THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MANAGEMENT ENVIRONMENT AND PERFORMANCE IN TELEVISION STATIONS: AN ANALYSIS

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GARY E. SHUMAKER

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ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
MANAGEMENT ENVIRONMENT
AND PERFORMANCE
IN TELEVISION STATIONS:
AN ANALYSIS

By

Gary E. Shumaker

This research focuses on the management environment in television stations, specifically investigating three dimensions of that environment: leadership initiating structure, task independence, and job scope; on three types of senior level subordinate managers: chief engineers, program managers, and sales managers.

The method used was a mail survey of the three subordinate managers and the general manager in each of the major network stations in the top fifty television markets in the United States.

Initially, it suggests three hypotheses concerning the nature of the environment: (1) leadership initiating structure will be lowest for chief engineers; (2) task autonomy will be highest for sales managers; and (3) job scope will be lowest for sales managers.

The study also examines the effects of this environment. In this regard, it proposes that (4) performance for each of the subordinate managers will be highest for those

which most closely approximate the median for their group on each of the dimensions investigated.

In addition, it suggests that (5) station performance will be highest for those stations with the highest performance in their subordinate managers.

Of these hypotheses, the study finds support for hypothesis 4; the remainder were not confirmed.

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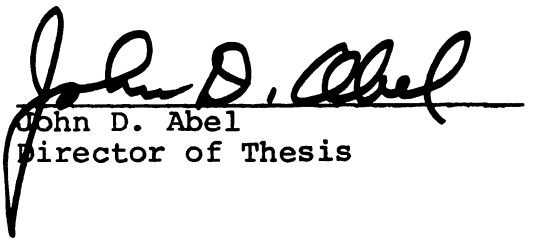

John D. Abel
Director of Thesis

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I would be remiss if I failed to acknowledge the contributions to this work of my advisor, Professor John Abel, and of my wife, Eleanor.

The errors, of course, are my own.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS--Continued

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF TABLES--Continued

TABLE Page

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses briefly the social significance of the area of the problem under consideration. It also introduces the problem and describes the organization of the thesis.

The Social Significance

The systematic study of management is a relatively new academic pursuit, dating its active history only from the middle or last part of the last century.

The study of management is interesting for a number of reasons.

Perhaps the most compelling of these reasons to the individual is that, in our highly industrialized society, it is highly likely that he spends a good portion of his life in an organizational setting, under management of some kind. The nature of that management has a dramatic effect on the quality of his life.

An important part of the value of the study of

management to society as a whole is that its performance is critical to the economic functioning of that society. Better management means, by and large, a better, stronger, economic system, which translates again, into a determinate of the quality of life for the individual.

Management has other social effects than the merely economic ones, however. Different industries may be seen to range on a continuum from very low to very high social significance. Were, for example, the management of the toothpick industry to be very poor, the loss to society would be minimal. The effects of management in other industries may be seen to be very high.

Among those for which the significance is high, is the broadcasting industry. The list of authors who have written concerning the effects of the industry includes such names as Tannenbaum (1955); Himmelweit, Oppenheim and Vince (1958); Klapper (1960); Berkowitz (1962); Maccoby (1964); Greenberg and Parker (1965); Weiss (1969); and Baker and Ball (1969). A prerequisite to any effect, however, is management.

The Study

In the most general of terms, the study described herein attempts to answer the question: do managers with subordinate managers working for them in different roles differentially structure the working environments of those subordinates, and if so, what is the effect of that

differential structuring?

In more precise terms the study is a survey of persons in senior management positions in network television stations in the fifty largest television markets in the United States. It examines the measurement and the effects of certain aspects of the working environment created by the senior executive for his immediate subordinates. Specifically, the dimensions of that environment investigated are the degree to which the senior executive institutes structure for his subordinates, the degree of autonomy with which he allows them to operate, and the breadth of scope of their jobs. The range of subordinate managers with respect to which these dimensions of the managerial environment are investigated is limited to three: the chief engineer, the program manager, and the sales manager. The measurement of the effects of these variables on these subordinate managers is done in relation to two measures of station performance.

Organization of the Thesis

This chapter gives a brief overview of the social significance of the problem area and introduces the study. Chapter II gives a brief history of management scholarship in general, citing works which are considered to be representative of major schools of thought; introducing works representative of existing study of broadcasting

management; and discussing the research related to the specific problem studied. Chapter III describes the methodology used. Chapter IV describes the results. Chapter V draws some conclusions and makes recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER 2

BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM AND HYPOTHESES

This chapter discusses the background of the problem, and states the hypotheses.

The study of management is considered in four periods, representing a like number of divisions in the development of management thought: the classical, the neo-classical, the modern, and the neo-modern. Prior to turning its attention to the neo-modern, however, this chapter examines the application of the earlier schools specifically to the management of broadcasting.

The problem is stated in terms of those hypotheses which are concerned with the nature of the managerial environment, and those which are concerned with the effects of that environment

Classical

Classical management theory may be subdivided into two distinct subcategories, the structural theorists, and the physiological theorists.

Structural Theory

Probably the best known among the structural theorists was the German sociologist, Max Weber.

Weber's (1947) work was essentially descriptive, concentrating on the structure of the administrative components of organizations. Weber dealt in ideal types, based on empirical study. His bureaucratic model included about six essential components:[1] (1) tasks are distributed among workers with a resultant division of labor and specialization; (2) workers are organized in a hierarchial organizational structure, with the scope of authority within the pyramid clearly circumscribed; (3) tasks are accomplished within a formally established set of rules, resulting in impersonality, stability, and continuity; (4) workers are employees, without power of their own, except as their position in the organization provides it to them, and without personal rights to their position; (5) membership in the organization constitutes a career, with distinct lines of career progression; and (6) hiring and promotion are based on competence, demonstrated either by certificated training, or by performance in position.

Other structuralists, notably Fayol (1949), Urwick (1943), and Mooney and Riley (1939), stress elaboration of the need in organizations for coordination and specialization.[2]

Principles related to coordination include: (1) the scalar principle, with its clean cut lines of authority from the highest to the lowest worker in the pyramid; (2) the unity of command principle, with each worker responsible only to one superior; (3) the span of control principle, with each superior limited to the number of subordinates he can effectively control; and (4) the exception principle, with managers dealing only with those decisions which cannot be routinized and delegated.

Principles related to specialization include: (1) the departmentalization principle, with duties distributed in such a manner that homogeneous activities are within units and heterogeneous activities are separated among units and levels; and (2) line staff division of functions, with line activities accomplishing those tasks necessary for the achievement of organizational goals, and staff activities providing advice and services.

Physiological Theory

Three names stand out among the physiological theorists; Fredrick W. Taylor, Henry C. Gantt, and Frank B. Gilbreth.

Taylor (1947) is credited with bringing order to the chaotic situation in industrial organizations at the turn of this century.[3] He emphasized the separation of the functions of management and labor, breaking of work tasks down into their most minute components, and the use of time and motion

studies as a planning tool for management. He advocated, for example, basing a worker's pay on his performance.

Gantt's[4] contribution to management thought was the use of record keeping as an organizational tool, even to keeping detailed production records on each worker. In many respects, his work built upon and formalized the methodology of Taylor.

Gilbreth,[5] together with his wife Lillian, honed Taylor's and Gantt's ideas to a fine edge. They may be credited with doing much to popularize the stereotype of the efficiency expert with a stopwatch and clipboard. Gilbreth advocated, for example, athletic type competition between teams of workers, and individual performance records.

Neoclassical

An easy criticism of the classicists is their failure to consider psychological variables. The neoclassical, or human relations theorists corrected this error.

The origins of the neoclassical school can be traced to the Hawthorne studies at the Western Electric Company plant in Chicago. Here Elton Mayo (1933) and his associates found that worker performance increased for each of several experimental treatments, and that, to their surprise, it increased still further when working conditions were restored to those during the control period. The only

explanation they could offer for this result, was a favorable worker reaction to the increased management attention during the experimental period. In later studies the researchers discovered that workers did not respond according to strictly economic rules, but that the work groups developed a restrictive norm for the number of units which might be produced, in spite of financial rewards to workers for greater output. Human factors affected performance!

Mayo's student, Chester I. Barnard, (1954) may be credited with further developing the theory surrounding the effects of the informal group on the achievement of organizational goals. Bernard's work is of particular interest, because of his considerable background as a practitioner of management, in his role as a corporation executive.

Maslow (1954) developed a theory of motivation which postulated a hierarchy of needs; man had different levels of needs, ranging from the physiological, through safety, love and esteem, to self-actualization. In his theory, workers are motivated by the need at the lowest unfulfilled level.

The break between the classicists and the neoclassicists is sharply drawn in McGregor's (1960) Theory X - Theory Y paradigm. Theory X assumes an economic model of man; Theory Y, a social one.

Herzberg (1966) further developed this thinking by pointing out that satisfiers and dissatisfiers were not

opposite ends of a continuum, but separate sets of factors which influenced performance independently.

Another important direction taken by the neoclassical theorists in their ardor for human relations is represented by Argyris (1962). His interest laid in means of improving inter-personal relationships between members of organizations. His name is closely associated with the T-group, a laboratory method used to increase self confidence and understanding of others through intensive small group therapy sessions.

Modern

The classical theorists assumed an economic model of man; the neoclassicists, a social one. The moderns argued for a socio-economic, or complex, model.

Vroom (1964) may be noted for having developed a mathematical model of motivation. Motivation was the product of a numerical representation of the desirability of attaining a particular goal and the expectancy that a particular action would achieve that goal. Desirability times expectancy equaled motivation. The problems of assigning values, or valences, to desirability and expectancy were not fully addressed.

Adams' (1963) was also a mathematical model. He suggested that motivation was a result of an individual's perceptions of the ratio of his inputs to his outputs, as

compared to his perceptions of some significant other's ratio of inputs to outputs. Further, he found that perceived inequality, either in the direction of advantage or disadvantage, was a source of tension. Reduction of this tension was the significant factor in determining the individual's behavior, and therefore his source of motivation.

Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory is a sophisticated example of modern thinking. The name of the theory implies that the performance of interacting groups is contingent upon the interaction of leadership style and factors unique to the particular situation.

Broadcasting Management

Studies of the management of the broadcasting industry in particular have not, for the most part, dealt seriously with any of these traditions.

The industry may date its history as an industry only back as far as the late twenties of this century, acquiring any sort of business importance certainly not before the thirties. In this time frame, it was too late to feel the effects of the classicists. Too, the types of labor required by the new industry were perhaps difficult to relate to studies of bricklayers and steelworkers.

Also, many of the early studies tended to focus on industries with groups of workers in largely similar jobs.

These similarly were difficult to apply to the broadcasting industry.

By the time the neoclassical school became of major importance, the glamorous broadcasting industry was actively engaged full time in the business of giving large numbers of people what they wanted. It was well qualified to ignore the movement.

Too, over the years, the broadcasting industry had enjoyed a stability, secured for it by the Federal Communications Commission.[6]

As a result, the systematic study of the management of the broadcasting industry has lagged behind the study of management in general. It has suffered generally from one of two faults: it has been anecdotal, rather than based on systematic, empirical research; or it has considered only the communication variables in the decision making process.

The books usually used as textbooks for broadcasting management courses are usually guilty of the former.

Roe's (1964) collection of readings on the subject is an example of this. It has no solid theoretical base, and its authors contradict each other from one article to the next. Each article is based on one individual's recollections of a specific situation or station, with no indication of the probability that the situation or station is at all typical.

Quaal and Martin (1968) exhibit the same general condition. Although they cite numerous examples of managerial

situations in the broadcasting industry, all of their situations come from the same station. No indication is made of the probable application of their solutions to stations with different network affiliations, in different size markets, in different geographic areas. No attempt is made at any sort of systematic study, and therefore, nothing which could be called general theory even begins to emerge.

Brown (1971) cites the problems of a single network in a single season. The anecdotal affliction is pervasive. Again, there is not even token attention paid to the kind of systematic study from which a general theory might emerge.

Well planned, carefully executed studies of broadcasting management exist primarily in the form of theses and dissertations. Done, for the most part by communication scholars, they usually look at the kinds of variables one would expect them to be the most familiar with.

Lewis' (1966) dissertation, for example, studied feedback utilization behaviors among the management of commercial television stations. Specifically, he looked at the effects of direct and inferential feedback on the decision making process of programmers: direct in the form of letters, phone calls and meetings with the external audience of the station; and inferential in the form of national and local ratings and rating-derived information.

Bennett (1970) looked at the relationship between management types and the communication behavior of employees

in television stations. He classified management type as either autocratic, bureaucratic, or democratic, finding a relationship between type and the preferred method of general manager-employee communication. Bennett also examined manager non verbal behavior by management type.

One of the best single studies was done by Cremer (1971), who examined the dimensions of association between the station general manager and the news director, in connection with the functioning and operating of the news component of the station operation. He found that the important dimensions in this relationship were those of claiming and evaluating. General managers whose news directors held an essentially positive view of the newsroom environment were able to predict accurately the news directors' perceptions of that environment; general managers whose news directors held an essentially negative view were not able to make accurate predictions.

Neo-Modern

Early management studies assumed an economic model of man, in which he was solely motivated by the desire for greater financial rewards. Neoclassical thought focused on the social man, driven only by his needs for social and psychological satisfactions. Modern theory has based itself on a social-economic model, assuming an interrelationship between economic and social needs.

Even these most recent studies are admittedly based on an overly simplistic model of man; man's true nature is complex, based on a multitude of attributes.

A few recent studies have tended to focus, not so much on the nature of man, as on the nature of the environment in which he finds himself in his work situation. The nature of this environment, these studies seem to suggest, will determine the attributes of the complex man which will govern his behavior.

It may be, to offer an extreme example, that the exploitation of labor in the environments in which Taylor and the Gilbreths worked, was such that man's economic needs did dominate his behavior. Of course it may also be true that the nature of those environments was such that satisfaction of social or psychological needs might also have had important effects on performance; without empirical evidence, the student of today may only guess. The point, however, is that it would be dangerous, if not foolhardy, to attempt to apply Taylor's or the Gilbreth's theories in the work environments of our present culture, and expect similar results.

What are the dimensions of this work environment?

Leadership Initiating Structure

Recent management research has pointed toward two major dimensions in leadership behavior, which have been termed

instrumental, and social-emotional or expressive (Korman, 1966). The terms most frequently used to describe these behaviors are initiating structure, and consideration.

Consideration has been generally highly related to job satisfaction (Filley and House, 1969). While satisfaction is important for other reasons, Vroom's (1965) analysis of studies of satisfaction showed it to be correlated with performance at only the .14 level. For this reason, the present study does not investigate leader consideration.

Leadership initiating structure is the term used to describe the degree to which the leader initiates psychological structure for his subordinates, by such acts as assigning tasks, specifying procedures, clarifying his expectations, and scheduling work. The reader may see a relationship between this aspect of leader behavior and the thinking of the classical management school, in terms of the principles of coordination and specialization.

Fleishman (1953) found leadership initiating structure to be an important variable in the management environment of factory foremen. Halpin (1954) found it so for military aircraft commanders. Hemphill (1957) found it important among twenty-two departments of a liberal arts college. Filley and House (1969) found it important among unskilled and semi-skilled factory workers. Wigdor (1969) found it important among nontechnical corporate office employees of

a chemical manufacturing company. House et al. (1971) found it so among salaried engineers, scientists, and technicians in three large research, design, and development organizations.

One study of particular note in this regard is that of Rhea. (1970). Rhea studied the leadership initiating structure for the general manager, sales manager, program director, chief engineer, and business manager. In ten television stations in large markets and ten stations in small markets. He found no differences between general managers and subordinate managers, and no differences between large and small markets.

Task Independence

Task independence is defined as the degree to which an individual is able to perform his job without depending upon his supervisor or others for financial resources, non-financial resources, and directions; and is able to independently schedule and plan his activities and innovate independently.

Rizzo et al. (1970) found job autonomy to be an important variable in the management environment of office employees of a heavy equipment manufacturing company. Wigdor (1969) found task autonomy to be an important variable in the environment of his sample of nontechnical corporate office employees.

Job Scope

Job scope is defined as the extent to which an individual performs various tasks, sees projects through to completion, and determines job objectives and methods.

Wigdor (1969) found job scope to be an important variable for the population in his study.

Performance

The value of establishing parameters for the management environment is greatly enhanced if this information can be used to predict performance. This study considers the dimensions of this environment in terms of both manager performance and station performance.

Manager Performance

Performance of individuals may be measured either objectively or subjectively. Both methods have disadvantages.

Rhea (1970) used objective measures of performance, such as share of market and per cent of sales increase. Such measures may miss the essence of a job, or, as Rhea found, apply differentially to different subordinate manager jobs.

Rhea also used a subjective measure of performance; per cent of goal achievement. Wigdor (1969), however,

compared self, peer, and superior ratings, and found that, while peer and superior ratings were significantly related, self ratings were not significantly related to either the peer or superior ratings.

Lawler (1968) suggests, in a review of methods for measuring performance, a multi-trait, multi-rater measure of performance, noting that with such a method, "it is possible to assess the criterion by determining its convergent and discriminate validity." (p. 470) thereby providing many of the advantages of both the more subjective and the more objective measures.

Station Performance

Station performance is perhaps the most difficult variable in the present study to measure. Obviously the theoretical considerations are similar to those for manager performance.

A review of the literature reveals only one study of importance which rates stations according to their performance.

Johnson (1973) rank orders network stations in the top 100 markets, based on their total hours of news, public affairs, and "other" programming in the composite week[7], total number of public service announcements in the composite week, total number of composite week hours with more than twelve minutes of commercials, programming

expenses as a percentage of gross earnings, and total ranking across all of these areas.

This paper will address the theoretical considerations raised concerning the measurement of station performance in greater detail in Chapter IV.

The Problem

The studies described, with the exception of Rhea, for the most part, assume a situation where a manager supervises a number of subordinates with largely similar tasks. In fact, a manager may supervise subordinates with a wide range of diverse tasks, many of which are outside the range of his own abilities. The present study postulates that at least in a large segment of the broadcasting industry this is the case, and that this, by plan and of necessity, results in differential structuring of the management environment by the manager, and that this differential structuring has an effect on the performance of those subordinates.

This study focuses on television stations. The rationale for this is that the diversity of jobs within television stations is greater than any other readily investigatible unit of the broadcasting industry: engineering is more complex; programming involves network, syndicated and local sources; and sales covers a broader geographic area and demands a higher volume than any

comparable unit. The hypotheses are of two types; those which attempt to describe and predict the nature of the differences in the management environments of the various subordinates responsible for the divergent work requirements of the focus of the study, and those which attempt to relate the environments to performance.

Nature of the Environments

General managers are postulated to be likely to exert the most control over their subordinates in areas where they have the most expertise. If few general managers of television stations acquire their own positions as a result of their expertise in engineering, for example, as this study assumes, then it is likely that they will exert the least control over their subordinates responsible for this area, suggesting hypothesis 1: leadership initiating structure of general managers will be lowest for chief engineers.

Another possible reason for differential structuring of management environments is physical proximity. Autonomy is postulated to be higher for those subordinates whose jobs are performed to the greatest degree at sites physically remote from the general manager's office. Therefore, this study suggests hypothesis 2: task autonomy will be highest for sales managers.

Job titles themselves may contribute to the

structuring of the management environment: some suggest concrete limitations to responsibilities, others are sufficiently vague as to allow incumbents considerable magnitude of scope. This suggests hypothesis 3: job scope will be lowest for sales managers.

Effects of the Environments

Woodward (1958) found, in an investigation of British industry, that across a number of firms and types of firms, in the outstandingly successful firms, a number of organizational characteristics approximated those of the median for that characteristic for that type of firm. If this principle can be extended to the present study, it would suggest a relationship between these dimensions of the management environment and the successfulness of the station, as indicated by some measure of its performance, which leads to hypothesis 4: performance for each of the subordinate managers involved will be highest for those who most closely approximate the median for their group on each of the dimensions investigated and hypothesis 5: station performance will be highest for those stations with the highest performance in their subordinate managers.

Summary

This study has surveyed the scholarly study of management, considering its classical, neo-classical,

modern, and neo-modern periods. In the process, it has discussed the application of management study to the management of the broadcasting industry. Finally, it has presented the background and developed the hypotheses for the study discussed herein.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Briefly, the methodology used in the study was this: questionnaires were mailed to the general manager, the chief engineer, the program manager, and the sales manager of each network station in the top fifty television markets in the United States. The general manager was asked to rate the performance of each of three of his subordinates. Each subordinate was asked about the leadership initiating structure, the task independence, and the job scope of his work environment. Additionally, subordinate managers were asked to rate a randomly selected peer, and to provide certain demographic information on themselves. The difference of means test was used to look for differences between the subordinates' jobs. Multiple regression analysis was done to examine the relationship between the independent variables and job performance. The Chi-square test was used to compare performance ratings with two existing measures of station performance.

The Model

This study assumes that a model of management structure in a typical station includes a general manager, supervising primarily three coequal subordinates: a chief engineer, a program manager, and a sales manager. These were selected as representative of the range of diversity of second level station management jobs.

The Population

The population for this study included all major network (ABC, CBS, and NBC) stations in the fifty markets with the largest numbers of television households, as determined by the American Research Bureau. This selection includes 67.82 per cent of all television households in the United States; doubling the size of this universe would increase the size of this universe to only 86.44 per cent. A list of these markets is in Appendix A.

Affiliates could not be identified for all three networks in markets thirty-three and forty-eight. In markets with more than one affiliate for a given network, the VHF station was selected. In market five, a station affiliated solely with CBS could not be identified, but a station affiliated with all three networks simultaneously was identified and used.[8] Using these criteria, one hundred and forty-eight stations were identified for use in

the study from the listings of the 1974 Broadcasting Yearbook.

Selection of Respondents

Questionnaires were sent to individuals, addressed by name, again from information in the 1974 Broadcasting Yearbook.

Where no individual could be identified by name to match the model for the study, no questionnaire was sent, with the logic that: (1) the function might be being performed by another individual who had received another questionnaire for his principle duties; (2) the function might be being performed by an external source acting as a contractor, as an advertising representative; or (3) the questionnaire might be completed by someone whose duties were remote from those of the individual in the model, as a secretary. Even so, three completed response sheets were received with notes indicating that they had been completed by the successors to the individuals to whom they were addressed. These responses were used in the analysis.

Using these criteria, 547 subjects of the 592 which a population of 148 stations might predict were identified, as follows:

General Manager

Most stations have someone who holds a title of general manager. Often this individual is also a vice-president. A few stations have a station manager instead; a few have a station manager in addition to the general manager. In this case, the general manager was selected for the study over the station manager, with the reasoning that the broader duties of the general manager would encompass those of the station manager, who might not supervise, say, the sales manager. Any error caused by the possibility that a performance rating given by a supervisor two levels higher, rather than one, is controlled for by the multirater instrument used, described later in this chapter. In one case, two individuals were listed as co-general managers; they were excluded from the study.

Using these selection criteria, individuals filling the general manager position were identified in 147 out of 148 stations.

Chief Engineer

Most stations have a chief engineer. Some list a vice-president in charge of engineering. A few list both; in these cases, the chief engineer was selected. Of those who do not list either, a few list a studio engineer and occasionally some other kind of engineer such as a

translator engineer; in these cases, the studio engineer was selected. In the absence of a chief engineer, a chief of technical operations was also accepted.

Selecting from these titles, an individual whose duties were essentially those of chief engineer was identified in 140 out of 148 stations.

Program Manager

Most stations list either a program manager or a program director. Either of these titles was used. Occasionally the individual was also a vice-president.

Selecting from these titles, individuals with program manager responsibilities were identified in 139 out of 148 stations.

Sales Manager

Most stations list a general sales manager. Where this was the case, this individual was selected. A few who do not list a general sales manager, list either a national, a regional or a local sales manager. Where there was only one of these listed, he was used. Where there was more than one, the manager with the broadest geographic responsibility was selected, with the logic that his job would be the most diverse from the other subordinate managers under consideration, and also most closely related to that of an individual with the general title. Using

these criteria, sales managers were selected in 139 out of 148 stations.

The Instruments

All of the instruments used for the survey portion of the study had been previously demonstrated to have some degree of validity. Those used to measure station performance were merely the best available.

Environmental Variables

The leadership initiating structure instrument was taken from the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire developed by the Ohio State University. It was shown by Halpin (1954) to have concurrent criteria validity, and by Stogdill (1965) to have experimental criteria validity.

The task autonomy scale was validated by Wigdor (1969) on a sample of corporate vice-presidents and a sample of white collar trainees and secretaries. The difference in the distribution were in the predicted direction and significant at the .0001 level. When college professors were used in place of vice-presidents, $p < .0001$.

Wigdor (1969) also validated the job scope instrument by comparing thirty employees at a high organizational level making a wide variety of decisions, with thirty employees who were low in these characteristics. He found it

significant at the .0001 level, Mann-Whitney U=861, Z=6.08.

Performance Variables

A multitrait-multirater instrument developed by Wigdor (1969) was used to measure individual performance. He found this instrument to have convergent validity, and to meet two out of the three tests suggested by Campbell and Fiske (1959) for discriminate validity.

Two measures of station performance were used.

No index of station financial performance was readily available. Many stations are jointly owned with other enterprises, frequently other stations, and their earnings are not reported separately in the usual financial sources. Information on the earnings of individual stations is required to be reported to the Federal Communications Commission, however.[9] In 1972, then Commissioner Nicholas Johnson did a study using this information in which he rank ordered network stations in the top fifty markets on the basis of programming expenses as a percentage of gross earnings. In as much as stations earning more spend more on programming, this is a valid index of individual station financial performance, and the first index used for the present study.

The reader may note that Johnson's study was done in 1972, and the present in 1974. No correction was made to account for the changes in management during that time;

however, as Table 2 shows, 90.7% of the chief engineers in the study have been in their present station in their present capacity for more than two years, as have 67.8% of the program managers and 67.4% of the sales managers.

Johnson's study also ranked stations on the basis of a composite of programming criteria including the scale just described; total hours of news, public affairs, and "other" programming in the composite week, number of public service announcements in the composite week, and number of composite week hours with more than twelve minutes of commercials. This ranking was the second index used as a measure of station performance.

The Questionnaire Package

The package sent to subjects included a gang typed, personally addressed cover letter, a questionnaire, a mark sense response sheet or sheets, a stamped self addressed return envelope, a machine scoring pencil, and a blank address label to be completed and returned if the subject desired a copy of the results. A copy of the cover letter is at Appendix B.

The instructions directed the subject to return only the mark sense response sheet or sheets. A four digit code identifying network affiliation, market size, and job title of the subject was placed on each response sheet and the return envelope.

Two different questionnaires were used, one of which had three different forms. Corresponding overprinted mark sense response sheets were used.

The questionnaire sent to general managers consisted of the six trait performance rating scale, repeated three times, to allow its application to the chief engineer, the program manager, and the sales manager. The mark sense sheet had space for the necessary eighteen responses. Due to a typographic error, this sheet had space for two responses to item 11. All subjects appeared to have made necessary corrections. Examples of this questionnaire and its response sheet are contained in Appendices C and D.

The questionnaire sent to subordinate managers consisted of the sixteen item leadership initiating structure instrument, the sixteen item task independence instrument, the five item job scope instrument, and seven demographic items. No distinction was made in the questionnaire between the task independence and the job scope instruments. Three different versions of the questionnaire were used to allow for peer ratings of the three different types of subordinate managers. The three versions were identical, except for page six, on which the title of the peer which the respondent was asked to rate changed. Peer rating assignments were based on odd or even market sizes; in odd numbered market sizes, chief engineers rated sales managers, program managers rated chief engineers, and sales managers

rated program managers; in even numbered markets sizes, the scheme was reversed. Corresponding mark sense response sheets had space for fifty responses. Examples of the questionnaire and the response sheets are at Appendices E and F. Appendix E includes three pages seven, representing the three versions of the questionnaire.

The Pretest

A pretest was conducted in ten selected stations in markets fifty-one through sixty during May, 1974. The only change other than the correction of typographic errors as a result of the pretest was the inclusion of an example of the proper way to indicate a choice on the mark sense response sheets.

The selection of market sizes used for the pretest was from a 1973 listing. The 1974 list was used for the study. This had the result of questionnaire packages being sent to two stations during the pretest which should have been saved for the study. Responses from these stations were used in the study.

The Mailing

The questionnaire packages were mailed in three batches on June 18, 19, and 20, 1974.

Summary

Aspects of the methodology of the study discussed in this chapter include the model assumed for the unit of the industry under study, the population, the selection of respondents, the instruments used, the design of the questionnaire package, the pretest, and finally, the actual mailing. Methods of analysis used and results obtained are discussed in detail in the next chapter.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter discusses the results of the survey in terms of the characteristics of the respondents, the reliability of the instruments used, and the validity of the hypotheses tested.

The Responses

A total of 281 responses were received prior to the cut off date, August 18, 1974. Of these, 189 were usable, the others coming from subordinate managers not paired with a general manager or vice versa. One additional response received had the necessary network, market size, and job title code obliterated and was not used. Four responses were eliminated because of obvious experimenter error in assigning this code; two code numbers had been assigned twice. A number of letters were received, both with and without completed questionnaires.

Respondents

The distribution of respondents by network and market size is shown in Table 1. The reader will note a fairly even distribution by network, and substantially fewer respondents from smaller market sizes, especially markets thirty-one through forty. No significance testing of these distributions was conducted.

The distribution of subordinate manager questionnaire responses by demographic item is shown in Table 2. Although no significance testing was conducted on this data, the following conclusions may be drawn concerning the respondents in the study: substantial numbers of them have been in their present capacity with their present station over two years; to an even greater extent, they have been in their present capacity in some station for over two years; to a still greater extent, they have been with their present station over two years; almost without exception, they have been in the broadcasting industry for over four years; chief engineers tend to be the oldest of the three, with program managers second, and sales managers the youngest; and sales managers are most likely to have the most formal education, followed by program managers and chief engineers in that order.

TABLE 1

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY NETWORK AND MARKET SIZE

Respondents	Network							
	ABC		CBS		NBC		Other[1]	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
General Managers	28/49	57.1	20/48	41.7	24/49	49.0	1/1	100
Chief Engineers	16/48	33.3	12/46	26.1	14/45	31.1	1/1	100
Program Managers	8/42	19.0	9/35	25.7	13/44	29.5	1/1	100
Sales Managers	15/46	32.6	12/45	26.7	15/46	32.6	1/1	100
Totals	67/185	36.2	53/174	30.5	66/184	35.9	4/4	100

	Market Size											
	1-10		11-20		21-30		31-40		41-50		Totals	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
General Managers	15/30	50.0	18/30	60.0	14/29	48.3	12/29	41.4	14/29	48.3	73/147	49.7
Chief Engineers	10/28	35.7	12/28	42.9	8/29	27.6	5/29	17.2	8/26	30.8	43/140	30.7
Program Managers	6/26	23.1	10/24	41.7	6/25	24.0	3/23	13.0	6/24	25.0	31/122	25.4
Sales Managers	10/30	33.3	11/27	40.7	9/29	31.0	6/26	23.1	7/26	26.9	43/139	30.9
Totals	44/114	38.6	51/109	46.8	37/112	33.0	26/107	24.3	35/105	33.3	190/547	34.7

[1] See n. 8 in text.

TABLE 2

DISTRIBUTION OF SUBORDINATE MANAGER RESPONSES BY DEMOGRAPHIC ITEM

Item	Response									
	Less than 6 months		More than 6 months but less than 2 years		More than 2 years but less than 4 years		More than 4 years		Missing and invalid responses	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
How long have you been in your present capacity with your present station?										
Chief Engineers	1	2.3	3	7.0	8	18.6	37	72.1		
Program Managers	3	9.7	7	22.6	6	19.4	15	48.4		
Sales Managers	5	11.6	9	20.9	12	27.9	17	39.5		
How long have you been with your present station?										
Chief Engineers			1	2.3	3	7.0	39	90.7		
Program Managers	1	3.2	4	12.9	4	12.9	22	71.0		
Sales Managers	2	4.7	6	14.0	9	20.9	25	58.1	1	2.3
How long have you worked in your present capacity in any station?										
Chief Engineers	2	4.7	2	4.7	3	7.0	36	83.7		
Program Managers	2	6.5	2	6.5	9	29.0	18	58.1		
Sales Managers	5	11.6	4	9.3	13	30.2	19	44.2	2	4.7

TABLE 2

(Continued)

How long have you been employed in the broadcasting industry?

Chief Engineers							43	100		
Program Managers			1	3.2			30	96.8		
Sales Managers	1	2.3					40	93.0	2	4.7

	Under 30		Over 30 but less than 40		Over 40 but less than 50		Over 50			
What is your age?										
Chief Engineers			6	14.0	18	41.9	19	44.2		
Program Managers	2	6.5	9	29.0	25	49.4	5	16.1		
Sales Managers	1	2.3	21	48.8	14	32.6	7	16.3		

	Less than completion of high school		Completion of high school		Completion of high school and some college		Completion of baccalaureate degree		Completion of some graduate work	
What is the highest level of education you have attained?										
Chief Engineers			6	14.0	29	67.4	3	7.0	5	11.6
Program Managers	1	3.2	1	3.2	7	22.6	18	58.6	4	12.9
Sales Managers	1	2.3	3	7.0	9	20.9	19	44.2	11	25.6

Narrative Responses

A number of response sheets were accompanied by letters and short notes. Other correspondence received indicated that no response sheet was forthcoming from that subject.

Replies accompanying completed response sheets included one subordinate manager who noted that the selection of the last response category to items seventeen, nineteen, and twenty was possible "and still have your superior rule with an iron hand." Another felt that "the results will show you how some of our stations are handled." Another was impelled to comment that "One thing I fault my boss on, very badly, is his unwillingness to mix with 'the troops' on a day to day basis. This occurs only in moments of crisis." Another asked "What's the point of this whole thing -- except for the final 12 questions?"

One sales manager observed, in a note accompanying his completed response sheet, that "The answers offered are, as you undoubtedly projected, based largely on how the sales manager sees himself vis-á-vis his management and how filled he is at the time of his answering with his own self importance."

Although no systematic assessment was done, letters without completed response sheets seemed to come more often from general managers. They displayed considerable range. Perhaps the least was a scribbled "policy forbids." A

chief engineer noted "...I have no bosses in my particular work." A general manager wrote "...we receive many requests...to provide proper answers...would require the attention of a large staff...we...must therefore decline requests for complex or extensive information." Another general manager refused, due to "a recent experience where the confidentiality for this type of project did not hold up." An executive assistant to a general manager wrote, "We fail to see how our best interests or those of our executives would be served by our participation in the study."

The most vehement letter came from a general manager who had gathered up all the questionnaires from his subordinates, broken the machine scoring pencils, defaced the stamps of the return envelopes, and returned all of the mailings at a cost to the station of one dollar in postage. In his opinion, the questions asked were "1) None of your damn business; 2) Unrelated to the management decision making in the broadcast industry."

The Instruments

The leadership initiating structure, task independence, job scope, and performance ratings instruments were tested for validity by the correlation averaging method described by Lindquist (1953). The performance rating instrument was also tested for convergent and discriminate

validity, according to the criteria suggested by Campbell and Fiske (1959).

Leadership Initiating Structure

The average correlation for the leadership initiating structure instrument was .2492. This is significant at the .001 level. The value for n in this computation was 202, since subordinate manager data could be utilized without corresponding general manager data.

Task Independence

The average correlation for the task independence instrument was .1193. This does not meet the .05 level of significance criteria. The value for n for this computation was 197.

Job Scope

The average correlation for the job scope instrument was .0842. This does not meet the .05 level of significance criteria. The value of n for this computation was 201.

Performance

The average correlation for the performance instrument was calculated in three different ways: between items for the general manager rating; between items for the peer rating; and between items between raters. The computation

was based on listwise deletion of missing values; n was equal to 109. The values respectively were .6540, .6951, and .2620. All are significant at the .01 level or beyond.

The performance instrument was also tested for convergent and discriminate validity.

The convergent validity criteria is this: there should be high and significant interrater agreement among measures of the same traits. The reader may see by reference to the underlined values on Table 3 that this criteria is met.

There are three tests for discriminate validity. Interrater agreement on the same traits should exceed correlations by the same raters on different traits. Table 3 indicates that correlations of the ratings of the same traits by general managers and peers were generally lower than the correlation among different traits rated by the same raters, as indicated by the correlation triangles to the side and bottom of the table. Thus this criteria was not met. This is a rather stringent requirement which, and Gunderson and Nelson (1966) and as Lawler (1966) state, is rarely met by behavior trait data. It can be seen, however, that the diagonal coefficients generally exceed other correlations in the same matrix, demonstrating that interrater agreement on the same traits exceeds interrater agreement for different traits, thereby meeting the second test. Finally, it may be seen that the magnitude and

TABLE 3

TESTS OF CONVERGENT AND DISCRIMINATE VALIDITY
FOR MEASURES OF SUBORDINATE MANAGER PERFORMANCE

		PEER RATINGS									
	Traits	1	2	3	4	5	6	2	3	4	5	6
GENERAL MANAGER RATINGS	1	.4205[1]	.3529	.2811	.2790	.3104	.2444	.7865	.6125	.6720	.6066	.6614
	2	.3117	.2175	.1859[2]	.2615	.1830[2]	.1466[3]		.5579	.6955	.6015	.5729
	3	.3084	.2519	.2074	.1880[1]	.3189	.1553[3]			.5561	.7693	.7544
	4	.3462	.3061	.2475	.3188	.2721	.1152[3]				.6879	.5012
	5	.3431	.2673	.3091	.2950	.2948	.1574[2]					.7319
	6	.3146	.1659	.2432	.1798	.2338	.2335					
	1		.8264	.6803	.7079	.7022	.7077					
	2			.5644	.6358	.6345	.5907					
	3				.5982	.8311	.6726					
	4					.6289	.6056					
	5						.6531					

[1] All values significant at .01 level with two tailed test unless noted. Means are substituted for missing data.

[2] Significant at .05 level.

[3] Not Significant.

direction of the monorater triangles at the side and bottom are markedly different from the heterorater triangles. Because this is so, the data fails to meet the third test.

The Hypotheses

For the purposes of this discussion, the findings of the study pertaining to the validity of the hypotheses are considered in two categories: those involving the nature of the subordinate manager environment; and those involving relationships of the environmental variables to performance.

The Management Environment

Hypotheses involving the nature of the subordinate manager environment were as follows: (1) leadership initiating structure of general managers will be lowest for chief engineers; (2) task autonomy will be highest for sales managers; and (3) job scope will be lowest for sales managers.

Differences in the management environment of the subordinate manager jobs were examined both in terms of the median and the mean scores of the environmental variables.

Median Scores

Table 4 shows the median scores on the four variables for each of the three groups of managers. Although the results are in the predicted direction for leadership

initiating structure and for job scope, the differences are minimal. No significance tests were performed.

TABLE 4

SUBORDINATE MANAGER
MEDIAN SCORES ON FOUR VARIABLES

Variable	Chief Engineers	Program Managers	Sales Managers	All Subordinate Managers
Performance	8.938	8.286	8.000	8.857
Leadership Initiating Structure	36.667	36.375	35.445	36.107
Task Autonomy	60.773	59.333	59.389	59.938
Job Scope	10.000	9.750	10.091	9.983
	n=43	n=31	n=43	n=117

Mean Scores

As another measure of the central tendency, the mean scores were examined. Table 5 shows these figures. In every case the results are in the predicted direction, but the difference of means test show the differences to be insignificant.

TABLE 5

SUBORDINATE MANAGER
MEAN SCORES ON FOUR VARIABLES

Variable	Chief Engineers	Program Managers	Sales Managers	All Subordinate Managers
Performance	9.930	10.774	9.262	9.914
	3.918	4.624	3.982	4.146
Leadership Initiating Structure	37.536	36.965	36.476	36.995
	5.236	3.547	4.859	4.684
Task Autonomy	60.279	59.442	59.235	59.675
	4.154	4.509	4.164	4.245
Job Scope	10.291	10.008	10.384	10.250
	1.912	.831	2.261	.851
	n=43	n=31	n=43	n=117

Second number in each grouping is standard deviation.

Conclusions

Therefore, we may conclude that, while not conclusively disproved, hypotheses 1 through 3 are not confirmed at an appropriate level of significance.

Environmental Variables and Performance

Hypotheses involving the relationships of the subordinate manager environment to performance were as follows: (4) performance for each of the subordinate managers involved will be highest for those who most closely approximate the median for their group on each of the dimensions

investigated; and (5) station performance will be highest for those stations with the highest performance in their subordinate managers.

The effects of the independent variables upon performance is considered first in terms of subordinate manager performance, and later in terms of station performance.

Subordinate Manager Performance

The regression of subordinate manager performance on the independent variables was calculated for each of the types of subordinate manager in the study, and for the population as a whole.

Chief Engineers.--Regressing the general manager performance ratings for chief engineers on leadership initiating structure, task independence, and job scope, produced the results shown in Table 6. By the .05 criteria, these results are significant and hypothesis 4 is confirmed for chief engineers.

Leadership initiating structure, task independence, and job scope do account for nineteen percent of the variance in chief engineer performance ratings with a significance of .04. The value of F to enter or remove for leadership initiating structure is also significant at the .035 level. The next most significant F is that for job

TABLE 6

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF CHIEF ENGINEER DATA

			Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Significance
Multiple R	.436	Regression	3	122.735	40.912	3.056	.04
R Square	.190	Residual	39	522.056	13.386		

	F to enter or remove	Significance	Correlation coefficients		
Leadership initiating structure	4.753	.035	.353		
Task independence	.007	.936	-.017	.119	
Job Scope	2.977	.092	.301	.134	-.171
			Performance	Leadership initiating structure	Task Independence

n=43

scope, at the .092 level. F for task independence is quite small and significant only at the .936 level. Considering the relatively small value of n, job scope should probably be considered marginally significant. Values for small r, both significant at the .01 level, tend to confirm this. Further research on the performance of chief engineers should therefore probably concentrate on leadership initiating structure and job scope.

Program Managers.--Regressing general manager performance ratings for program managers on leadership initiating structure, task independence and job scope, produced the results shown in Table 7. By the .05 criteria, these results are not significant, and hypothesis 4 is not confirmed for program managers.

Leadership initiating structure, task independence, and job scope do not account for variance in program manager performance ratings at an acceptable level of significance. Values for F to enter or remove the independent variables are not significant. There was a correlation of .34623, significant at the .01 level, between leadership initiating structure and task independence.

Sales Managers.--Regressing the general manager performance ratings for sales managers on leadership

TABLE 7

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF PROGRAM MANAGER DATA

			Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Significance
Multiple R	.076	Regression	3	3.760	1.253	.053	.984
R Square	.006	Residual	27	637.659	23.617		

	F to enter or remove	Significance	Correlation coefficients		
Leadership initiating structure	.064	.802	.030		
Task independence	.046	.832	-.043	.346	
Job Scope	.055	.816	.050	-.106	-.267

	Performance	Leadership initiating structure	Task Independence
n=31			

initiating structure, task independence, and job scope, produced the results shown in Table 8. Although failing to meet the .05 level criteria, these results are in the hypothesized direction, and may be considered marginally significant.

Values for F to enter or remove task independence and job scope are of roughly comparable significance, .077 and .091 respectively. F for leadership initiating structure is quite small and significant only at the .616 level. Values for small r, both significant at the .05 level tend to confirm this. Further research on sales manager performance, therefore, should probably concentrate on task independence and job scope.

Total Population.--Regressing the general manager performance ratings for the entire population on leadership initiating structure, task independence, and job scope, produced the results shown in Table 9. By the .05 criteria, the results are significant, and hypothesis 4 is confirmed for the total population.

The only value for F to enter or remove a variable which is even marginally significant, is the one for job scope, significant at the .068 level. In view of the value of F for this variable for chief engineers and sales managers, the size of the n, the general lack of significance of the program manager data, further research might

TABLE 8

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF SALES MANAGER DATA

			Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Significance
Multiple R	.407	Regression	3	110.307	36.769	2.581	.07
R Square	.166	Residual	39	555.668	14.248		

	F to enter or remove	Significance	Correlation coefficients		
Leadership initiating structure	.256	.616	-.069		
Task independence	3.298	.077	-.318	.140	
Job Scope	3.001	.091	.248	.174	-.134
			Performance	Leadership initiating structure	Task Independence

n=43

TABLE 9

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF TOTAL POPULATION DATA

			Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Significance
Multiple R	.256	Regression	3	130.580	43.527	2.639	.05
R Square	.065	Residual	113	1863.750	16.493		

	F to enter or remove	Significance	Correlation coefficients		
Leadership initiating structure	1.862	.175	.124		
Task Independence	1.498	.224	-.123	.182	
Job Scope	3.405	.068	.206	.100	-.180
			Performance	Leadership initiating structure	Task Independence

n=117

find it profitable to concentrate on this variable for chief engineers and sales managers, hopefully with an improved tool with which to measure the variable.

Station Performance

To test hypothesis 5 concerning the effect of subordinate manager performance on station performance the total performance ratings for all three subordinate managers by each general manager were rank ordered and divided at the median. This was examined, both in terms of the financial criterion, and of the overall criterion. Stations falling on the median were randomly assigned to either the high or the low group.

Financial Criterion.--The financial criterion, it may be remembered, was a rank ordering of all network stations in the top fifty markets on the basis of programming expenses as a percentage of gross earnings. This listing was divided at the median, with random assignment of those stations falling on the median.

Table 10 shows the Chi-square analysis of this data. The results are not significant at the .05 level and hypothesis 5 is not confirmed for this criteria.

TABLE 10

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF
STATION FINANCIAL PERFORMANCE AND
SUBORDINATE MANAGER PERFORMANCE

Financial Performance

		High	Low
Total General Manager Performance Ratings	High	17	16
	Low	13	19

Chi-square = .802
Significance .35

Overall Criterion.--The overall performance criterion was a rank ordering based on a composite of programming expenses as a percentage of gross earnings; total hours of news, public affairs, and "other" programming in the composite week; number of public service announcements in the composite week; and number of hours with less than twelve minutes of commercials in the composite week. This ordering was similarly divided at the median with random assignment of those stations falling on the median to either the high or the low group.

Table 11 shows the Chi-square analysis of this data. The results are not significant at the .05 level and

hypothesis 5 is not confirmed for this criterion

TABLE 11

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF
STATION OVERALL PERFORMANCE AND
SUBORDINATE MANAGER PERFORMANCE

Overall Performance

		High	Low
General Manager Performance Ratings	High	16	17
	Low	14	18

Chi-square = .1585
Significance .65

Other Relationships

In view of the low levels of significance throughout, the possibility that some of the variance in the primary variables might be explained by the demographics was also examined. Of the seventy-two possible combinations generated by four primary variables against six demographic variables for three types of managers, only two cases with significant relationships were found. These were the leadership initiating structure for the sales manager with his age, where F equaled 2.9130, significant at the .05

level; and the job scope of the sales manager with his age, where F equaled 3.2166, significant at the .05 level.

The Heterogeneity Supposition

Why, one might ask, are the significances of the scores of the program managers so different from those of the chief engineers and the sales managers? One possible explanation is that, while the duties of the chief engineers and the sales managers are relatively homogeneous, the duties of the sales managers are relatively heterogeneous. This would be true, for example, if all chief engineers had about the same responsibilities and all sales managers had about the same responsibilities, but some program managers had considerable responsibilities and other program managers had minimal responsibilities. For the sake of a label, this proposition is referred to hereafter as the heterogeneity supposition.

If the heterogeneity supposition is true, returning to Tables 4 and 5, we would expect scores of program managers to regress toward the median and the mean respectively, for the entire group. Table 12 shows the deviation from the median for each of the scores from the median of the total, Table 13 shows similar data for the mean scores. In Table 12, the heterogeneity supposition is supported for leadership initiating structure and task independence. In Table

TABLE 12

VARIATION OF MEDIAN SCORES OF SUBORDINATE MANAGERS BY GROUP FROM MEDIAN SCORES OF TOTAL

Variable	Chief Engineer	Program Manager	Sales Manager
Performance	.081	.571	.857
Leadership Initiating Structure	.560	.268	.348
Task Independence	.835	.605	.549
Job Scope	.017	.233	.108

* * * * * *

TABLE 13

VARIATION OF MEAN SCORES OF SUBORDINATE MANAGERS BY GROUP FROM MEAN SCORES OF TOTAL

Variable	Chief Engineer	Program Manager	Sales Manager
Performance	.016	.860	.652
Leadership Initiating Structure	.541	.030	.519
Task Independence	.604	.233	.440
Job Scope	.041	.242	.134

13, it is supported for leadership initiating structure.

If the heterogeneity supposition were true, we would also expect the size of the standard deviation in the multiple regression analysis to be greatest for program manager. Reference to Tables 6 through 8 will show that this is true.

The preponderance of evidence, even if lacking in significance or not ameniable to significance testing, argues strongly that this explanation not be discarded.

Summary

This chapter has described the responses to the questionnaire, both in terms of their representativeness of the universe included in the study, and of their demographic characteristics, and also has described certain narrative responses which were not tabulated for inclusion in the statistical analysis. It has discussed the validity testing which was performed on the instruments used. Finally, it has described the findings of the study with respect to the hypotheses tested. The final chapter will discuss the implications of these findings.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This concluding chapter considers the meanings of the study in the context of the academic environment and of society as a whole.

Conclusions

The results of this study are less than incontravertable in their support of the hypotheses. Two kinds of reasons may be given for this: shortcomings in the study as it was designed, and shortcomings in the method of study used. The nature of these two types of problems is elaborated upon somewhat in the following sections.

The Study As Designed

Several problems within the design of the present study have already been suggested: the sample is not as large as might be desired; questions might also be raised as to its representativeness, from Table 1; the instruments used to measure task independence and job scope were demonstrably imperfect; the instrument used to measure manager performance, while meeting some of the validity

criteria, failed to meet others; the measures of station performance used were not taken at the same point in time as the remainder of the data, and may have been theoretically lacking.

The Sample

Considering the population defined for the study, the maximum number of questionnaires was distributed. Increased numbers of responses could probably have been collected by using such techniques as pre-letters, follow-up letters, and telephone follow-ups. These solutions would not, however, address the issue of the representativeness of the replies.

The effect of increasing the size of the population for the study is discussed in Chapter III.

A better method of gathering data for any future study of this type would be personal interviews with all managers of a smaller number of stations, selected at random from the population under study.

The Instruments

Conclusions concerning the environmental and the performance variables are discussed separately.

Environmental Variables.--The validity of the instrument used to measure leadership initiating structure has been long established, and this study raises no reason to doubt the previous work.

The task autonomy and job scope instruments developed by Wigdor (1969) are a different issue. The measures of validity in this study and the measures he used yield quite disparate results. Using the Mann-Whitney test, he found both scales significant at the .0001 level. This study, using the correlation averaging method, found, that both failed to meet even the .05 level criteria.

The Mann-Whitney test is appropriate for use with ordinal measurements. Correlation averaging is appropriate for nominal measurement. Wigdor quite properly uses both of these instruments as ordinal level measurements in his study, by dividing his subjects into three groups with high, medium, and low task independence and similarly into three groups for job scope.

Wigdor erred, however, in dividing, for validity testing purposes, his five point scale arbitrarily between two and three, rather than at some universally acceptable central measurement. The results of the validity testing in this study suggest that his error has given him misleadingly high levels of significance.

Further, his choice of an ordinal level statistic must be questioned. Other tools in his study, such as the

leadership initiating structure instrument and the performance rating scale, with similar sets of response categories, he uses as interval statistics.

The size of the disparity between his study and the present one suggest that his choice of statistic, working in concert with his erronious choice of a mid point, may have seriously misled him as to the validity of his tools.

A better study of the management environment of the broadcasting industry might take the responses to the individual items on all three instruments and factor analyze, and then rearrange them as necessary.

Performance Variables.--This study also raises other questions, although less serious, about the performance rating instrument used in Wigdor's study. While in his study, it met the third test of discriminate validity, in this study, it did not. Close examination of the correlation matrix in Table 3 suggests that the problems with the instrument are greater with some traits than with others. Note, for example, trait six, quantity.

An obvious improvement in this index might simply be to omit the offending trait or traits. This, however, reduces the advantages gained by using a multi-trait instrument.

It may be that the traits selected are merely not the

most apt for the variable under study. An improved performance rating scale could be generated by factor analysis of data gathered for a large number of subjects rated on a large number of traits. From these, the traits which provided the best index could be drawn.

The lack of significance concerning the relationship between station performance and subordinate manager performance may suggest two shortcomings of the instruments used to measure station performance.

The first of these has already been considered, that of the age of the data in relation to personnel turnover. There is also the possibility that personnel change in their ability to perform their jobs.

The other is that the measures are strongly programming oriented. This is not necessarily bad in itself; programming is an important element of station performance.

The problem is that it is just that, an element. As noted earlier, financial performance data is not available. Were it, this would provide an element. These two taken together would not, however, account for the quality of station engineering.

Indeed, the beauty of the multitrait-multirater instrument used to measure manager performance is that it gets around these issues. It is difficult to find, however, suitable peers and superiors to measure station performance.

Method of Study

The possibility must not be overlooked that the difficulties encountered in this study are due to the method of study itself.

The heterogeneity supposition, discussed in the preceding chapter, would suggest the desirability of re-evaluating those subordinate managers who are included in the study, and possibly, of developing some measure of the heterogeneity of the work done by individuals with similar job titles.

Furthermore, this study presumes that there is a direct link between managerial environment and performance. In view of its criticism in earlier sections of undue simplicity in earlier study of management, this study would be remiss if it did not consider the possibility that the relationship is more complex than that. Accordingly, the following section discusses an alternative which would take into account this possibility.

Recommendations

In view of the social significance of the broadcasting industry, it seems appropriate that the final chapter of this study discuss the implications of the study and make recommendations for further scholarly work on that industry. Two types of observations are advanced; those concerning

the tools and those just noted concerning the method of the study.

Tools

It seems obvious that better tools for the study of broadcasting management are needed.

The failure of the instruments used to measure job scope and task independence are apparent, and a major shortcoming of this study. The failure of the study to define the environmental structural dimensions of management jobs in the broadcasting industry must, in the last analysis be traced to these. Moreover, development of more reliable tools will profit the more general study of management in that they may be applied to other industries as well.

Of perhaps more pressing need is that demonstrated for better indexes of station performance. It confirms the need expressed by Johnson (1973) for information on station financial performance to be made a matter of public record. The study does not, however, underestimate the danger of using station performance indices which measure only one aspect of station performance.

Many critics of the governmental agency which regulates the broadcasting industry, the Federal Communications Commission, fault it for not adequately assessing station performance prior to acting on license renewal applica-

tions.[10] If nothing else, the present study points to the need for more study of methodology for measuring this important variable.

Method Of Study

One type of analysis not attempted in this study is path analysis. House, (1971) for example, would argue that task independence should be thought of as having a moderating effect on the effect of leadership initiating structure on performance. That is to say, the more independent the job, the more positive the relationship between leadership initiating structure and subordinate performance.

The size of the sample and the validity of the instruments used preclude this kind of analysis. There is room, however, for future research to pursue this avenue, which has considerable promise for explaining the relationship between subordinate manager performance and station performance, possibly with general manager behavior as a moderating variable. Research of this nature is outside the scope of the present study, but a natural outgrowth of it.

Summary

The study suggests strongly, if not conclusively, that subordinate managers of television stations do their jobs in different managerial environments, at least along the

dimensions investigated. In doing so, it demonstrates the need for more exhaustive methodological study. More exhaustive work which, if more conclusive than the present investigation, might serve to map for general managers, those kinds of behaviors which would result in optimally productive management environments for their subordinates.

The study, even with its primitive methodology, suggests that different dimensions of management environment are more important in the performance of different jobs. This in itself should serve as a guidepost to station managers in their relation with their subordinates.

FOOTNOTES

[1] This analysis of Weber's theory is a compendium of the analyses of Tausky (1970) and Gerth and Mills (1946).

[2] This model of their ideas draws heavily on Tausky (1970).

[3] Tausky (1970) describes this situation in some detail.

[4] Gantt's contribution is brought together in Rathe (1961).

[5] The Gilbreth's approach was largely functional rather than scholarly, and they did not write for publication. A collection of such writing as they did do is available in Spriegel and Myers (1963).

[6] Former FCC General Counsel Henry Geller makes an excellent statement of this argument (1974).

[7] Program type labels and "composite week" are used here as defined by the FCC for use by stations requesting license renewal. Johnson (1973) also gives the definitions of these terms.

[8] This station is labeled "other" in Table 1.

[9] In Johnson's (1973) study, he advocates making this information a matter of public record.

[10] See, for example, Johnson (1973) and Geller (1974).

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A

The Markets Ranked By Size[1]

		(00)	%
Total U.S.		66,575.0	100.00%
1	New York	6,184.0	9.29
2	Los Angeles	3,428.8	5.15
3	Chicago	2,736.8	4.11
4	Philadelphia	2,226.3	3.34
5	Boston	1,632.4	2.45
6	San Francisco	1,558.4	2.34
7	Detroit	1,525.5	2.29
8	Cleveland	1,294.8	1.94
9	Washington, D.C.	1,223.8	1.84
10	Pittsburgh	1,082.6	1.63
	Markets 1-10	22,893.4	34.39%
11	Dallas-Ft. Worth	1,024.3	1.54
12	St. Louis	927.0	1.39
13	Minneapolis-St. Paul	861.0	1.29
14	Houston	812.3	1.22
15	Miami	767.2	1.15
16	Atlanta	751.1	1.13
17	Seattle-Tacoma	748.8	1.12
18	Indianapolis	737.2	1.11
19	Baltimore	717.8	1.08
20	Tampa-St. Petersburg	702.1	1.05
	Markets 11-20	8,048.8	12.09%
	Cumulative Total	30,942.2	46.48%
21	Hartford-New Haven	620.0	.93
22	Kansas City	616.7	.93
23	Cincinnati	606.4	.91
24	Milwaukee	597.9	.90
25	Sacramento-Stockton	587.0	.88
26	Portland, Ore.	581.4	.87
27	Providence	570.1	.86
28	Buffalo	565.9	.85
29	Denver	562.7	.85
30	Nashville	509.3	.77
	Markets 21-30	5,817.4	8.74%
	Cumulative Total	36,759.6	55.22%

[1]Source of this listing is the American Research Bureau. These figures represent Arbitron Television household estimates for the 1973-1974 season.

APPENDIX A

(Continued)

		(00)	%
Total U.S.		66,575.0	100.00%
31	Columbus, Ohio	493.5	.74
32	Memphis	491.8	.74
33	San Diego	474.2	.71
34	Charlotte	472.5	.71
35	New Orleans	450.0	.68
36	Louisville	441.2	.66
37	Phoenix	434.2	.65
38	Grand Rapids-Kalamazoo	429.3	.64
39	Oklahoma City	428.3	.64
40	Greenville-Spartanburg-Asheville	426.4	.64
	Markets 31-40	4,541.4	6.82%
	Cumulative Total	41,301.0	62.04%
41	Dayton	414.3	.62
42	Albany-Schenectady-Troy	405.3	.61
43	Charleston-Huntington	393.2	.59
44	Wilkes Barre-Scranton	391.8	.59
45	Harrisburg-York-Lancaster-Lebanon	385.9	.58
46	Norfolk-Portsmouth-Newport News-Hampton, Va.	374.1	.57
47	Orlando-Daytona Beach	373.2	.56
48	Birmingham	371.3	.56
49	Salt Lake City	367.7	.55
50	San Antonio	366.6	.55
	Markets 41-50	3,874.7	5.78%
	Cumulative Total	45,148.7	67.82%

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B

The Cover Letter

Michigan State University is presently engaged in an investigation of characteristics of management decision making in the broadcasting industry. Your name has been selected for participation in this study.

Your role involves completing the enclosed questionnaire. To do this, you must indicate your responses to the individual items on the computer response sheet, using the pencil provided. Although there are no "right" or "wrong" responses to any of the items, all response sheets will be machine processed to insure that your responses will not be available to anyone, thus insuring your confidentiality.

Return the response sheets in the envelope provided. If you desire a copy of the results, please complete and return the enclosed address label.

Once again, your cooperation is appreciated.

Sincerely,

John D. Abel
Assistant Professor
Project Director

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C

The General Manager's Questionnaire

The following items are designed to show the effectiveness of the chief engineer in your station. Remember that your responses will be computer processed, and that no one will have access to them so that you may be completely candid. Please respond according to this key:

1 excellent
2 good
3 average
4 fair
5 inadequate

1. Rate the quality of his performance.
2. Rate his ability to perform the job.
3. Rate his effort put forth on the job.
4. Rate his ability to perform the job without guidance.
5. Rate his initiative in performing the job.
6. Rate the quantity of work he performs on the job.

The following items are designed to show the effectiveness of the programming manager in your station:

7. Rate the quality of his performance.
8. Rate his ability to perform the job.
9. Rate his effort put forth on the job.
10. Rate his ability to perform the job without guidance.
11. Rate his initiative in performing the job.
12. Rate the quantity of work he performs on the job.

APPENDIX C

(Continued)

The following items are designed to show the effectiveness of the sales manager in your station:

13. Rate the quality of his performance.

14. Rate his ability to perform the job.

15. Rate his effort put forth on the job.

16. Rate his ability to perform the job without guidance.

17. Rate his initiative in performing the job.

18. Rate the quantity of work he performs on the job.

APPENDIX D

APPENDIX D

The General Manager's Response Sheet

BROADCASTING

MANAGEMENT

DECISION MAKING

PROJECT RESPONSE

SHEET

FORM NUMBER 3531

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18

RESERVES FOR COMPUTER USE

APPENDIX E

APPENDIX E

The Subordinate Manager's Questionnaire

The following statements are designed to show your relationship with your boss. Remember that your responses will be computer-processed, and that no one will have access to them so that you may be completely candid. Please respond according to this key:

1. Always
2. Often
3. Occasionally
4. Seldom
5. Never

1. He makes his attitudes clear to the group.
2. He tries out his new ideas with the group.
3. He rules with an iron hand.
4. He criticizes poor work.
5. He speaks in a manner not to be questioned.
6. He assigns group members to particular tasks.
7. He schedules work to be done.
8. He maintains definite standards of performance.
9. He emphasizes the meeting of deadlines.
10. He encourages the use of uniform procedures.
11. He lets group members know what is expected of them.
12. He sees to it that group members are working up to capacity.
13. He sees to it that the work of the group is coordinated.
14. He decides what will be done and how it shall be done.

APPENDIX E

(Continued)

- 2 -

15. He makes sure that his part in the organization is understood by all of the members.

16. He asks that all group members follow standard rules and regulations.

The following questions are designed to show the general structure of your job. Please respond to them according to the key provided with each item.

17. To what extent are you able to act independently of your supervisor in performing your job function?

1 hardly ever.
2 seldom.
3 occasionally.
4 frequently.
5 almost always.

18. How much are you required to depend on your superiors for the non-financial resources (information, supplies, etc.) necessary for the performance of your job?

1 almost always.
2 very much.
3 quite a bit.
4 seldom.
5 not at all.

19. How much must you rely on directions from others in the performance of routine jobs?

1 almost always.
2 very much.
3 quite a bit.
4 seldom.
5 not at all.

APPENDIX E

(Continued)

- 3 -

20. How often are you given assignments requiring you to search for a solution without directions from your superiors?

    1 rarely.
    2 sometimes.
    3 often.
    4 very often.
    5 almost always.

21. How much do your job rewards depend upon your ability to gain the cooperation of others?

    1 almost completely.
    2 very much.
    3 quite a bit.
    4 some.
    5 very little.

22. How often must you rely on directions from others in performing non-routine tasks?

    1 almost always.
    2 very often.
    3 often.
    4 sometimes.
    5 rarely.

23. How much do your job rewards depend upon your superiors?

    1 almost completely.
    2 very much.
    3 quite a bit.
    4 some.
    5 very little.

24. How often is it necessary for you to seek instructions from others prior to beginning new assignments?

    1 almost always.
    2 very often.
    3 often.
    4 occasionally.
    5 rarely.

APPENDIX E

(Continued)

- 4 -

25. When someone else in the company requests you to perform a task for them, how frequently do you seek advise from your superiors?

1 almost always.
2 very often.
3 often.
4 occasionally.
5 rarely.

26. How much do your job rewards depend on your performance?

1 very little.
2 some.
3 quite a bit.
4 very much.
5 almost completely.

27. How much of your satisfaction on the job is dependent upon your contact with your superiors?

1 very much.
2 quite a bit.
3 some.
4 little.
5 very little.

28. How much time do you have on your job to perform your regularly assigned functions rather than those specially assigned by your superiors?

1 very little.
2 little.
3 some.
4 quite a bit.
5 very much.

APPENDIX E

(Continued)

- 5 -

29. How much of your satisfaction on the job is determined by your superior's approval rather than by your feeling of accomplishment?

1 very much.
2 quite a bit.
3 some.
4 little.
5 very little.

30. To what extent are you able to schedule and plan your task requirements independent of others in your organization?

1 hardly ever.
2 seldom.
3 occasionally.
4 frequently.
5 almost always.

31. In your efforts to get ahead on your job, to what extent do you act as an innovator?

1 hardly ever.
2 seldom.
3 occasionally.
4 frequently.
5 almost always.

32. To what extent do the resources you receive (personnel, budget, etc.) depend on your superiors?

1 very large.
2 large.
3 some.
4 slight.
5 almost none.

33. To what extent do you participate in decisions concerning the methods to be used in performing your job?

1 almost always.
2 occasionally.
3 frequently.
4 usually.
5 never.

APPENDIX E

(Continued)

- 6 -

34. To what extent are you able to allocate a portion of your time to tasks related to corporate objectives but not specifically assigned to you?

1 very large.
2 large.
3 sometimes.
4 little.
5 almost never.

35. How often are you required to perform tasks which previously had not been a part of your job responsibility?

1 very often.
2 often.
3 sometimes.
4 occasionally.
5 rarely.

36. How often do you see projects through to completion?

1 rarely.
2 occasionally.
3 sometimes.
4 often.
5 very often.

37. To what extent do you set objectives, goals, and procedures for your job, rather than following directions or established procedures?

1 very large.
2 large.
3 somewhat.
4 little.
5 almost never.

APPENDIX E

(Continued)

- 7 -

The following items are designed to show the effectiveness of the chief engineer of your station. Remember that your responses will be computer processed, and that no one will have access to them so that you may be completely candid. Please respond according to this key:

1 excellent.
2 good.
3 average.
4 fair.
5 inadequate.

38. Rate the quality of his performance.

39. Rate his ability to perform the job.

40. Rate his effort put forth on the job.

41. Rate his ability to perform the job without guidance.

42. Rate his initiative in performing the job.

43. Rate the quantity of work he performs on the job.

APPENDIX E

(Continued)

- 7 -

The following items are designed to show the effectiveness of the programming manager of your station. Remember that your responses will be computer processed, and that no one will have access to them so that you may be completely candid. Please respond according to this key:

1 excellent.
2 good.
3 average.
4 fair.
5 inadequate.

38. Rate the quality of his performance.

39. Rate his ability to perform the job.

40. Rate his effort put forth on the job.

41. Rate his ability to perform the job without guidance.

42. Rate his initiative in performing the job.

43. Rate the quantity of work he performs on the job.

APPENDIX E

(Continued)

- 7 -

The following items are designed to show the effectiveness of the sales manager of your station. Remember that your responses will be computer processed, and that no one will have access to them so that you may be completely candid. Please respond according to this key:

1 excellent.
2 good.
3 average.
4 fair.
5 inadequate.

38. Rate the quality of his performance.

39. Rate his ability to perform the job.

40. Rate his effort put forth on the job.

41. Rate his ability to perform the job without guidance.

42. Rate his initiative in performing the job.

43. Rate the quantity of work he performs on the job.

APPENDIX E

(Continued)

- 8 -

The following questions are designed to provide a more complete picture of you. Please respond to them according to the key provided with each item.

44. How long have you been in your present position with your present station?

a. less than 6 months.
b. more than 6 months but less than 2 years.
c. more than 2 years but less than 4 years.
d. more than 4 years.

45. How long have you been with your present station?

a. less than 6 months.
b. more than 6 months but less than 2 years.
c. more than 2 years but less than 4 years.
d. more than 4 years.

46. How long have you worked in your present capacity in any station?

a. less than 6 months.
b. more than 6 months but less than 2 years.
c. more than 2 years but less than 4 years.
d. more than 4 years.

47. How long have you been employed in the broadcasting industry?

a. less than 6 months.
b. more than 6 months but less than 2 years.
c. more than 2 years but less than 4 years.
d. more than 4 years.

48. What is your age?

a. under 30.
b. over 30 but less than 40.
c. over 40 but less than 50.
d. over 50.

APPENDIX E

(Continued)

- 9 -

49. What is the highest level of education you have attained?

a. less than completion of high school.
b. completion of high school.
c. completion of high school and some college.
d. completion of baccalaureate degree.
e. completion of some graduate work.

50. Which of the following did you do your undergraduate/ graduate work in? (Use more than one response if necessary.)

a. television and radio or a related field.
b. journalism or advertising or a related field.
c. business or a related field.
d. electrical engineering or a related field.
e. none of the above/does not apply.

APPENDIX F

Example:

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APPENDIX F

The Subordinate Manager's Response Sheet

BROADCASTING

MANAGEMENT

DECISION MAKING

PROJECT RESPONSE

SHEET

Example:
What is the largest television market in the United States?

1. New York
2. Spokane
3. Detroit
4. Dallas
5. Miami

Number 1 is correct. Note the way it is marked in the response space marked "Example."

PAGE 1

FORM NUMBER _____

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APPENDIX F

(Continued)

BROADCASTING

MANAGEMENT

DECISION MAKING

PROJECT RESPONSE

SHEET

PAGE 2

FORM NUMBER _____

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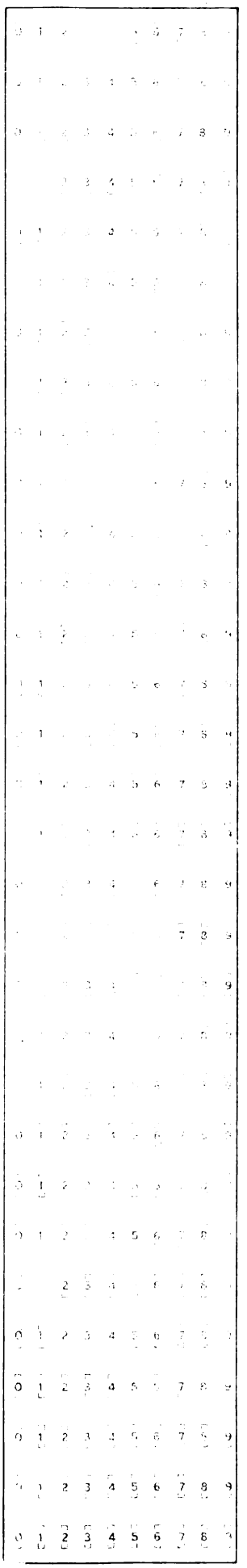

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