AN ANALYSIS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GRANGE PARTICIPATION FREQUENCY AND MEMBER ORIENTATION TYPE AND AN EXPLORATION OF THE SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS ASSOCIATED WITH TYPES OF ORIENTATION OF MEMBERS TO SUBORDINATE GRANGES IN MICHIGAN

Thesis for the Degree of M. A.
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

Richard Lee Sanderson

1967

ABSTRACT

AN ANALYSIS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GRANGE PARTICIPATION FREQUENCY AND MEMBER ORIENTATION TYPE AND AN EXPLORATION OF THE SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS ASSOCIATED WITH TYPES OF ORIENTATION OF MEMBERS TO SUBORDINATE GRANGES IN MICHIGAN

By Richard Lee Sanderson

The general problem of this thesis lies in the area of participation in voluntary organizations, and, in particular, participation in voluntary associations which have both expressive and instrumental goals. The problem consists of two parts. The first part is concerned with determining the influence of member orientation type (either expressive or instrumental) on frequency of organizational participation. The second part is concerned with determining the social characteristics associated with each orientation type.

The problem was tested with an analysis of the responses of 315 Michigan Subordinate Grange members to a mailed questionnaire. The analysis revealed, with respect to the first part of the problem, that there is a significant difference in frequency of Subordinate Grange participation between expressively oriented and instrumentally oriented members.

The general findings for the second part of the problem are as follows:

1. Type of orientation is related to occupation. Members who have farming occupations tend to be more expressively oriented than those who have non-manual occupations.

2. Type of orientation is related to the occupation of the respondent's father. Members whose fathers had farming occupations tend to be more expressively oriented than those whose fathers had non-manual occupations.

3. Type of orientation is related to employment status. Members who are retired tend to be more expressively oriented than those who are employed.

4. Type of orientation is related to age. The older a member is the more likely he will be expressively oriented.

5. Type of orientation is related to level of educational achievement. The higher the level of education a member has obtained the more likely he will be instrumentally oriented.

6. Type of orientation is related to present residence. Members who live in rural areas tend to be more expressively oriented than those who live in urban areas.

7. Type of orientation is related to residence where raised. Members who were raised in rural areas tend to be more expressively oriented than those who were raised in urban areas.

8. Type of orientation is related to types of

communities in which lived. Members who have lived only in rural communities tend to be more expressively oriented than those who have lived in other types of communities.

9. Type of orientation is related to distance from the nearest Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area. Members who live less than fifty miles from the nearest S.M.S.A. tend to be more instrumentally oriented than those who live fifty miles or more from the nearest S.M.S.A.

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A THESIS

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

Department of Sociology

1967

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

A study of this kind is the result of a large number of contributions and ideas, impossible to in all cases acknowledge individually. The author wishes therefore to issue a blanket statement of sincere appreciation to teachers, colleagues, and staff personnel for their stimulation and cooperation.

Specifically, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to Professor J. Allan Beegle, my advisor and guidance committee chairman, for his most generous offering of assistance in all phases of the study, but particularly for his criticisms and encouragement.

Professors Sheldon G. Lowry, Charles R. Hoffer, and James R. Hundley, Jr., of the guidance committee, also gave willingly of their valuable time.

A special note of thanks is owed to Professors William H. Form, Everett M. Rogers, and Harry Webb for their cogent comments, suggestions, and encouragement on the theoretical aspects of the study.

My thanks also to the Michigan State Grange Research committee and the Michigan State Agricultural Experimental Station for financial support; to Gordon D. Grant for his generous assistance in printing the manuscript; and, although

they will probably never read this, to the respondents to this study, without whose cooperation and willingness to answer a number of rather personal questions the study would not have been possible.

Lastly, a special note of gratitude for their assistance and forebearance is owed to my family and particularly my wife, Sharon Kay, whose typing and corrections and especially encouragements and confidence were so necessary for the completion of this study.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A. The General Problem and Its Significance

The general problem of this thesis lies in the area of participation in voluntary organizations,[1] and, in particular, participation in voluntary associations which have both expressive and instrumental goals.[2] The study investigates the assumptions that the various functions of expressive-instrumental, or "dual", voluntary

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[1]By "voluntary" organizations or associations we mean social units devoted primarily to the attainment of specific goals to which persons voluntarily associate themselves.

[2]The use of the terms "expressive" and "instrumental" closely follows that of C. Wayne Gordon and Nicholas Babchuk, "A Typology of Voluntary Associations," American Sociological Review, XXIV (January, 1959), pp. 22-29. By "expressive" goals we mean those which have as their purpose the immediate and continued gratification of the members. By "instrumental" goals we mean those which have as their purpose the maintenance or production of a change which transcends the immediate membership. See chapter three for the operationalization of these definitions in this study. Determination of organizational goals may be obtained from a declaration of purposes, statement from a leading official, team of judges, members, or observation of investigators. See Arthur P. Jacoby and Nicholas Babchuk, "Instrumental and Expressive Voluntary Associations," Sociology and Social Research, XXXXVII (July, 1963), 465.

organizations,[3] such as trade unions[4] and farm organizations, both general[5] and cooperative,[6] will have differential attractiveness to different membership orientation types and that membership orientations may be related to the social characteristics of the membership.[7]

The study of voluntary associations in American society has long been a primary concern of social scientists and observers.[8] Theoretically, voluntary organizations are

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[3]This study does not follow the distinction of "dual organizations" made by Amitai Etzioni, A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations (New York: The Free Press, 1961), 55. By dual organization we mean an organization which has expressive and instrumental goals both of which are perceived as predominate by a significant proportion of the members.

[4]William H. Form and H. K. Dansereau, "Union Member Orientations and Patterns of Social Integration," Industrial and Labor Relations Review, XI (October, 1957), 3.

[5]Charles P. Loomis and J. Allan Beegle, Rural Sociology: The Strategy of Change (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1957), pp. 297-300. See also David E. Lindstrom, "Interest Group Relations and Functions in Rural Society," Rural Sociology, XXVI (September, 1961), pp. 252-265.

[6]Ray E. Wakeley, "Sociological Research on Farmers' Organizations and Agricultural Cooperatives," Rural Sociology, XXII (September, 1957), 275. See also George M. Beal, "Additional Hypotheses in Participation Research," Rural Sociology, XXI (September, 1956), pp. 249-251.

[7]Form and Dansereau, loc. cit. Gordon and Babchuk, op. cit., 29. Nicholas Babchuk and Charles K. Warriner, "Introduction," Sociological Inquiry, XXXV (Spring, 1965), 135.

[8]Usually mentioned is Alexis de Tocqueville, Democracy in America, II, ed. Philip Bradley (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1945), which is a report on the role, function, and pervasiveness of voluntary organizations.

viewed as performing functions created by a weakened extended family, church, and community.[9] They are seen as functioning to integrate the society,[10] satisfy self-expression and special interest needs,[11] and provide a sense of security.[12] Research questions which correspond with the above approaches fall into the following areas: (1) organizational function: the contribution of voluntary organizations to the total society, their function in integrating the society, and the role they perform in various societal processes such as socialization, opinion formation, and decision-making; (2) organizational size and formalization; (3) neighborhood type and cohesion; (4) extent of affiliation; (5) degree of participation or involvement; and (6) the orientation types of organizations in which " . . . persons play out their lives, seek the satisfactions of their needs, and express

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[9]Arnold M. Rose, Theory and Method in the Social Sciences (Minneapolis, Minn.: University of Minnesota Press, 1954), pp. 50-71, 163-4. Louis Wirth, "Urbanism as a Way of Life," The American Journal of Sociology, XXXXIV (July, 1938), 17. W. Lloyd Warner, American Life: Dream and Reality (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953), 191.

[10]Babchuk and Warriner, op. cit., 135. Peter Rossi, Why Families Move (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1955), pp. 32-40. Werner S. Landecker, "Types of Integration and Their Measurement," The American Journal of Sociology, XXXXXVI (January, 1951), pp. 332-340. Nicholas Babchuk and John N. Edwards, "Voluntary Associations and the Integration Hypothesis," Sociological Inquiry, XXXV (Spring, 1965), pp. 149-162.

[11]Rose, op. cit., 59.

[12]Ibid. Gordon W. Allport, "The Psychology of Participation," Psychological Review, LII (May, 1945), 130.

their conceptions of themselves as persons and of the world in which they live."[13]

Voluntary organizations have been an integral element of such studies as those by Fromm, Nisbet, Whyte, and Reisman,[14] and the subject of many investigations, particularly since the seminal works of Komarovsky and Goldhamer.[15] These empirical indagations, however, have been for the most part, directed at distinguishing individuals who participate in such associations from those who do not, and have, in addition, been largely limited to analyses of the relationship between membership in voluntary organizations and demographic variables[16] or such factors as neighborhood cohesion or size.[17] Such studies have been preoccupied with

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[13]Babchuk and Warriner, loc. cit.

[14]Erich Fromm, Escape from Freedom (New York: Rinehart and Co., Inc., 1941). Robert A. Nisbet, The Quest for Community (New York: Oxford University Press, 1953). William H. Whyte, The Organization Man (New York: Doubleday, 1957). David Reisman, The Lonely Crowd (Garden City: Doubleday, 1953).

[15]Mirra Komarovsky, "The Voluntary Associations of Urban Dwellers," American Sociological Review, XI (December, 1946), pp. 686-698. Herbert Goldhamer, "Some Factors Affecting Participation in Voluntary Organizations," unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, University of Chicago, 1943.

[16]Gordon and Babchuk, op. cit., 23. See also J. C. Scott, Jr., "Membership and Participation in Voluntary Associations," American Sociological Review, XXII (June, 1957), pp. 315-326; and Richard F. Curtis, "Occupational Mobility and Membership in Formal Voluntary Associations: A Note on Research," American Sociological Review, XXIV (December, 1959), pp. 846-848.

[17]Scott Greer and Ella Kube, "Urbanism and Social Structure: A Los Angeles Study," Community Structure and Analysis, ed. Marvin B. Sussman (New York: Crowell, 1959), pp. 93-112. Noel P. Gist and L. A. Halbert, Urban Society (New York: Crowell, 1956), 331.

the mere fact of membership rather than with the nature or meaning of the affiliation. Recent examples include studies of the relationship between participation in voluntary associations and urban neighborhood type,[18] and neighborhood cohesion.[19] In each study, all of the voluntary organizations, such as professional societies, fraternal orders, church organizations, and special interest clubs, were analyzed as though they were equivalent. The studies have not been concerned with the functional nature of voluntary organizations, even though such a consideration is an integral element of the theoretical framework related to them.[20]

A number of writers have investigated the functional characteristic of voluntary organizations, and have expressed this in terms of an expressive-instrumental typology.[21] Although this classification has been used in few research reports, its significance for the study of

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[18]Wendell Bell and Maryanne T. Force, "Urban Neighborhood Types and Participation in Formal Associations," American Sociological Review, XXI (January, 1956), pp. 25-34.

[19]Eugene Litwak, "Voluntary Associations and Neighborhood Cohesion," American Sociological Review, XXVI (April, 1961), pp. 258-271.

[20]Jacoby and Babchuk, op. cit., 465. Talcott Parsons, The Social System (New York: The Free Press, 1951), pp. 49, 75-88.

[21]Gordon and Babchuk, loc. cit. Rose, op cit., 52. George A. Lundberg, Mirra Komarovsky, and M. A. McInery, Leisure: A Suburban Study (New York: Columbia University Press, 1934), pp. 126-169.

voluntary associations have been demonstrated.[22] Only a few studies, however, have investigated the relationship between participation and the orientation types of members of expressive-instrumental organizations.[23] Gordon and Babchuk, for example, limit their consideration of dual organizations to national associations which operate on " . . . an expressive level locally but on an instrumental level nationally."[24] It would appear, however, that this is not the only possibility, but that dual organizations do exist and do tend toward a predominant orientation type (either expressive or instrumental).[25] This predominant type will have greater salience for persons having the corresponding orientation type who will, therefore, attend more frequently than members not having the corresponding orientation type. If so, such a study would suggest a fruitful method for the

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[22]Jacoby and Babchuk, loc. cit. Helen Gouldner, "The Organization Woman: Patterns of Friendship and Organizational Commitment," unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, University of California, Los Angeles, 1960. Nicholas Babchuk and C. Wayne Gordon, The Voluntary Association in the Slum (Lincoln, Nebraska: University of Nebraska Studies, Number 27, 1962). C. Wayne Gordon and Nicholas Babchuk, "A Typology of Voluntary Associations," American Sociological Review, XXIV (January, 1959), 29.

[23]Form and Dansereau, op. cit., 3. George M. Beal, loc. cit.

[24]Gordon and Babchuk, op. cit., 26.

[25]Rose, op. cit., 58. Etzioni, op. cit., pp. 12-14, 43-44.

analysis of participation in voluntary organizations and especially in those which are dual organizations. It might also provide a method for comparing organizations on various criteria as distinguished by membership orientation type as well as suggest a means for investigating the usefulness of organizational congruence theory (as applied to orientation type rather than type of compliance) and status-value homophily theory.[26]

B. The Scope of the Study

This study focuses on the members of the local units ("Subordinates") in Michigan of a voluntary fraternal farm organization known as the Order of Patrons of Husbandry. Organized in 1867, the stated purposes of the National Grange, as it is commonly called, are the " . . . mental, moral, social, and material advancement . . . " of its members.[27] Although the organization does have expressive and instrumental functions, it is generally recognized that it is predominately an expressive

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[26]Etzioni, op. cit., pp. 3-14. Morroe Berger, Theodore Abel, and Charles H. Page, Freedom and Control in Modern Society (New York: D. Van Nostand Co., Inc., 1954), pp. 18-37, 56-66.

[27]Charles M. Gardner, The Grange: Friend of the Farmer (Washington, D.C.: The National Grange, 1947), 517.

organization.[28] (Chapter two will further present a description and history of the organization).

C. Objectives and Hypotheses

The problem of this study is twofold. The first part of the problem is to determine the influence of membership orientation type on subordinate participation.[29] The second part of the problem has as its purpose an exploration of the social characteristics associated with each orientation type. On the basis of our theoretical framework, and what we currently know about the Grange and its members, the following hypotheses will be tested:

1. Frequency of attendance is related to type of orientation. Specifically, members who are expressively

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[28]Lindstrom, op. cit., pp. 260-262. Charles P. Loomis and J. Allan Beegle, Rural Social Systems (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950), pp. 629-631. Dwight Sanderson, Rural Sociology and Rural Social Organization (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1942), 512. Charles Russell Hoffer, Introduction to Rural Sociology (New York: Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., 1934), pp. 85, 148. Lowry Nelson, Rural Sociology (New York: The American Book Company, 1952), 431. Carl Taylor, et al., Rural Life in the United States (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1955), pp. 195, 393.

[29]"Participation" refers to the frequency of the attendance of the respondent to the Subordinate Grange. Answers to question two in the study instrument, "How often do you attend?" (see Appendix A for a copy of the instrument used) were used to classify the respondents as follows: "high attenders" (All of the time, or Most of the time); "low attenders" (Half of the time, or Some of the time); and "non-attenders" (None of the time). The answers of the respondents to question three, "Why would you say you belong to the Grange?" were used to categorize their orientation to the subordinate as either predominately expressive or instrumental. (See chapter three for examples of this procedure). The respondent's orientation was usually apparent from question three. In only seven cases were decisions made.

oriented will attend more frequently than those who are instrumentally oriented.

2. Type of orientation is related to a series of variables as follows:

a. Occupation. Members who have farming occupations will tend to be more expressively oriented than those who have non-manual occupations.[30]

b. Occupation of the respondent's father. Members whose fathers had farming occupations will tend to be more expressively oriented than those whose fathers had non-manual occupations.

c. Employment status. Members who are retired will tend to be more expressively oriented than those who are employed.

d. Age. The older a member is the more likely he will be expressively oriented.

e. Level of educational achievement. The higher the level of education a member has

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[30]The answers of the respondents to questions concerning occupation (questions thirty-eight through forty-two in the instrument) were classified using the occupational categories found in the U. S. Census of Population, 1960, PC (1) 1C, U. S. Summary, p. xxi. The occupations were then collapsed as follows: "farming" (Farmers, Farm Managers, andForemen; and Farm Laborers); "manual non-farming" (Craftsmen, Foremen, and Kindred Workers; Operatives and Kindred Workers; Private Household Workers; Service Workers; and Laborers, except Farm and Mine); and "non-manual" (Professional, Technical, and Kindred Workers; Managers, Officials, and Proprietors; Clerical and Kindred Workers; and Sales Workers).

obtained the more likely he will be instrumentally oriented.

f. Present residence. Members who live in rural areas will tend to be more expressively oriented than those who live in urban areas.[31]

g. Residence where raised. Members who were raised in rural areas will tend to be more expressively oriented than those who were raised in urban areas.[32]

h. Types of communities in which lived. Members who have lived only in rural communities will tend to be more expressively oriented than those who have lived in other types of communities.[33]

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[31]The answers of the respondents to question twenty-six, "In which type of community do you now live?", were collapsed as follows: "rural" (on farm, open country but not farm, and village under 2500); and "urban" (city of 2500-9999, city of 10,000-49,999, and city of 50,000 or more).

[32]The answers of the respondents to question twenty-eight, "In which type of community were you raised?", were collapsed as above.

[33]"Other types of communities" denotes that the respondent has either lived only in urban communities, or both in urban and rural areas.

i. Distance from the nearest Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area.[34] Members who live less than fifty miles from the nearest S.M.S.A. will tend to be more instrumentally oriented than those who live fifty miles or more from the nearest S.M.S.A.

D. Methods of Gathering the Data and Analysis

The data used for this study were gathered as a part of a larger study which was made to determine the factors significant to affiliation and participation in Subordinate Granges in Michigan. Questionnaires were mailed in August, 1964, to a ten percent random sample of 8,192 Grange "families".[35] A return of 205 or approximately twenty-five percent was received from this first mailing.

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[34]"Distance" refers to the distance from the city or village nearest the respondent's home to the nearest S.M.S.A. (if he does not live within one) by the most direct paved highway. Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area is defined as one or more contiguous counties containing at least one city of 50,000 or more (or a pair of contiguous twin cities of at least this joint size) and having a generally metropolitan character based on the county's social and economic integration with the central city. See U. S. Census of Population, PC(1) 1B, U. S. Summary for a more detailed discussion.

[35]A series of 8,192 address-o-graph plates in the office of the Michigan State Grange in Lansing represented the universe to be used. Each plate delineated an address at which at least one Grange member resided. A cover letter sent with the questionnaire requested that the head of household, if a Grange member, complete the instrument. The last digit of a randomly selected number was the starting point from which each tenth address-o-graph plate was selected.

A second mailing was sent in September. A return of 123 was received which made a total return of 328 or approximately forty percent. Of these, thirteen were incomplete and therefore rejected and an analysis was made on the basis of a thirty-eight percent return. An investigation of the relationship among orientation type, participation frequency, and date of return was made (see Appendix B) to determine the possible effect of return bias.[36] It was decided that return bias was not a significant factor.

The data obtained from the questionnaires were coded by the author in collaboration with faculty members in the Department of Sociology. After the data had beed coded, the information was then punched on IBM cards and a preliminary summary was obtained by machine process. The marginals yielded were carefully checked for accuracy and consistency. Chi-square scores were then obtained for the desired tables.

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[36]E. C. Lehman, Jr., "Tests of Significance and Partial Returns to Mailed Questionnaires," Rural Sociology, XXVIII (March, 1963), pp. 284-289. The procedure used by Lehman rests on the assumption that the nonrespondents will tend to be more like the late returns than the early ones. It serves to suggest the nature of the nonrespondents in such a way as to indicate what effect they would have on the analysis if they had returned their forms. An analysis of the table in Appendix B indicates that a complete response would not have significantly altered the results of the first part of the study. See also R. F. Larson and W. R. Catton, Jr., "Can the Mail-Back Bias Contribute to a Study's Validity?", American Sociological Review, XXIV (March, 1959), pp. 243-245; Joseph Kivlin, "Contributions to the Study of Mail-Back Bias," Rural Sociology, XXX (September, 1965), pp. 322-326; and Kent P. Schwirian and Harry R. Blaine, "Questionnaire Return Bias and the Study of Blue-Collar Workers," Public Opinion Quarterly, XXX (Winter, 1966-67), pp. 656-663.

It will be noted that the above hypotheses are subsequently followed by a statement of the expected direction of the association. It is therefore desirable to test the null hypothesis using the one-tailed test of no association.[37] Since it is necessary to establish a criterion for acceptance or rejection of the hypotheses, the .05 level of significance will be used.

E. Organization of the Study

This chapter has presented the problem to be studied, the significance and scope of the study, and the methodology and specific hypotheses. Chapter II will present a brief description and history of the Grange. Chapter III will discuss the characteristics of the sample population. Chapter IV will give the results obtained. Chapter V will summarize and discuss the findings, and present limitations of the study.

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[37]Hubert M. Blalock, Jr., Social Statistics (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1960), 218.

CHAPTER II

BACKGROUND DISCUSSION: A BRIEF TOPICAL HISTORY OF THE GRANGE

A. Introduction

This chapter is devoted to a brief topical history of the National, Michigan State, and Michigan Subordinate Granges.[1] The topics to be discussed are the following: (1) the origin of the Grange, (2) causes for the rapid membership expansion of the Grange, (3) development of the Grange in Michigan, (4) selected instrumental activities of the National and Michigan State Granges, and (5) selected expressive activities of Subordinate Granges.

B. The Origin of the Grange

Voluntary agricultural associations, both state and local, have existed in different parts of the United States since the latter part of the eighteenth century.[2] Their influence, however, was slight prior to the Civil War

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[1]The histories of the National and Michigan State Granges " . . . have been parallel in many ways." See Fred Trump, The Grange in Michigan (Grand Rapids, Mich.: The Dean-Hicks Co., 1963), v.

[2]Solon Justus Buck, The Granger Movement: A Study of Agricultural Organization and Its Political, Economic, and Social Manifestations (Lincoln, Nebraska: University of Nebraska Press, 1913), 40.

and was generally limited to wealthy farmers such as the large planters in the South.[3] The years following the close of the war witnessed the rise and rapid development and often decline of a large number of agricultural organizations and associations some of which have produced " . . . considerable influence on the progress of the farming population and on the economy and social development of the country as a whole."[4]

The first of these associations to be organized on a national level was the Order of the Patrons of Husbandry. The organization was established in Washington, D. C., in 1867.

Although the later rapid development of the Grange, as it is commonly called, was due principally to economic and political factors which made the organization's instrumental activities particularly attractive,[5] the iniital inception of the association came from Oliver Hudson Kelley who was at the time a member of the small staff of the newly-created Department of Agriculture.

After the Civil War, the farmers in the country, and particularly those in the South, were undergoing at least relatively severe losses and hardships. Because of their

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[3] Ibid.

[4] Ibid.

[5] Ibid., pp. 3-39.

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

circumstances, President Andrew Johnson authorized, in 1866, the Commissioner of Agriculture to send an individual into the South to procure " . . . statistical and other information from those states."[7]

Kelley was selected for this assignment. On his trip through the South, which lasted three months, he was " . . . struck by the lack of progressive spirit among the agricultural classes. A mason, and appreciative of the benefits of fraternity, he came to the conclusion that a national secret order of farmers was needed for the furthering of the industrial reconstruction of the South and the advancement of the agricultural class throughout the country."[8]

When he returned to Washington, Kelley expressed his ideas to some of his friends in government service, and enlisted their support. Among these individuals were William Saunders, J. R. Thompson, William Ireland, A. B. Grosh, and John Trimble. F. M. McDowell, a farmer from Wayne, New York, also became a member of the "Founders". These seven men established a ritual similar to that of the Masonic Order, framed a constitution, and met on December 4, 1867, to organize themselves as the National Grange of the Patrons of Husbandry. Membership in the organization was to be

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[7]Solon Justus Buck, The Agrarian Crusade: A Chronicle of the Farmer in Politics (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1921), 1.

[8]Buck, The Granger Movement, 41.

confined to persons, either male or female, " . . . engaged in agricultural pursuits."[9]

The organizational structure adopted included seven "degrees" of membership, four to be given by the Subordinate Grange, one by the State Grange, and the highest two by the National Grange. The four subordinate degrees for men were Laborer, Cultivator, Harvester, and Husbandmen; while the parallel degrees for women were Maid, Shepherdess, Gleaner, and Matron. The state grange was to present the fifth degree, Pomona (Hope), on subordinate grange masters and past masters and their wives. The National Grange could confer the sixth degree, Flora (Charity), on masters and past masters of state granges and their wives which would qualify the persons receiving the degree to serve on the National Council. After serving for one year on the Council, which is a general policy-making body, the member could then receive the seventh degree, Ceres (Faith), and become a member of the Senate. This latter body oversees the ritual of the organization.

The organizational plan during the first few years was to get a few active subordinate granges established and then organize temporary state granges. Charters were to be issued for subordinate granges only when at least nine men and four women were pledged as members. The number

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[9]Edward W. Martin, History of the Grange Movement (San Francisco: National Publishing Co., 1873), 422, and Trump, op. cit., 12. The membership requirements have been liberalized and now include " . . . persons interested in agriculture." See Trump, op. cit., 254.

of charter members was limited to thirty of whom ten must be women.[10]

Kelley resigned his position in the Department of Agriculture and left Washington on April 3, 1868, to begin to establish subordinate granges. Kelley, who continued to be the major impetus for the organization for several months, organized the first subordinate grange, Fredonia Grange, Number One, in western New York on April 16, 1868. He later moved to the Middle West and very slowly made progress. The first state grange to be established was that of Minnesota on February 23, 1869. Then came the Iowa State Grange on January 12, 1871. The Michigan State Grange was not organized until April 15, 1873.

Before the end of 1872, more than a thousand subordinate granges, distributed among more than one-half of the states, had been organized. During the month of December, 1873, more than 1,200 subordinate granges were established. The highest subordinate organization month was February, 1874, when 2,239 subordinate units of the association were formed. By 1875, the Grange was established on a state basis in thirty-six of the then thirty-nine states, and its paid-up membership was over 850,000.[11]

C. Causes of the Rapid Expansion of the Grange

Agrarian movements expressing discontent have

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[10]Buck, op. cit., 48.

[11]The Grange Blue Book (Washington, D. C.: The National Grange, n.d.), pp. 24-25.

been of frequent occurence for diverse reasons.[12] Causes usually mentioned are categorically economic, political, social, and intellectual.[13]

It has generally been assumed that periods of agricultural dissatisfaction are preceded or caused by economic depressions in the agricultural population. Investigations into the causes of the English peasants' revolt of 1381 and the Peasants' War in Germany in 1524 and 1525 have shown, however, that the status of the farmer or peasant was, in both cases, gradually improving.[14] Similarly, the conditions of farmers in the United States following the Civil War were not retrogressive. They did, however, feel an economic and social discrepancy. "The farmers believed that they were not advancing so rapidly as the other classes of American society, and it was useless to point out to them that they lived much better and enjoyed far more comforts than their grandfathers had, or to tell them that their financial embarrassments were due to extravagant desires. The fact was, their standard of living was advancing nearly, if not quite, as rapidly as that of other ranks of society, while their

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[12]Buck, op. cit., 3.

[13]W. A. Anderson, "The Granger Movement," Iowa Journal of History and Politics, XXII (January, 1924), 9. John D. Hicks, The Populist Revolt: A History of the Farmers' Alliance and the People's Party (Lincoln, Nebraska: University of Nebraska Press, 1961), 2. Buck, op. cit., 3.

[14]Buck, loc. cit. Hicks, op. cit., pp. 54-55.

incomes were not increasing in the same proportion."[15] They also felt that their relative social position had been lowered because " . . . the tilling of the soil, formerly considered one of the highest of occupations, had come to be looked upon as a pursuit suitable only to those who were not equipped for anything else."[16] They further believed that they possessed little political influence due primarily to their " . . . lack of knowledge of simple economic principles and their application to the politico-economic problems . . . . " which concerned them.[17] Contemporary examples provided the idea of organization and cooperation for mutual advantage. Manufacturers, merchants, bankers, brokers, and laborers were organized into stock companies, commercial organizations, stock-exchanges and clearing houses, and trade unions.[18]

A few years after the Grange had been organized, the locus of its attractiveness to farmers became its increasing interest in diminishing perceived railroad monopolies and high profits received by commodity middlemen. The prosperity of the farmer depended not only on his ability to produce crops for the market but also on his capacity to send his crops to the consumer cheaply. To

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[15]Buck, op. cit., 3.

[16]Ibid., 37.

[17]Ibid., 38.

[18]Ibid.

facilitate distribution, two things were required: a reduction in the cost of (1) transportation, and (2) marketing by middlemen.[19] These requirements, however, were not being met satisfactorily. Shipping rates continued to be high and discriminatory,[20] while dividends on stocks purchased by the farmers, who frequently paid for them by mortgaging their farms, to support the railroad companies did not materialize.[21] At the same time that farmers were receiving relatively low prices for their products, it appeared that middlemen, such as millers and grain merchants, were making sizable profits.[22] It was due to the activities of the organization in these two areas, with the possible addition of purchasing cooperation, that the Grange was perceived by farmers as potentially beneficial to them.[23]

D. The Development of the Grange in Michigan

The first subordinate grange organized in Michigan was Burnside Grange, Number One, in Lapeer County on January 10, 1872. Mr. Edwin M. Jones of Perry, Iowa, who was visiting relatives in eastern Lapeer County, obtained a special deputy's commission from the National Grange with which to establish the subordinate.[24] Before the

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[19] Ibid., 9.

[20] Ibid., 294. Anderson, op. cit., 5.

[21] Buck, op. cit., 10.

[22] Martin, op. cit., pp. 294-295.

[23] Buck, op. cit., 9.

[24] Trump, op. cit., 6.

end of the year, nine additional subordinates were established as follows: four in Kalamazoo County, and one each in Jackson, Livingston, Ingham, Berrien, and Van Buren counties.[25] In March and April of 1873, ten additional granges received their charters and on April 15, 1873, the Michigan State Grange was organized in Muskegon.

The first annual session of the Michigan State Grange was held at Kalamazoo, January 21-23, 1874, with 800 persons present representing 216 subordinate granges.[26] By the end of 1874, a total of 31,189 persons had joined the Grange in Michigan.[27] The highest point in membership for several years was reached in September, 1876, and was 33,786.[28] At that time there were 496 subordinate granges in the state.[29]

A combination of factors, but primarily dissatisfaction with the economic and political successes of the organization, produced a rapid decline in membership, both nationally and within the state of Michigan.[30] There were only 13,939 members in Michigan in 1880,[31] and by 1895

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[25] Ibid., 7.

[26] Ibid., 8.

[27] Ibid., 14.

[28] Ibid., 18.

[29] Anderson, op. cit., 15.

[30] Buck, op. cit., pp. 69-73. Trump, op. cit., pp. 39-56.

[31] Trump, op. cit., 25.

this had dropped to 7,507 members.[32] Gradually, however, as a redefinition of the organization took place, the membership began to rise.[33] In 1898, there were 9,517 members in 256 subordinates;[34] and in 1901, about 26,000 members in 476 subordinates;[35] and in 1902, 33,476 members in 545 subordinates.[36] By December, 1904, when the thirty-second session of the Michigan State Grange was held in Lansing, membership in the Grange in Michigan had grown to 44,101, or more than six times what it had been in 1895.[37]

In 1912, the membership in Michigan reached its highest peak of 52,836 members in 850 subordinates. It was soon to again decline due to various factors, but primarily because of an increased selection of leisure activities and mobility, and a substantially reduced rural-farm population.[38] In 1952, members of the Grange in Michigan numbered 28,694, while, in 1962, they totalled only 15,169.[39] The decrease in membership in a decade was nearly one-half (46.8 percent).

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[32] Ibid., 54.

[33] Ibid., pp. 57-77.

[34] Ibid., 63.

[35] Ibid., 69.

[36] Ibid., 71.

[37] Ibid., 74.

[38] Ibid., 93.

[39] Robert Eastman, et al., Preliminary Report to the National Grange Special Study Committee on Grange Structure and Programs (Washington, D. C.: The National Grange, 1963), 8.

E. Selected Instrumental Activities of the National and Michigan State Granges

Although the original intent of the founders of the Grange appears to have been that the benefits of the organization to its members would be primarily social and educational, it became apparent very soon that " . . . the desire for political and financial advantages would prove a far greater incentive to induce farmers to join."[40] By April, 1871, according to Oliver Kelley, " . . . 'Down with Monopolies' and 'Cooperation' were proving popular watch-words."[41] This led early to two forms of activity, political and cooperative, which have " . . . left an indelible stamp upon the order."[42]

By "political" activities we essentially mean interests or programs agreed upon by policy-making bodies at various organizational levels of the Grange.[43] Selected interests of the National Grange and the year of their initiation are the following:[44] (1) regulation and control of transportation companies (1872); (2) extension and control of Land Grant colleges (1872); (3) establishment of an

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[40] Buck, op. cit., 52.

[41] Oliver Hudson Kelley, Origin and Progress of the Patrons of Husbandry in the United States (Philadelphia: By the author, 1875), pp. 256-259.

[42] Buck, op. cit., 52.

[43] Charles M. Gardner, The Grange: Friend of the Farmer (Washington, D. C.: The National Grange, 1949), pp. 93-101.

[44] Ibid., pp. 102-188.

extension service, and agricultural and vocational education (1878); (4) the establishment of agricultural experiment stations (1880); (5) pure food and drug regulation (1881); (6) parcel post (1887); (7) improved credit facilities for farmers (1891); (8) rural free delivery of mail (1893); (9) the establishment of a Bureau of Public Roads and the construction of better highways (1903); (10) soil and forest conservation (1914); (11) "Truth-in-Fabrics" legislation (1915); (12) rural electrification (1930); (13) federal crop insurance (1938); and (14) the modernization of parity (1941).

Selected interests of the Michigan State Grange and the year of their initiation are the following:[45] (1) the regulation of railroads (1872); (2) stronger support for the Michigan Agricultural College (1872); (3) prohibition from the drinking of alcoholic beverages (1874); (4) the broadening of the tax base (1875); (5) the admission of women to Michigan Agricultural College (1877); (6) the construction of a canal from Lake Michigan to Lake Erie via the Kalamazoo River (1877); (7) the establishment of an experimental farm (1879); (8) the construction of a dormitory for women at Michigan Agricultural College (1880); (9) the establishment of state normal colleges (1880); (10) the establishment of libraries to assist in the rehabilitation of prisoners (1880); (11) the enactment of pure food and drug legislation (1892); (12) women's

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[45]Trump. op. cit., pp. 12-232.

suffrage (1892); (13) the construction of better roads (1892); (14) rural free delivery of mail (1897); (15) the reforestation of cut-over lands in northern Michigan (1905); (16) "Truth-in-Fabrics" legislation (1922); (17) the establishment of game refuges (1930); (18) sales promotion of Michigan farm products during the annual Michigan Week (1940); (19) the regulation of livestock auction markets (1944); (20) the regulation of motorboat operation (1951); (21) the establishment of a maximum highway speed (1953); (22) annual required physical and driving examinations for school bus drivers (1954); (23) a uniform vehicle code (1956); and (24) the expansion of state and national parks (1961).

Cooperation in buying and selling by Grange members has been essentially organized on a state or subordinate level although the National Grange has supported a mail order catalogue company; cooperative purchasing of such items as sewing machines, plows, cultivators, and grain separators; and fire and life insurance.[46]

Selected cooperative activities of the Michigan State Grange and the year of their initiation are as follows:[47] (1) cooperative stores selling groceries and farm machinery (1874); (2) cooperative purchasing of agricultural lime from a plaster company in Grand Rapids (1875); (3) cooperative selling of wool (1881); (4) cooperative flour

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[46]Gardner, op. cit., pp. 312-328.

[47]Trump, op. cit., 12-232.

mills (1888); (5) fire and life insurance (1897); (6) co-operative purchasing of binder twine, phosphates, salt, lumber, nails, wire fence, furniture, stoves, and clothing (before 1902); and (7) the cooperative selling of livestock (1919). Since 1923, the cooperative activities of Grange members in Michigan have largely been limited to the establishment of contracts with manufacturing concerns, support given to various commodity organizations, and fire and life insurance.[48] The emphasis has been placed upon the later, Grange-sponsored insurance.[49]

F. Selected Expressive Activities of Subordinate Granges

Although instrumental activities received the largest amount of attention during the early years of the organization, there is general agreement that the subordinate granges are currently emphasizing expressive activities.[50] The regular monthly or semi-monthly meetings stress activities such as musical entertainment,

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[48] Ibid., 133.

[49] Interview with Fred Trump, August 16, 1965.

[50] David E. Lindstrom, "Interest Group Relations and Functions in Rural Society," Rural Sociology, XXVI (September, 1961), pp. 252-265. Charles P. Loomis and J. Allan Beegle, Rural Social Systems (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950), pp. 629-631. Dwight Sanderson, Rural Sociology and Rural Social Organization (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1942), 512. Charles Russell Hoffer, Introduction to Rural Sociology (New York: Farrar and Rinehart, inc., 1934), pp. 85, 148. Lowry Nelson, Rural Sociology (New York: The American Book Company, 1952), 431. Carl Taylor, et al., Rural Life in the United States (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1955), pp. 195.

games, ritualistic proceedings, general discussion, plays and skits which are of general interest to family groups and older adults.[51] Festivals, suppers, picnics, and dances are also frequent although there has been a substantial decrease in the latter which is provided now by other community organizations.

This chapter has presented a brief topical history of the Grange. Chapter III will provide a demographic and Grange-related description of the study population.

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[51]Buck, op. cit., 280. Gardner, op. cit., pp. 222-230.

CHAPTER III

A DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY POPULATION

A. Introduction

This chapter presents a description of the study population, comparing it in some cases with the 1960 rural-farm population of Michigan. The chapter is organized into two parts: (1) a demographic description, and (2) a description of the Grange-related characteristics of the study population. The latter will include (1) frequency of Subordinate meetings, (2) frequency of attendance to Subordinate meetings, (3) the importance of the Subordinate, and (4) the orientation (expressive or instrumental) of the respondent to the Subordinate.

B. Demographic Characteristics of the Study Population

Table 1 deals with the distribution of the respondents (77 employed persons did not answer the relevant questions) by major occupational groupings. (See page 30.) Members who are farmers, as we might expect, compose the largest occupational category of the study population (41.7 percent). Nearly two-fifths (38.9 percent) of the members have manual non-farming occupations, while one-fifth(19.4 percent)have non-manual occupations.

Table 1. Distribution of Grange Members by Major Occupational Groupings.

Occupation	Number	Percent
Farming	75	41.7
Manual Non-Farming	70	38.9
Non-Manual	35	19.4
Total	180	100.0

Table 2 presents a detailed distribution by occupations of the study population and male employed Michigan rural-farm persons in 1960. The members of the Grange generally have higher status occupations than Michigan rural-farm males. One-fifth (19.4 percent) of Grange members have non-manual occupations as compared with one-eighth (12.1 percent) of the rural-farm population. There are no farm laborers in the study population, while one-tenth (9.7 percent) of rural-farm males had such occupations in 1960.

Table 2. Detailed Distribution by Occupation of Grange Members as Compared to 1960 Male Employed Michigan Rural-Farm Population.

Occupation	Number (Grange)	Percent Grange	Percent Mich. RF
Farmers, Farm Managers, and Foremen	75	41.7	41.4
Farm Laborers	--	----	9.7
Farming Total	75	41.7	51.1
Craftsmen, Foremen, and Kindred Workers	33	18.3	12.1
Operatives and Kindred Workers	30	16.7	18.5
Private Household	--	----	0.1
Service Workers	6	3.3	2.0
Laborers, except Farm and Mine	1	0.6	4.1
Manual Non-Farm Total	70	38.9	36.8
Professional, Technical, and Kindred Workers	10	5.5	2.3
Managers, Officials, and Proprietors (except farm)	12	6.7	3.0
Clerical and Kindred Workers	5	2.8	2.4
Sales Workers	8	4.4	1.7
Non-Manual Total	35	19.4	12.1
Totals	180	100.0	100.0

Source: U.S. Census of Population, 1960, PC(1) 24C, Michigan, Table 57, p. 199.

Table 3 presents information on the direction of occupational change of Michigan Grange members. Slightly more than two fifths (43.7 percent) made no change in their occupation (either farm or non-farm), while a majority

(56.3 percent) of the members did change occupations at least once between 1945 and August, 1964. Two-thirds (68.4 percent) of the members have either remained farmers throughout the nineteen year period (1945 to 1964), or started as farmers in 1945 and then changed to a non-farm occupation during or before 1955 and remained in it until 1964. Only one-seventh (16.1 percent) of the members have remained in non-farm occupations throughout the nineteen year period.

Table 3. Distribution by Direction of Occupational Change.

Direction of Occupational Change	Number	Percent
No Change: Farm	49	27.3
Non-farm in 1945, farm in 1955, 1964	22	12.2
Farm in 1945, 1964, non-farm in 1955	4	2.2
Total Farm or toward Farm	75	41.7
No Change: Non-Farm	29	16.1
Farm in 1945, non-farm in 1955, 1964	74	41.1
Non-farm in 1945,1964, farm in 1955	2	1.1
Total Non-Farm or toward Non-Farm	105	58.3
Total	180	100.0

Table 4 deals with the employment status of the study population. The major proportion (75.6 percent) of the respondents are employed, while only one-fourth (24.4 percent) are retired.

Table 4. Distribution by Employment Status.

Employment Status	Number	Percent
Retired	58	24.4
Employed	180	75.6
Total	238	100.0

Table 5 presents a distribution of the study population by the occupation of their fathers. A large proportion (77.5 percent) of the fathers of the members had farming occupations. This proportion is almost twice as large as that representing members who currently have farming occupations. One-seventh (14.8 percent) of the members' fathers had manual non-farming occupations, while a small proportion (7.7 percent) were employed in non-manual positions.

Table 5. Distribution by Occupation of Member's Father.

Father's Occupation	Number	Percent
Farming	231	77.5
Manual Non-Farming	44	14.8
Non-Manual	23	7.7
Total	298	100.0

Table 6 provides a distribution of the study population by broad age groupings. Four-fifths (81.3 percent) of the members are forty-five years of age or older while nearly one-half (47.0 percent) are sixty-five years of age or older.

Table 6. Distribution by Broad Age Groups.

Broad Age Group	Number	Percent
15 to 44 Years	59	18.7
45 to 64 Years	108	34.3
65+ Years	148	47.0
Total	315	100.0

Table 7 presents a more detailed distribution of the study population by age and compares it with the 1960 Michigan rural-farm population fifteen years of age

or over. The organization this thesis studies appears to be selective of persons who are older in age as the study population is substantially older than the 1960 Michigan rural-farm population. While a large proportion (47.0 percent) of the subordinate grange members are sixty-five years of age or older, only one-sixth (16.1 percent) of Michigan rural-farm persons are this old.

Table 7. Detailed Distribution by Age of Grange Members as Compared to 1960 Michigan Rural-Farm Population Fifteen Years of Age and Older.

Age Group	Number (Grange)	Percent	
		Grange	Mich. RF
15 to 24 Years	13	4.1	19.7
25 to 34 Years	18	5.7	12.1
35 to 44 Years	28	8.9	18.3
45 to 54 Years	49	15.6	18.6
55 to 64 Years	59	18.8	15.2
65 to 74 Years	96	30.5	11.1
75+ Years	52	16.5	5.0
Total	315	100.0	100.0

Source: U.S. Census of Population, 1960, PC(1) 24B, Michigan, Table 16, pp. 41-44.

Table 8 presents a distribution of subordinate grange members by level of educational achievement obtained. The data reveals that approximately one-third (32.8 percent) of the members have had eight years or less of grade school education while nearly one-half

(46.0 percent) have had at least some high school training and more than one-fifth (21.2 percent) have attended college.

Table 8. Distribution by Level of Educational Achievement.

Level of Educational Achievement	Number	Percent
Eight Years or Less	102	32.8
One to Four Years High School	143	46.0
One Year or More of College	66	21.2
Total	311	100.0

Table 9 provides a more detailed distribution of the members by level of educational achievement and compares it with the 1960 Michigan rural-farm population fifteen years of age and older. The subordinate members have a higher level of educational achievement than the Michigan rural-farm population. While two-thirds (67.2 percent) of the Grange members have had at least some high school training only one-half (49.8 percent) of Michigan rural-farm persons had obtained that level of education in 1960. The proportion (21.2 percent) of Grange members completing at least one year of college was nearly three times as much as that of the rural farm population (7.2 percent).

Table 9. Detailed Distribution by Level of Educational Achievement of Grange Members as Compared to 1960 Michigan Rural-Farm Population Twenty-Five Years of Age and Older.

Level Of Educational Achievement	Number (Grange)	Percent Grange	Percent Mich RF
Four Years or Less	1	0.3	5.3
Five to Six Years	5	1.6	5.7
Seven Years	12	3.9	7.1
Eight Years	84	27.0	32.1
One to Three Years High School	53	17.0	17.1
Four Years High School	90	29 0	23.5
One to Three Years College	45	14.4	6.5
Four Years or More College	21	6.8	2.7
Total	311	100.0	100.0

Source: U.S. Census of Population, 1960, PC (1) 24C, Michigan, Table 47, p. 191.

Table 10 shows that a majority of the study population are male. This, of course, was expected as the cover letter sent with the questionnaire requested that the form be completed by the head of the household if he or she was a Grange member. Although this distribution may differ slightly from that of the sex distribution at Grange meetings, the variation will have a small and insignificant effect on our analysis. (An investigation of the relationship between sex and frequency of attendence, and sex and type of orientation to the subordinate

was made to determine the effect of sex on the preceeding primary thesis variables. The investigation suggests that the effect is inconsequential).

Table 10. Distribution of Grange Members by Sex.

Sex	Number	Percent
Male	184	58.8
Female	129	41.2
Total	313	100.0

Table 11 presents a distribution of subordinate grange members by marital status. The data reveals that a large proportion (71.6 percent) of Grange members are married while more than one-fifth (21.4 percent) are widowed. A "separated" marital status option was provided in the questionnaire but was not used by the respondents.

Table 11. Distribution by Marital Status.

Marital Status	Number	Percent
Single	17	5.4
Married	224	71.6
Divorced	5	1.6
Widowed	67	21.4
Total	313	100.0

Table 12 provides a distribution of members by the state in which they were born. This variable is used as an index of mobility. The data reveals that only one-fifth (21.3 percent) of the members have moved from the "state" in which they were born.

Table 12. Distribution by State in Which Born.

State in Which Born	Number	Percent
Michigan	248	78.7
Adjacent States*	27	8.6
All Other States	33	10.5
Foreign -Born	7	2.2
Total	315	100.0

* Ohio, Indiana, and Wisconsin.

Table 13 provides an apportionment of the members by location of present residence. As expected, a large proportion (82.9 percent) of subordinate members currently reside in rural areas, while only one-sixth (17.1 percent) are presently living in urban areas.

Table 13. Distribution by Present Residence.

Present Residence	Number	Percent
On Farm	171	54.3
Open Country but not Farm	45	14.3
Village under 2500	45	14.3
Rural Total	261	82.9
City of 2500-9999	25	7.9
City of 10,000-49,999	20	6.3
City of 50,000+	9	2.9
Urban Total	54	17.1
Total	315	100.0

Table 14 presents the dispersion of the members by location of residence where raised. Although similar proportions of the members were raised in rural areas as presently live in them, a larger proportion (73.0 percent) of the members were raised on farms than currently reside on them (54.3 percent).

Table 14. Distribution by Residence Where Raised.

Residence Where Raised	Number	Percent
On Farm	230	73.0
Open Country but not Farm	21	6.7
Village under 2500	18	5.7
Rural Total	269	85.4
City of 2500-9999	15	4.8
City of 10,000-49,999	15	4.8
City of 50,000+	16	5.0
Urban Total	46	14.6
Total	315	100.0

Table 15 provides information on the types of communities in which the members have lived. A majority (55.2 percent) of subordinate members have resided only in rural areas.

Table 15. Distribution by Types of Communities in Which Lived.

Types of Communities	Number	Percent
Rural Only	174	55.2
All Others	141	44.8
Total	315	100.0

Table 16 presents a distribution of the subordinate members by the distance they reside from the nearest SMSA. The table indicates that nearly one-half (45.4 percent) of Grange members reside either in an SMSA or within twenty-five miles of one. One-sixth (17.2 percent) of the members live seventy-five or more miles from the nearest SMSA.

Table 16. Distribution by Distance from the Nearest Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area.

Distance	Number	Percent
Lives in SMSA	9	2.9
Less Than 25 Miles	134	42.5
Total Less Than 25 Miles	142	45.4
25 to 49 Miles	90	28.6
50 to 74 Miles	28	8.9
Total 25 to 74 Miles	118	37.4
75 to 100 Miles	6	1.9
100+ Miles	48	15.2
Total 75+ Miles	54	17.2
Total	315	100.0

C. Grange-Related Characteristics of the Study Population

Table 17 presents a distribution of the members of the subordinate granges in Michigan by the frequency of the subordinate meetings. The meetings are generally (78.8 percent of the time) held twice a month, for example, on the first and third Tuesdays. An investigation of the relationship between frequency of subordinate meetings and both type of orientation and frequency of attendance to the subordinate determined that the variation of frequency of subordinate meetings will have an insignificant effect on the results of the study.

Table 17. Distribution by Frequency of Subordinate Meetings.

Frequency of Subordinate Meetings	Number	Percent
Once per Month	82	27.2
Twice per Month	219	78.8
Total	301	100.0

Table 18 provides the dispersion of subordinate members by the frequency with which they attend the meetings of their subordinate. More than one-half (54.3 percent) of the members are "high attenders", while one-third (31.4 percent) are "low attenders", and only one-seventh (14.3 percent) do not attend at all.

Table 18. Distribution by Frequency of Attendance at Subordinate Meetings.

Frequency of Attendance	Number	Percent
All of the Time	76	24.1
Most of the Time	95	30.2
"High Attenders"	171	54.3
Half of the Time	25	7.9
Some of the Time	74	23.5
"Low Attenders"	99	31.4
None of the Time ("Non-Attenders")	45	14.3
Total	315	100.0

Table 19 presents the distribution of the Grange members by their answer to the question "How important is the Grange to you?" (See Appendix A, question eleven). The data in Table 19 suggests to us that members generally feel that their subordinate is important to them. A large proportion (75.3 percent) of the members consider their subordinate grange either very or fairly important, while only one-twelth (7.7 percent) feel that the Grange is unimportant to them. A large number (17.0 percent) of the respondents chose the option of "neither important nor unimportant" to express the significance of the subordinate to them.

Table 19. Distribution by the Importance of the Grange to the Member.

Importance of the Subordinate Grange to the Member	Number	Percent
Very Important	77	24.8
Fairly Important	157	50.5
Neither Important nor Unimportant	53	17.0
Fairly Unimportant	9	2.9
Very Unimportant	15	4.8
Total	311	100.0

Table 20 presents an apportionment of the members by the categorical reason they belong to the Grange. As expected, a large proportion (81.9 percent) of persons belong to the Grange for expressive reasons (see pages 46-48 for representative rationales given), while less than one-fifth (18.1 percent) affilitate for instrumental reasons.

Table 20. Distribution by Reason for Belonging to the Grange.

Reason for Belonging	Number	Percent
Expressive	258	81.9
Instrumental	57	18.1
Total	315	100.0

Table 21 presents a more detailed distribution of subordinate members by the reasons for which they belong to the Grange.

Table 21. Detailed Distribution by Reason for Belonging to the Grange.

Reason for Belonging	Number	Percent
Expressive	172	54.6
Predominately Expressive, also mentioned Educational	66	21.0
Predominately Expressive, also mentioned Economic	20	6.3
Total Expressive or Predominately Expressive	258	81.9
Normative	6	1.9
Educational	16	5.1
Economic	6	1.9
Educational and Economic	29	9.2
Total Instrumental	57	18.1
Total	315	100.0

The following are representative of the member rationales which were placed in each of the seven categories of orientation type:

Expressive: "I enjoy the fellowship with kindred souls."
"I enjoy meeting these people I've known all my life."
"Fellowship with other people in the community."
"People are so friendly and we have a good time."

"Mostly because most of my friends belong."
"Family participation."
"We like the people in it as most are old friends."
"It provides a chance for fellowship with other people and an opportunity to get out from the house."

Predominately expressive, also mentioned educational: "Fellowship, education."
"For its socialability, its educational value."
"Companionship of neighbors and friends and educational part of program."
"The fellowship of others, information."

Predominately expressive, also mentioned economic: "Social and for insurance."
"Participation and insurance."
"Enjoy the fellowship of the meetings and members, insurance."

Normative: "For the good of the nation."
"Because I like what the Grange stands for and feel they do a lot of good in the community."
"I like to work for other peoples' comfort, etc."
"I like very much the moral structure of the Grange ritualistic work because it goes along with what I believe."

Educational: "Because it's educational."
"Discussion on local affairs."
"Good programs. Interesting discussions of local projects."

Ecomonic: "Insurance."
"Farm contacts for business reasons."
"Part of my work to improve rural representation."

Educational and economic:	"To keep informed on farmers' affairs and insurance."
	"To discuss farm problems. Insurance."
	"Educational and farm reasons. Also insurance."

By way of summation, the "typical Subordinate Grange member" may be characterized as follows: He is employed in a manual occupation which like his father's is usually farming, is fifty-five years of age or older, married, and has had at least one year of high school education. He was born in Michigan, raised on a farm, has lived only in rural areas, and currently resides on a farm which is within fifty miles of a Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area. He belongs to his Subordinate Grange for expressive reasons, considers the organization important to him, and attends at least most of the time.

This chapter has presented a demographic and Grange-related description of the study population. The next chapter (Chapter IV) will test the hypotheses and analyze the data.

CHAPTER IV

TEST OF THE HYPOTHESES AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

A. Introduction

This chapter is devoted to testing hypotheses dealing with the relationship between type of member orientation to the Subordinate Grange and selected membership characteristics including participation frequency. Type of orientation is viewed with one exception (Hypothesis I) as the dependent variable, while Grange membership variables such as occupation, age, level of educational achievement, and residence are viewed as independent variables. The hypotheses presented in Chapter I will be tested utilizing data from the sample of the membership of the Subordinate Granges in Michigan.

B. Test of the Hypotheses and Analysis of the Data

Hypothesis I: Frequency of attendance is related to type of orientation. Specifically, members who are expressively oriented will attend more frequently than those who are instrumentally oriented.

It was noted earlier that participation in an organization might be related to the orientation of the member to that organization. We may then test the null hypothesis of no relationship between frequency of attendance and type of

orientation to the Subordinate. Such a test yields a chi-square value significant beyond the .001 level. An inspection of the data (see Table 22) reveals that it conforms to the hypothesized expectations. Almost two-thirds (63.9 percent) of expressively oriented members are high attenders while only one-tenth (10.5 percent) of instrumentally oriented members attend that frequently. Likewise, while only one-tenth (10.5 percent) of expressive members are non-attenders, more than three times that proportion (31.6 percent) of instrumental members do not attend any meetings of the subordinate.

Table 22. Frequency of Attendance, by Type of Orientation.

Type of Orientation	High Attendance		Low Attendance		Non-Attendance		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Expressive	165	63.9	66	25.6	27	10.5	258	100.0
Instrumental	6	10.5	33	57.9	18	31.6	57	100.0
Total	171		99		45		315	

$X^2 = 54.627$; df = 2; $p<.001$.

Hypothesis II: Type of orientation is related to occupation. Members who have farming occupations will tend to be more expressively oriented than those who have non-manual occupations.

A test of the hypothesis yielded a chi-square value which was significant beyond the .001 level. The hypothesized relationship between orientation type and occupation is also supported by the data (see Table 23). While a large proportion (86.7 percent) of members who are farmers have an expressive orientation to the Grange, a majority (62.9 percent) of members who have non-manual occupations have an instrumental orientation to the subordinate. Somewhat more than two-thirds (72.9 percent) of members who have manual non-farming occupations have an expressive orientation.

Table 23. Type of Orientation, by Occupation.

Occupation of Respondent	Expressive Orientation		Instrumental Orientation		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Farming	65	86.7	10	13.3	75	100.0
Manual Non-Farming	51	72.9	19	27.1	70	100.0
Non-Manual	13	37.1	22	62.9	35	100.0
Total	129		51		180	

$X^2 = 28.904$; df = 2; $p<.001$

Hypothesis III: Type of orientation is related to the occupation of the respondent's father. Members whose fathers had farming occupations will tend to be more expressively

oriented than those whose fathers had non-manual occupations.

The test of the hypothesis yielded a chi-square value which was beyond the .02 level of significance. An examination of the data (see Table 24) shows that it does concur with the expectations. Somewhat more than four-fifths (84.4 percent) of members whose fathers had farming occupations are expressively oriented to the Grange, while a smaller proportion (61.9 percent) of members whose fathers had non-manual occupations are similarly expressively oriented. Four-fifths (81.8 percent) of members whose fathers had manual non-farming occupations likewise have expressive orientations to the subordinate.

Table 24. Type of Orientation, by Occupation of Respondent's Father.

Occupation of Respondent's Father	Expressive Orientation		Instrumental Orientation		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Farming	195	84.4	36	15.6	231	100.0
Manual Non-Farming	36	81.8	8	18.2	44	100.0
Non-Manual	14	61.9	9	39.1	23	100.0
Total	245		53		298	

$X^2 = 7.937$; df = 2; $p<.02$.

Hypothesis IV: Type of orientation is related to employment status. Members who are retired will tend to be more expressively oriented than those who are employed.

The test of the hypothesis that a significant difference in type of orientation exists when retired members are compared with employed members produced a chi-square value which was significant beyond the .001 level (see Table 25). An inspection of the data reveals that it does conform to the hypothesized expectations. Each of the retired members has an expressive orientation, while more than two-thirds (71.7 percent) of the employed respondents are similarly oriented to the subordinate.

Table 25. Type of Orientation, by Employment Status.

Employment Status	Expressive Orientation		Instrumental Orientation		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Retired	58	100.0	--	---	58	100.0
Employed	129	71.7	51	28.3	180	100.0
Total	187		51		238	

$X^2 = 20.915$; df = 1; $p<.001$.

Hypothesis V: Type of orientation is related to age. The older a member is the more likely he will be expressively oriented.

The chi-square value obtained when the hypothesis of a relationship between orientation type and age is tested falls beyond the .001 level of significance (see Table 26). The hypothesized relationship between the variables is supported by the data. While somewhat more than one-half (55.9 percent) of members who are under forty-five years of age are expressively oriented, four-fifths (79.6 percent) of members forty-five to sixty-four, and an even larger proportion (93.9 percent) of members sixty-five or older are expressively oriented to the subordinate.

Table 26. Type of Orientation, by Age.

Age	Expressive Orientation		Instrumental Orientation		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
15 to 44 Years	33	55.9	26	44.1	59	100.1
45 to 64 Years	86	79.6	22	20.4	108	100.0
65 Years or Older	139	93.9	9	6.1	148	100.0
Total	258		57		315	

$X^2 = 41.645$; df = 2; $p<.001$.

Hypothesis VI: Type of orientation is related to level of educational achievement. The higher the level of education a member has obtained the more likely he will be

instrumentally oriented.

A test of the hypothesis yielded a value which was beyond the .001 level of significance. An investigation of the data indicates that it does conform to the hypothesized expectations (see Table 27). Almost all (97.1 percent) of the members who have had eight years of education or less are expressively oriented, while five-sixths (86.0 percent) of those who have had one to four years of high school, but less than one-half (48.5 percent) of those who have had one or more years of college are expressively oriented.

Table 27. Type of Orientation, by Level of Educational Achievement.

Level of Educational Achievement	Expressive Orientation		Instrumental Orientation		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Eight Years or Less	99	97.1	3	2.9	102	100.0
One to Four Years High School	123	86.0	20	14.0	143	100.0
One or More Years College	32	48.5	34	51.5	66	100.0
Total	254		57		311	

$X^2 = 66.496$; df = 2; $p < .001$.

Hypothesis VII: Type of orientation if related to present residence of member. Members who live in rural areas will tend to be more expressively oriented than those who live in urban areas.

A test of the hypothesis that a significant difference in type of orientation exists when members residing in rural areas are compared with those residing in urban areas yielded a chi-square value which was significant beyond the .001 level (see Table 28). An inspection of the data shows that it does conform to the expectations. While a large proportion (86.6 percent) of members living in rural areas are expressively oriented to the subordinate, a smaller proportion (59.3 percent) are similarly oriented.

Table 28. Type of Orientation, by Present Residence.

Present Residence	Expressive Orientation		Instrumental Orientation		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Rural	226	86.6	35	13.4	261	100.0
Urban	32	59.3	22	40.7	54	100.0
Total	258		57		315	

$X^2 = 22.550$; df = 1; $p<.001$.

Hypothesis VIII: Type of orientation is related to residence where raised. Members who were raised in rural areas will tend to be more expressively oriented than those who were raised in urban areas.

The chi-square value resulting from a test of the hypothesis suggests that the variables are statistically independent beyond the .01 level of significance. The expected relationship between the variables is supported by the data (see Table 29). While five-sixths (84.8 percent) of members who were raised in rural areas are expressively oriented, a smaller proportion (65.2 percent) of those who were raised in urban areas are expressively oriented to the subordinate.

Table 29. Type of Orientation, by Residence Where Raised.

Residence Where Raised	Expressive Orientation		Instrumental Orientation		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Rural	228	84.8	41	15.2	269	100.0
Urban	30	65.2	16	34.8	46	100.0
Total	258		57		315	

$X^2 = 10.121$; df = 1; $p<.01$.

Hypothesis IX: Type of orientation is related to types of communities in which lived. Members who have lived only in rural communities will tend to be more expressively oriented than those who were raised in urban areas.

A test of the hypothesis produced a chi-square value which was significant beyond the .001 level. An examination of the data reveals that it does concur with the expectations (see Table 30). A majority of members from each residence category are expressively oriented to the subordinate although members who have lived only in rural areas are more likely (88.5 percent) to have an expressive orientation than members who have lived in other types of communities (73.8 percent).

Table 30. Type of Orientation, by Types of Communities in Which Lived.

Types of Communities in Which Lived	Expressive Orientation		Instrumental Orientation		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Rural Only	154	88.5	20	11.5	174	100.0
All Others	104	73.8	37	26.2	141	100.0
Total	258		57		315	

$X^2 = 11.428$; df = 1; $p<.001$.

Hypothesis X: Type of orientation is related to distance from the nearest Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area. Members who live less than fifty miles from the nearest S.M.S.A. will tend to be more instrumentally oriented than those who live fifty miles or more from the nearest S.M.S.A.

The chi-square value resulting from the hypothesis suggests that the variables are not statistically independent. An investigation of the data, however, shows that they do concur with the expectations (see Table 31). One-fifth (19.7 percent) of members residing within fifty miles of an S.M.S.A. are instrumentally oriented, while a smaller proportion (15.3 percent) of members residing fifty miles or more from the nearest S.M.S.A. are instrumentally oriented.

Table 31. Type of Orientation, by Distance from the Nearest Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area.

Distance from the Nearest S.M.S.A.	Expressive Orientation		Instrumental Orientation		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Less Than 50 Miles	185	80.3	44	19.7	229	100.0
50 Miles or More	72	84.7	13	15.3	85	100.0
Total	257		57		314	

$X^2 = 2.521$; df = 1; $.20<p<.10$.

C. Summary of Decisions Concerning the Hypotheses

On the basis of the magnitude of the chi-square value of the accepted level of significance for the present research we would tentatively accept the following hypothesis with respect to frequency of participation in the Subordinate Grange: Respondents who are expressively oriented differ from those who are instrumentally oriented.

On the basis of the chi-square tests of significance we would tentatively accept the following hypotheses with respect to type of orientation to the Subordinate:

1. Respondents who have farming occupations differ from those who have non-manual occupations.

2. Respondents whose fathers had farming occupations differ from those whose fathers had non-manual occupations.

3. Respondents who are retired differ from those who are employed.

4. Respondents differ by age.

5. Respondents differ by level of educational achievement.

6. Respondents who reside in rural areas differ from those who reside in urban areas.

7. Respondents who were raised in rural areas differ from those who were raised in urban areas.

8. Respondents who have lived only in rural areas differ from those who have lived in other types of areas.

On the basis of the chi-square test of significance we would tentatively reject the following hypothesis with respect

to type of orientations to the Subordinate: Respondents differ by distance from the nearest Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area.

In the absence of any general theory by which to systematize the variables of the present study each of the predictions of specific relationships between the variables were still found to occur. The predictions of specific relationships between the following sets of variables which are listed as respectively dependent and independent were accepted on the basis of the findings:

1. Frequency of attendance and type of orientation.
2. Type of orientation and occupation.
3. Type of orientation and occupation of the respondent's father.
4. Type of orientation and employment status.
5. Type of orientation and age.
6. Type of orientation and level of educational achievement.
7. Type of orientation and present residence.
8. Type of orientation and residence where raised.
9. Type of orientation and types of communities in which lived.
10. Type of orientation and distance from the nearest Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area.

This chapter has presented the test of the hypotheses and analysis of the data. The objectives of Chapter V are to summarize the results, and present the limitations and conclusions of the study.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, LIMITATIONS, CONCLUSION

A. Introduction

The first section of this final chapter is devoted to a summary of the general findings of the study. The second is concerned with the limitations of the thesis. The final section briefly concludes the study.

B. The General Findings

The problem of the thesis has been twofold. The first part of the problem was to determine the influence of orientation type on Subordinate participation. The second part has as its purpose an exploration of the social characteristics associated with each orientation type. The problem was tested with an analysis of the responses of 315 Michigan Subordinate Grange members. The analysis revealed, with regard to the first part of the problem, that there is a significant difference in frequency of Subordinate participation between expressively oriented and instrumentally oriented members. The general findings for the second part of the problem are as follows:

1. Type of orientation is related to occupation. Members who have farming occupations tend to be more expressively oriented than those who have non-manual occupations.

2. Type of orientation is related to the occupation of the respondent's father. Members whose fathers had farming occupations tend to be more expressively oriented than those whose fathers had non-manual occupations.

3. Type of orientation is related to employment status. Members who are retired tend to be more expressively oriented than those who are employed.

4. Type of orientation is related to age. The older a member is the more likely he will be expressively oriented.

5. Type of orientation is related to level of educational achievement. The higher the level of education a member has obtained the more likely he will be instrumentally oriented.

6. Type of orientation is related to present residence. Members who live in rural areas tend to be more expressively oriented than those who live in urban areas.

7. Type of orientation is related to residence where raised. Members who were raised in rural areas tend to be more expressively oriented than those who were raised in urban areas.

8. Type of orientation is related to types of communities in which lived. Members who have lived only in rural communities tend to be more expressively oriented than those who have lived in other types of communities.

9. Type of orientation is related to distance from the nearest Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area. Members

who live less than fifty miles from the nearest S.M.S.A. tend to be more instrumentally oriented than those who live fifty miles or more from the nearest S.M.S.A.

C. Limitations of the Study

There are several possible limitations to this study, other than return bias, which should be specified and which may qualify our conclusions.

1. The population used generally restricts our conclusions to a segment of the Grange membership which in Michigan is of unknown proportion, namely heads of household or spouses. The study reveals that these persons show a preference for expressive Subordinate activities and are high attenders. Before applying the findings of this study to the population sampled, the possibility of age bias should be investigated. The response to the specific question in the instrument (see Appendix A, question thirteen) which would have provided this information was too small to be used for this purpose.

2. The instrument used may or may not measure sufficiently well the primary variables, type of orientation and participation frequency, with which the study is concerned. A series of questions of various types, such as rating scales and rank order queries, rather than a single open-ended question may have provided data with which to more acutely ascertain the orientation type of the respondent although this was readily apparent within the context of the open-ended question used. The instrument also limited the indices of participation to two,

frequency of attendance and Grange offices held, of which only one was used. Other measures of participation which would be useful are committee membership and the number of years a member has belonged to the Grange.

3. A search for a well-developed theory by which the classes of variables in the data gathered for the second part of the problem could be related revealed only rather unsystematized notions. The hypotheses of this part of the study do not follow in a rigorous logical manner from the markedly limited theoretical considerations of the present research in this area.

D. Conclusion

Although this study has been concerned with organizational participation, it has not discussed membership population maintenance,[1] which is generally regarded as a significant and closely related aspect of organizational effectiveness.[2] In concluding this study it is appropriate for this reason and because of the record of the Grange in this area to summarily discuss Grange membership maintenance within the theoretical framework of the study.

Recent data available on membership trends of the National and Michigan State Granges indicate, especially with

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[1]This was briefly mentioned, however, on page 23.

[2]Theodore Caplow, Principles of Organization (New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc., 1964), pp. 119-124.

regard to the Michigan State Grange, a sizable decline.[3] In the ten year period from 1952 to 1962 this diminution was one-fifth (19.2 percent)[4] in the National Grange and nearly one-half (46.8 percent)[5] in the Michigan State Grange. Thirty additional State Granges reported a decline in membership during this period for a total loss of 177,268 and six State Granges reported increases in membership for a total gain of 12,585.[6]

This study has described the Grange as a predominately expressive organization. It has noted that the association, due to a lack of success at direct political and cooperative activities among other factors, currently emphasizes activities which are social, fraternal, and educational in character. The study has, in addition, established that there is a relationship between member orientation and participation frequency. Within the context of the study, it would appear, then, that those persons who have voluntarily[7] left the membership of the organization have

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[3]The statistical information concerning the Grange in this section was obtained from Robert Eastman, et al., Preliminary Report to the National Grange Special Study Committee on Grange Structure and Programs (Washington, D. C.: The National Grange, 1963), pp. 7-8.

[4]This was from 858,417 in 1952 to 693,754 in 1962 for a net loss of 164,663. According to projections by the National Grange, if this same rate of decline continues, the organization will have no members in 2004.

[5]This was from 28,694 in 1952 to 15,169 in 1962 for a net loss of 13,525.

[6]It is interesting to note that this gross gain is less than the net loss of the Michigan State Grange for the same period.

[7]While the Grange has a high median age, 52.7 years of age in 1961, when compared to that of the United States, 29.5 years of age in 1960, the majority of members leaving the organization probably do so voluntarily rather than through death.

not been attracted to its expressive activities. This seems reasonable if we make the assumption (similar to that of Lehman which is discussed on page 12 of this study) that Grange "drop-outs" will be more like (in organizational orientation, occupation, employment status, age, educational level, and residence) the study respondents who are "non-attenders" and "low attenders" than those who are "high attenders."[8]

There are several possible explanations for the decrease in the "attractiveness"[9] of the Grange both nationally and in Michigan. Within the context of organizational theory, the more significant rationales would be be concerned primarily with the effects of changes in the organization's environment[10] or, to be more specific, the major social alterations currently under way in American rural society. These changes have been discussed by several authors[11] and, although closely interrelated,

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[8]This assumption is, of course, based on another which is that reduced organizational attractiveness will in most cases lead to low or non-participation and subsequently to withdrawal of membership from the organization.

[9]For a discussion of "organizational attractiveness" see Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander, Group Dynamics: Research and Theory (Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson, and Company, 1960), pp. 74-78.

[10]Caplow, loc. cit. See also Peter M. Blau and W. Richard Scott, Formal Organizations: A Comparative Approach (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1962), pp. 194-221.

[11]See, for example, Edmund deS. Brunner and J. H. Kolb, Rural Social Trends (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1933). Carl C. Taylor, et al., Rural Life in the United States (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1955), pp. 522-533. Everett M. Rogers, Social Change in Rural Society (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1960), pp. 3-19.

may be delineated with their probable implications for Grange membership maintenance and recruitment as follows:[12]

1. A decline in the number of farm people in the United States due to an increase in farm productivity per man. Because Grange members are generally recruited from the rural-farm sector of the population this factor has increasingly diminished the potential membership pool.

2. Farm production is increasingly specialized and is gradually becoming agribusiness. Because the Grange, unlike special-interest organizations of farmers for specific purposes such as selling and lobbying and specific products such as dairy produce, is a general purpose rural organization, it is therefore unsuited to meet the functions generated by these environmental changes.

3. Changes in rural social organization are in the direction of a decline in the relative importance of primary relationships and an increase in the importance of secondary relationships. Because the Grange is an organization with preponderant familistic purposes and structure, it is very dissimilar from increasingly more relevant organizational structures with which rural persons are coming into contact.

4. Linkage of the farm with the nonfarm sector of the American economy is increasing. Farming is becoming

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[12]This list closely follows that of Olaf F. Larson and Everett M. Rogers, "Rural Society in Transition: The American Setting," Our Changing Rural Society: Perspectives and Trends, ed. by James H. Copp (Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Press, 1964), pp. 39-67.

incresingly interdependent with other sectors of the economy, as seen in such phenomena as agribusiness and nonfarm work by farmers, and is therefore becoming incompatiable with Grange ideologies such as the strongly held belief that the family is the ideal and appropriate unit of farm production.

5. Persons residing in rural areas, due to improved transportation and mass communications, and the realignment of locality groups, have more options of activities with which to enjoy their leisure and are becoming increasinly cosmopolitan in their social relationships. Improved transportation methods expedite, for example, memberships in organizations outside of the local area of residence. Mass communication facilities similarly compete with the Grange for the increased but still limited leisure time of the potential membership recruitment population.

While the preceeding does elucidate some aspects of the organization environment of the Grange and its effects upon organizational membership maintenance and recruitment, it does not encompass all of the possible explanations for the diminished attractiveness of the association. It does further suggest, however, that the Grange will probably continue to become, like the Townsend Movement,[13] a recreational facility for an increasingly declining potential membership population which for the Grange is composed of middle-aged and elderly persons from family farm backgrounds who desire to assemble apart from solely

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[13]Sheldon L. Messinger, "Organizational Transformation: A Case Study of a Declining Social Movement," American Sociological Review, XX (February, 1955), 10.

agricultural interests. The limited opportunities of the Grange for "organizational survival"[14] rest in this area.

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[14]See Caplow, loc. cit., for a discussion of the use and context of this term.

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APPENDIX A

The Instrument: MICHIGAN GRANGE STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE.

Michigan State University
Department of Sociology

East Lansing, Michigan
August 5, 1964

MICHIGAN GRANGE STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE

Please answer all of the questions as fully and honestly as you can. The information we are seeking will be held in confidence. We appreciate your help very much. Thank you.

1. How often does your subordinate Grange meet each month?_____

2. How often do you attend? (Check only one)

   all of the time_____ half of the time _____
   most of the time_____ some of the time _____
   not at all_____

3. Why would you say you belong to the Grange?_____
   _____
   _____

4. Do you feel your subordinate Grange is: (Check only one)
   successful____average____unsuccessful____

5. Why did you describe your subordinate this way?_____
   _____
   _____

6. Do you now hold any office in your subordinate?
   yes____no____

7. If no, have you ever held an office? yes____no____

8. If yes to Question six, are you now Master or Lecturer of your Grange? yes____no____

9. Have you previously been Master or Lecturer of your Grange? yes____no____

10. What is the highest Grange degree which you hold?
    (Circle one) 4 5 6 7

11. How important is the Grange to you? (Check only one)
    very important____fairly important____
    neither important nor unimportant_____
    fairly unimportant____unimportant_____

12. What would you say are your subordinate's 3 most important problems? List in order of importance
    1)_____
    2)_____
    3)_____

13. Please indicate your estimates of the total active membership of your subordinate and the number of members in the following age groups: total_____
under 20 yrs____20-34 yrs____35-49 yrs____
50-64 yrs_____65 or over _____

14. Does your subordinate discuss National Grange issues and programs at its meetings? (Check only one)
frequently____sometimes____not at all____

15. What do you like about your subordinate Grange's programs?_____
_____

16. What do you dislike about your subordinate Grange's program?_____
_____

17. What would you like to see your subordinate do differently and why?_____
_____

18. Would you say the people of your community generally look upon the Grange: (Check only one)
favorably____indifferently____unfavorably____

19. In what ways, if any, does the Grange fail to meet your needs?_____
_____
_____

20. Please indicate below all the major organizations (including churches) in your community. Check the ones to which you belong, hold office in, and length of membership.

Farm Organizations	Are you member?	Do you hold Office?	How long a member?
Churches:			
OTHER Organizations:			

21. In what ways do the farm organizations to which you belong (if any) meet your needs that the Grange fails to meet?
_____
_____

22. How many newspapers and magazines do you regularly read?_____

23. Which, if any, of the following magazines do you read regularly? (Check)

Patron_____ Successful Farming___ Prairie Farmer___
Farm Journal___ Michigan Farmer_____ The Farm_____
Any other farm magazine (specify)_____

24. About how many people in your local neighborhood would you say you know well? (Check only one)

almost all of the people___ about 1/2 of the people___
almost 3/4 of the people___ about 1/4 of the people___
almost none of the people__

25. How do you feel about the following statements? Please circle the appropriate response next to the statement. Agree strongly is #1. Agree slightly is #2. Disagree slightly is #3. Disagree strongly is #4.

Q25,1. The economic soundness of the family-type farm is no less significant or realistic than are its moral and spiritual virtues. 1 2 3 4

Q25,2. Legislation is not good which requires able-bodied persons who apply for or who are receiving relief to be dropped from welfare rolls if they refuse to accept employment offered. 1 2 3 4

Q25,3. We should take action necessary to reinstate and permit recognition of belief in God as a fundamental feature of school administration. 1 2 3 4

Q25,4. The appropriate agencies of the Federal and State governments should aggressively pursue more adequate programs of training and retraining, but not especially for the benefit of rural and small-town people. 1 2 3 4

Q25,5. We don't need legislation allowing farmers to pay income taxes on the basis of a five-year average. 1 2 3 4

Q25,6. We need more support for vocational training in agriculture and in home economics. 1 2 3 4

Q25,7. We need more support for all educational and public relations programs creating better understanding of farm problems by urban citizens. 1 2 3 4

26. In which type of community do you now live? (Check onlyone)

on farm____ village (under 2500)____
open country but not farm___ city of 2500-9999_____
city of 10.000-49,999_____ city of 50,000 or over__

27. If you checked other than "city of 50,000 or over" in Q 26, about how far are you from the nearest large city (50,000 or over)?_____miles

28. In which type of community were you raised? (If you lived in more than one type, please check the type in which you spent the most time).

on farm____ village (under 2500)____
open country but not farm___ city of 2500-9999_____
city of 10,000-49,999_____ city of 50,000 or over__

29. In which types of communities have you lived and for about how long? (Please put down the approximate number of years for those in which you have lived.)

on farm____yrs. village (under 2500)___yrs.
open country but not farm___yrs. city of 2500-9999_____yrs.
city of 10,000-49,999_____yrs. city of 50,000 or more__yrs.

30. Where were you born? (place)_____, (state)_____

31. What is your age? _____

32. What is your sex? male____ female____.

33. If married, how many children do you have? ____

34. How many children did your parents have? _____

35. What is your marital status? (check only one) single___, married___, separated___, widowed___, or divorced___.

36. Please check the highest number of school years you have completed. (check only one)

elementary school:	high school:	college:
4 years or less___	1-3 years___	1-3 years___
5-6 years_____	4 years_____	4 or more___
seven years_____		
eight years_____		

37. Have you had any other types of education (check as many as are appropriate) such as apprenticeships___, vocational training___, correspondence courses___, or general adult education courses___?

Please answer questions 38 through 43 in terms of the "male head of household." If you are a wife, please answer as your husband would. If you are retired or if your husband is retired or deceased, please indicate the five answers while being careful to get the appropriate answer for the three different years (1964, 1955, and 1945). If you are a single woman, do not answer.

38. What kind of work do you do? (Be as specific as you can.)

_____

39. If you are working part-time, what kind of work do you do?

_____

40. What kind of work did you do in 1955?_____

_____

41. What kind of work did you do in 1945?_____

_____

42. What kind of work does or did you father do?_____

_____

43. Are you working at more than one job? yes___ no___

44. What county are you living in?_____

45. What is the name and number of your subordinate Grange?

_____

Would you check to see that all of the questions are answered completely? Thanks again.

APPENDIX B

Table 32. Type of Orientation, as Compared to Frequency of Attendance, Holding Promptness of Questionnaire Return Constant.

Table 32. Type of Orientation, as Compared to Frequency of Attendance, Holding Promptness of Questionnaire Return Constant.

Frequency of Attendance (by promptness of return)	Expressive Orientation		Instrumental Orientation		Total	
	N	Perc.	N	Perc.	N	Perc.
First Week						
High	71	76.3	3	42.9	74	74.0
Low	19	20.5	4	57.1	23	23.1
None	3	3.3	0		3	
	93	100.0	7	100.0	100	100.0
Second Week						
High	53	75.7	1	25.0	54	72.9
Low	14	20.0	3	75.0	17	23.1
None	3	4.3	0		3	4.0
	70	100.0	4	100.0	74	100.0
Third Week						
High	21	60.0	2	33.3	23	56.1
Low	12	34.3	3	50.0	15	36.6
None	2	5.7	1	16.7	3	10.3
	35	100.0	6	100.0	41	100.0
Fourth Week						
High	11	73.3	0	33.3	11	61.1
Low	4	26.7	1	66.7	5	27.7
None	0		2		2	11.2
	15	100.0	3	100.0	18	100.0
Fifth Week						
High	4	25.7	0		4	25.0
Low	8	51.4	1	50.0	9	56.3
None	2	22.9	1	50.0	3	18.7
	14	100.0	2	100.0	16	100.0
Sixth Week						
High	2	11.8	0		2	6.3
Low	5	29.4	8	57.1	13	40.6
None	11	58.8	6	42.9	17	53.1
	17	100.0	14	100.0	32	100.0
Seventh Week						
High	3	25.0	0		3	10.7
Low	4	33.3	10	62.5	14	50.0
None	5	41.7	6	37.5	11	39.3
	12	100.0	16	100.0	28	100.0
Eighth Week						
High	0		0		0	
Low	0		3	60.0	3	50.0
None	1	100.0	2	40.0	3	50.0
	1	100.0	5	100.0	6	100.0
Totals	258		57		315	