second research question can be summarized as follows:

1. Teachers and principals have a similar perception on the level of teacher job satisfaction within all three types of Catholic schools.
2. Teachers and principals in parochial Catholic schools have a similar perception of the problem level of teacher absenteeism within their schools.

3. Teachers and principals in diocesan and private Catholic schools perceive the problem of teacher absenteeism differently within their schools.

4. Teachers and principals in parochial, diocesan, and private Catholic schools have a different perception of the level of influence teachers have on curriculum decisions.

5. Teachers and principals in parochial, diocesan, and private Catholic schools have a different perception of the level of influence teachers have on problem-solving decisions.

6. Teachers and principals in parochial, diocesan, and private Catholic schools have a different perception of the level of influence teachers have on discipline decisions.

7. Teachers and principals in parochial, diocesan, and private Catholic schools have a different perception of the level of influence teachers have on budget decisions.

These findings indicate that teacher job satisfaction is perceived in the same way by both teachers and principals within each of the types of Catholic schools. In addition, teachers and principals of parochial schools perceive the problem of teacher absenteeism in the same way.

However, teachers' and principals' perceptions in diocesan and private Catholic schools vary on the problem of teacher absenteeism in schools. In addition, teachers' and
principals' perceptions vary on all four climate characteristics pertaining to decision making in all three types of Catholic schools.

Summary

This research study was guided by two questions: Can three types of Catholic elementary schools be distinguished by how school climate is perceived by teachers and by principals? Within each type of Catholic elementary school, does the perception of climate vary between teachers and principals? The characteristics of climate included teacher job satisfaction, teacher absenteeism, teacher participation in decision making in matters of curriculum, professional development planning, discipline, and budget planning.

A weighted one-way ANOVA was run to investigate whether the three types of Catholic schools could be distinguished by how climate is perceived. A two sample t test was conducted on each of the climate characteristics to determine whether the perceptions of the teachers and principals varied within each type of Catholic school. General descriptive information about each of the climate characteristics was also presented in response to the research questions.

The weighted one-way ANOVA of teacher responses revealed that teachers in private Catholic schools can be distinguished from teachers in diocesan and parochial Catholic schools in the way that they perceive their influence on curriculum decisions. In addition, both private and diocesan Catholic school teachers can be distinguished from parochial Catholic school teachers in the way that they perceive their influence on professional development decisions.
The weighted one-way ANOVA of principal responses showed that principals of the three types of Catholic schools cannot, in general, be distinguished by the way they perceive climate within their schools, with the exception of principals of parochial and diocesan Catholic schools, who perceive teacher absenteeism as less of a problem than principals in private Catholic schools.

The two sample t tests indicated that teacher job satisfaction is perceived in the same way by both teachers and principals within each of the types of Catholic schools. In addition, teachers and principals of parochial schools perceive the problem of teacher absenteeism in the same way. However, the two sample t tests revealed that teachers’ and principals’ perceptions in diocesan and private Catholic schools vary in the way that they perceive the problem of teacher absenteeism in schools.

Results of the t tests for all four climate characteristics pertaining to decision making—teacher influence on curriculum, professional development, discipline, and budget decisions—showed differences in the way that they were perceived by teachers and principals within(parochial, diocesan, and private Catholic schools.

In summary, the results of both of the ANOVA analyses and each of the t test analyses varied between each of the climate characteristics: teacher job satisfaction, teacher absenteeism, teacher influence on curriculum decisions, teacher influence on professional development decisions, teacher influence on discipline decisions, and teacher influence on budget decisions. Some of the climate variables revealed statistically significant differences among the three types of Catholic schools or between the teachers and principals, while others did not, warranting further discussion on each variable’s effect on climate.
CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The preceding chapters presented the research problem, a review of literature, the methodology used to conduct the study, and the results of the analyses. The final chapter, Chapter V, will present discussion and suggestions for future research. The chapter is organized in five sections: an overview of the study, limitations of the study, summary of results, discussion and interpretation of the results, and implications or suggestions for further research.

Overview of the Study

This study was influenced by previous research on school climate and an understanding of the history of Catholic schools. The purpose of the research was to uncover what, if any, influence the different types of Catholic school structures have on the schools' climate.

Hoy and Hoy (2003) define climate as the characteristics that are unique to an organization, that distinguish one organization from another, essentially the personality of the organization. In the field of education, climate is the subjective experience of those within schools. Climate strongly influences the members of the organization—in the case of schools, the staff, students, and families of a school. A positive climate has a healthy effect on students’ ability to learn and to develop; on staff behavior, including absenteeism; on teacher job satisfaction and interactions between administrators and staff;
as well as on students and parents. An open, positive climate is a good predictor of open
communication, authentic leadership, and shared decision making, which are
characteristics of a strong community (Hoy et al., 1991).

Traditionally Catholic schools are organized under one of three structures:
Parochial, Diocesan and Private. Inter-parochial schools, an offshoot of parochial schools,
have emerged as a fourth type of Catholic school structure. The organizational structures
have common elements, but are organized and operate differently (Harkins, 1993).

Catholic schools are experiencing a variety of difficulties, among them changing
demographics and finances. Catholic schools, and those involved in Catholic schools, are
committed to continuing to provide Catholic school education and to maintaining the
unique climate in Catholic schools. In light of declining enrollment, Catholic schools
must consider restructuring in order to operate more efficiently (Hallinan, 2000). As
Catholic schools consider their future, they are challenged to address all areas necessary
for effective schools, including climate.

The data for this study were obtained from the Schools and Staffing Survey
(SASS) 2003-2004. The survey was conducted by the United States Department of
Education, National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) and is the nation’s most
extensive survey of elementary and secondary schools and those who staff them (Strizek
et al., 2007). SASS is widely used in research on elementary and secondary education.

The research questions answered were:

*Question 1*: Can the three types of Catholic elementary schools be distinguished
by the way school climate is perceived by teachers and by principals?
Question 2: Within each type of Catholic elementary school, does the perception of climate vary between teachers and principals?

Catholic schools in this country have a long history (Guerra, 2004). Since their beginnings, Catholic schools have seen both significant growth and serious decline in student population. Catholic school leaders are aware that changes must be made to the structure and operations of their schools in order to remain viable. Catholic school leaders know that their decisions will influence enrollment throughout the process of change. The impact on enrollment can be positive or negative, depending on how the changes are perceived by the community. Positive school climate can be a force in retaining families in Catholic schools. Catholic school leaders can use the research cited in this study to better understand the influence of school climate on a school’s community. The results of this study can be used to understand whether, and how, structures of Catholic schools affect school climate, allowing these leaders to make good decisions about restructuring their schools.

In addition to Catholic schools, public schools experience changes in student enrollment and student performance. The public sector should be aware of how Catholic schools are organized, how organization contributes to the overall positive experience of students and families, and how this overall experience influences enrollment and achievement. Public and charter school administrators can glean information about climate and organizational structures of schools and use this to make good decisions about their own schools.
Summary of Results

Taking the null hypothesis of the first research question as a whole, the findings of this study allow us to reject it. There are certain characteristics of climate as perceived by teachers and as perceived by principals that vary among the three types of Catholic schools. Teacher influence on curriculum and professional development decisions, as perceived by teachers, was a significant predictor of the private school structure. In addition, diocesan schools can be distinguished from parochial schools in the way that teachers perceive their own influence on professional development decisions. From the principals' perspective, only the teacher absenteeism variable could be viewed as a significant predictor of school structure. However, the distinguishable characteristics of climate are the minority, and so the argument in favor of rejecting the null hypothesis is not a strong one. Based on personal experience, prior to beginning the research, it was anticipated that the null hypothesis would be strongly rejected.

Despite the weak findings of the one-way ANOVA, the following inferences can be made after analyzing the descriptive statistics. Teachers in private Catholic schools are more satisfied with their influence on curriculum decisions than teachers in diocesan and parochial schools; teachers in private and diocesan schools are more satisfied with their influence on professional development decisions than teachers in parochial schools. In addition, principals in parochial and diocesan Catholic schools perceive teacher absenteeism as less of a problem than their counterparts in private schools. Tables 14 and 15 show a comparison of the findings of the two ANOVA analyses run on the
characteristics of climate within each of the types of schools as perceived by principals and by teachers.

Table 14

*Characteristics of Climate Within the Three Types of Catholic Schools as Perceived by Teachers*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Climate Characteristic</th>
<th>Parochial School</th>
<th>Diocesan School</th>
<th>Private School</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Absenteeism</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Decision Making: Curriculum</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Decision Making: Professional Development</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Decision Making: Discipline</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Decision Making: Budget</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* = is a more positive response than --
-- is a more positive response than -
There is no significant difference between groups with same rating.

There could be a variety of explanations for the differences found among teachers in private, diocesan, and parochial Catholic schools. Perhaps the strongest argument for teachers in private Catholic schools being more satisfied with their influence on curricular and professional development issues lies in their school’s structure. Parochial schools are the most common of Catholic school structures. As such, the administrative hierarchy is clear and teachers within these schools rely on their office of schools, superintendent, curriculum directors, and other central office staff to make decisions for the entire body.
Table 15

*Characteristics of Climate Within the Three Types of Catholic Schools as Perceived by Principals*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Climate Characteristic</th>
<th>Parochial School</th>
<th>Diocesan School</th>
<th>Private School</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Absenteeism</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Decision Making: Curriculum</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Decision Making: Professional Development</td>
<td>=</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher Decision Making: Discipline</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Decision Making: Budget</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* = is a more positive response than --
-- is a more positive response than -

There is no significant difference between groups with same rating.

Of schools within a diocese. Although diocesan schools are less common, they rely on the same centralized structure for guidance.

Private Catholic schools, however, have a much less centralized structure. They are often established by congregations of religious men and women, but the administration of the school is left in the hands of the building administrator. With no central office oversight, administrators are well served by looking to their teacher leaders for help with school decisions.

A similar argument can be made as to why parochial and diocesan school principals view teacher absenteeism as less of a problem than their private school
counterparts. The answer may lie in the structure of the school and how absences are dealt with. The data set does not provide a number of days that teachers are absent in any of the schools. Judging solely from the perspective of whether teacher absenteeism is perceived as a problem, I believe that the centralized structures of parochial and diocesan schools provide more support for principals striving to provide uninterrupted education to students during a teacher’s absence. In addition, parochial school principals have access to colleagues in surrounding parochial schools, which could provide additional support with teacher absences and the need for substitute teachers.

Taking the null hypothesis of the second research question as a whole, the findings of this study allow us to reject it. There is one characteristic of climate where the perceptions of the teachers and the principals in all three types of Catholic schools do not vary. However, all five remaining characteristics show differences in the perceptions of the teachers and the principals in one or more of the types of Catholic schools.

Teachers and principals in all three types of schools generally agree that teachers are satisfied with their jobs. Means in each of the groups were >3.5 on a 1 to 4 scale. These means of teacher job satisfaction are high and support previous research that Catholic school teachers are generally happy in their jobs, perhaps more so than their public school counterparts.

In general, teachers and principals in all three types of Catholic schools do not view teacher absenteeism as a problem, \( M > 3.5 \) on a 1 to 4 scale, 4 being the most positive. These results again support the findings of previous research that teacher absenteeism is less of a problem in schools where the climate is open and positive (Leithwood & Beatty, 2008). However, there is a statistically significant difference in the
way that teachers and principals perceive absenteeism within diocesan and private Catholic schools. The findings that are unexpected are found in the descriptive statistics. While very high, means > 3.8, teachers in private Catholic schools consider teacher absenteeism as less of a problem than teachers in diocesan schools, followed by teachers in parochial schools. The opposite is true of teacher absenteeism as perceived by principals. First, the values of the means are lower, 3.61 to 3.84. Next, principals in parochial schools perceive teacher absenteeism as less of a problem than their counterparts in diocesan schools, followed by principals in private schools. In addition, teachers view teacher absenteeism as less of a problem than principals do.

These results may indicate that teachers and principals view teacher absenteeism from very different perspectives. Teachers are focused on the classroom and, perhaps, see teacher absenteeism from the perspective of impact on students. Teachers may consider well written plans and effective substitute teachers as sufficient in the absence of the teacher. Learning continues if substitutes are capable and qualified and have accurate information about what to teach and how. However, is there real assurance that the learning is as qualitative as it would be with the presence of the teacher? This perspective warrants additional research as teachers have a great deal of influence on students.

Principals are also focused on students, but they have the added perspective of impact on budget. Teacher salaries often account for the majority of a school’s operating budget. In the absence of teachers, substitutes must be paid, adding additional expense to the operating budget. This additional information could account for their differences in perception of teacher absenteeism as a problem.
Teachers and principals in all three types of Catholic schools—parochial, diocesan, and private—have a different perception of the level of influence teachers have on decision making, including curriculum, professional development, discipline, and budget decisions. Means for principals were significantly higher than means for teachers in all three types of schools for all four characteristics of decision making. Principals in all Catholic schools perceived teacher influence on school-related decisions as higher than teachers perceived their own influence on school-related decisions. These differences are easily seen in Appendix C, in the graphic representations of the descriptive statistics.

In decisions about curriculum, professional development, and discipline, principals viewed teacher influence as fairly high, the means falling between 3.3 and 3.8. Teachers viewed their influence as lower, with means falling between 2.4 and 3.2. As per the SASS 2003-2004 questionnaire, principals in Catholic schools describe teachers as having a great deal of influence on curriculum decisions, whereas teachers are evenly split between feeling they have moderate to a great deal of influence. Likewise, a majority of Catholic school principals feel teachers have moderate to a great deal of influence on professional development decisions. However, most teachers view their influence as only minor to moderate. The same pattern is found in principal and teacher responses to teacher influence on discipline, with principals perceiving teachers as having a great deal of influence on discipline decisions, while teachers view their own influence on discipline decisions as minor to moderate. Teacher influence on school-based decisions is another area where additional research could shed light on the dynamics between teachers and administrators. Educators would benefit from a better understanding of which decisions
teachers would like to contribute to and how involved they actually feel in the decision-making process.

Both teachers and principals indicated that teachers had the least influence on budget decisions, with means falling between 1.5 and 1.6 according to teachers, and means falling between 2.2 and 2.4 according to principals. As with the previous three decision-making variables, principals perceived teacher influence as higher than teachers perceived their own influence on budget decisions. It is interesting to note that, while principals regard teacher influence on budget as minor to moderate, more teachers view themselves as having no influence on budget decisions.

The $t$ values for all four characteristics of decision making—curriculum, professional development, discipline, and budget—in all three types of Catholic schools were well below the .05 alpha level, indicating that principals and teachers within each of the schools can be distinguished by the way that they perceive teacher influence on decision making. These results are important, as shared decision making in schools has been shown to have a positive effect on school climate (Zimmerman, 2006).

Discussion and Interpretation of Results

The findings of this study do not show a strong connection between the type of Catholic school and its climate as perceived by teachers or by principals. The ANOVA showed that the six climate variables had very little discriminatory power to differentiate the types of organizational structures of Catholic schools. Using the descriptive statistics as indicators, it is clear that the climate within each of the Catholic schools—parochial, diocesan, and private—is positive, with means >3.5. Teacher job satisfaction is high in all
three types of schools according to teachers and principals. In addition, teacher absenteeism is not considered a problem, with means >3.5. Research shows that positive school climate has a positive effect on student learning. So, the choice of any one of the types of Catholic schools could provide a lasting positive effect on students.

Teachers are leaders in their classrooms and contribute a great deal to the climate within their own classroom environments. Positive school climate is harder to maintain, as it relies on many factors beyond just the teachers in their classrooms (Del Favero & Bray, 2005; Giancola & Hutchinson, 2005; Zimmerman, 2006). While the one-way ANOVA revealed little related to differences between the three types of Catholic schools, the two sample t tests showed that all four decision-making variables were significant predictors of teacher versus principal responses. It is recognized that relationships are key factors in positive school climate (Del Favero & Bray, 2005; Giancola & Hutchinson, 2005; Zimmerman, 2006). Shared leadership and shared decision making are important factors in maintaining positive relationships throughout a school. The effects of teachers participating in, and having influence over, decisions leaves a lasting impact on the school’s climate. Shared decision making requires a high degree of trust, and school leaders must be open to input from all interested if the intent is to build relationships and to foster a positive school climate (Del Favero & Bray, 2005; Giancola & Hutchinson, 2005; Zimmerman, 2006).

The results support the literature that highlights decision making as having greater strength in determining climate and, in this case, identifying differences in the way that teachers and principals perceive their schools. The analyses of means show that teachers in all three types of Catholic schools perceived their influence on decisions as only minor
to moderate, compared to principals, who viewed teacher influence on decisions as moderate, even responding that teachers have a great deal of influence on curriculum, professional development, and discipline decisions. These results may support arguments that climate in Catholic schools is not particularly positive. However, this assumption is countered by the response to teacher job satisfaction, which was viewed as positive by both teachers and principals. So, while teachers are generally less satisfied with their influence on school decisions than principals perceive them to be, that does not impact their job satisfaction to any great degree. While teachers are generally less satisfied with their influence on school decisions than principals perceive them to be, this may or may not have a significant impact on school climate. Additional research is needed to fully understand the strength of impact shared decision making has on school climate.

Implications or Suggestions for Further Research

The primary purpose of using statistics to understand organizations and climate is to provide greater insight into decisions about changes to organizational structure. Understanding how organization affects climate allows for policy makers in schools to assess their own organizations against their climate and to make decisions that will bring about positive change. The findings of this study add to previous research on climate as it pertains to the way schools are structured.

The results imply that the type of structure of a Catholic school does not significantly affect its climate. Catholic school leaders must recognize this finding and the leaders must actively seek to understand their schools’ climate and how to maintain a positive open community. This research has found evidence that decision making within
Catholic schools is perceived differently by teachers and principals, and this difference in perception can impact school climate. Shared decision making between teachers and administration has a positive impact on school climate. If teachers and principals do not agree on how much influence each group has on school decisions, the climate of the school suffers. Based on the data, it is assumed that the type of leadership within a school, not the way that the school is structured, has more of an effect on climate and should be closely monitored. The key findings of this study have implications on the way that Catholic school leaders structure their schools, and in the way that they involve teachers in the decision-making process. Principals within any Catholic school structure should employ leadership styles that rely on the expertise and participation of teachers.

The ANOVA conducted in this study serves to identify variables that can individually predict the structure of a school. A preliminary discriminant function analysis was conducted, for both teacher and principal perceptions, to determine whether the variables used in this study could be grouped together as predictors of climate. Discriminant function analysis brings variables together, showing similarities among them, typing variables as predictors of an outcome.

The preliminary analysis on teacher survey results showed that the four decision-making variables are highly correlated. The first function separated diocesan and private Catholic schools from parochial schools based on decision-making variables. The second function further discriminated among the types of schools; however, teacher absenteeism was among two other decision-making variables as predictors.

Two significant functions resulted on the discriminant function analysis conducted on the variables as perceived by principals. The first function separated
parochial schools from diocesan and private Catholic schools on the items of teacher job satisfaction, teacher absenteeism, and teacher influence on professional development decisions. The second function further distinguished diocesan schools from parochial and private schools on three of the four decision-making variables.

School climate is a widely studied phenomenon. School leaders and policy makers are well served by understanding factors contributing to school climate and providing an atmosphere in which positive climate is fostered and developed. Future studies should consider using multiple approaches to collect data to provide greater depth to the study. Interviews and observations of interactions within schools would provide greater insight into the way that relationship and shared leadership affect a school’s climate.

The Schools and Staffing Survey provides opportunity to add additional variables to a future study on Catholic school climate. The preliminary discriminant function analysis could be expanded. Additional variables could be identified and grouped, beginning with additional variables added to the four decision-making items used in this study. The SASS offers items related to certification and training, working conditions, teacher attitudes, and teacher satisfaction on a number of school-related issues within the private school teacher questionnaire. The private school principal questionnaire adds the principal’s perception on many of the items related to working conditions and teacher attitudes. Discriminant function analysis could provide worthwhile information on categories of variables that have the ability to distinguish between types of schools.

Knowing that Catholic school leaders are facing change, they should be paying close attention to research on school climate and studying the effects of their actions and decisions on school climate. The Schools and Staffing Survey includes inter-parochial
schools within the parochial category, due to the similarities in the organizational structures of the two. Based on my experience in Catholic schools, parochial and inter-parochial schools can be very different in climate. However, based on the results of this study, my experience in parochial and inter-parochial schools was probably not due to the structure of the school. The Catholic school community would be well served by additional research on the differences between parochial and inter-parochial schools, in addition to diocesan and private Catholic schools.

Last, continued research on teacher and principal perceptions would add to the base of knowledge already established. Employing a variety of research approaches, including qualitative studies that rely on surveys or interviews, could lead to a better understanding of why teachers and principals perceive their schools, and climate within the schools, differently.

Limitations of the Study

There are limitations to this study. The research is purely quantitative and provides relevant data pertaining to the climate in Catholic schools. The study is also limited by factors that commonly affect secondary analyses of survey data. The SASS is organized and collected to provide a comprehensive understanding of education through information collected of principals, teachers, and other constituents in all types of schools. However, it is impossible to collect data on all aspects of schools. The data were collected prior to the inception of this study and the research questions were formulated, in part, using the existing data. The SASS 2003-2004 does not directly measure the construct of climate; rather, the construct was made up of the available data.
Understanding climate fully requires some qualitative work in addition to the quantitative data, including an in-depth and objective look into the operations of each school. Last, there is a potential for error in asking survey respondents to report their personal beliefs and perceptions.

The success of each student is the primary concern of schools and those who administer and teach. This study showed that there is not a strong relationship between the type of Catholic school—parochial, diocesan, or private—and its climate. The study also showed that perceptions of teachers and principals vary on some aspects of climate. Knowing this, we realize that it is worth the time and energy needed to better understand the complex climate within schools and to better understand how this helps lead to student success.
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Pitkoff, E. (2003). School district practices that encourage teacher absenteeism. School Administrator, 60(6), 34.


Appendix A

Human Subjects Institutional Review Board
Letter of Approval
Date:  October 7, 2008

To:    Van Cooley, Principal Investigator
       Andrea Zommers, Student Investigator for dissertation

From:  Amy Naugle, Ph.D., Chair

Re:    HSIRB Project Number: 08-10-06

This letter will serve as confirmation that your research project entitled "Climate in Catholic Schools: A Comparative Study of Three Types of Organizational Structures" has been approved under the exempt category of review by the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board. The conditions and duration of this approval are specified in the Policies of Western Michigan University. You may now begin to implement the research as described in the application.

Please note that you may only conduct this research exactly in the form it was approved. You must seek specific board approval for any changes in this project. You must also seek reappraisal if the project extends beyond the termination date noted below. In addition if there are any unanticipated adverse reactions or unanticipated events associated with the conduct of this research, you should immediately suspend the project and contact the Chair of the HSIRB for consultation.

The Board wishes you success in the pursuit of your research goals.

Approval Termination:  October 7, 2009
Appendix B

Tables of Descriptive Statistics: Types of Catholic Schools and Teacher and Principal Responses to Climate
Descriptive Statistics for Parochial Teacher Responses to Climate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Response Relative Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>2.15</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher Absenteeism</td>
<td>3.83</td>
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<td>Teacher influence on curriculum decisions</td>
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<td>Teacher influence on professional development decisions</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher influence on discipline decisions</td>
<td>2.88</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher influence on budget decisions</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>60.01</td>
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</table>

Descriptive Statistics for Diocesan Teacher Responses to Climate

<table>
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<th>Variable</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
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<td>Teacher Absenteeism</td>
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<td>Teacher influence on curriculum decisions</td>
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### Descriptive Statistics for Private Teacher Responses to Climate

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<th>Response Relative Frequency</th>
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</thead>
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<td>0.85</td>
<td>50.00</td>
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</table>

### Descriptive Statistics for Parochial Principal Responses to Climate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable Principal Perception of:</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Response Relative Frequency</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>3.70</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher Absenteeism</td>
<td>3.85</td>
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<td>0.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher influence on curriculum decisions</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>0.57</td>
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<td>Teacher influence on professional development decisions</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher influence on discipline decisions</td>
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<td>0.53</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher influence on budget decisions</td>
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<td>0.86</td>
<td>15.38</td>
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</table>
### Descriptive Statistics for Diocesan Principal Responses to Climate

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Response Relative Frequency %</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Job Satisfaction</td>
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<td>Teacher Absenteeism</td>
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<td>0.00 0.98 20.49 78.54</td>
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<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.49 3.90 26.83 68.78</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.64</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>2.44</td>
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</table>

### Descriptive Statistics for Private Principal Responses to Climate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable Principal Perception of:</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Response Relative Frequency %</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>3.54</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher influence on discipline decisions</td>
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<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.00 4.35 34.78 60.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher influence on budget decisions</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>13.04 47.83 34.78 4.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix C

Graphic Representations of Climate Characteristics:
Frequency of Responses by Teachers and Principals
Within Each of the Types of Catholic Schools
Teacher and Principal Responses to Job Satisfaction

Teacher and Principal Responses to Teacher Influence on Curriculum
Teacher and Principal Responses to Teacher Absenteeism

Teacher and Principal Responses to Influence on Professional Development
Teacher and Principal Responses to Influence on Professional Development

Teacher and Principal Responses to Teacher Influence on Budget