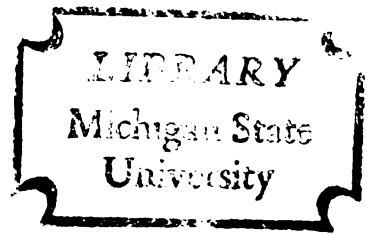


THE PERCEPTIONS OF ORGANIZATIONALLY
INVOLVED AND ORGANIZATIONALLY
UNINVOLVED STUDENTS TOWARDS
THE STATE OF THE ORGANIZATION
OF A SMALL COLLEGE

Thesis for the Degree of Ph. D.
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HARRY ELDON PIKE
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This is to certify that the

thesis entitled

The Perceptions of Organizationally Involved and
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State of the Organization of a Small College

presented by

Harry Eldon Pike

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

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A handwritten signature in cursive script, reading "John H. Luch".

Major professor

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ABSTRACT

THE PERCEPTIONS OF ORGANIZATIONALLY INVOLVED AND ORGANIZATIONALLY UNINVOLVED STUDENTS TOWARDS THE STATE OF THE ORGANIZATION OF A SMALL COLLEGE

By

Harry Eldon Pike

This study was designed to assess significant agreements and/or disagreements in the perceptions of the state of the organization of Lake Superior State College within and between two groups of students. One of the two groups consisted of 85 students who had no organizational involvement with the institution beyond their classroom contacts. The other group of 85 students were organizationally involved, that is, they occupied one or more behavioral "settings" within the institution, either as employees, members of all-campus governance committees, or participants in some branch of student government.

Likert's Profile of Organizational Characteristics questionnaire, as developed for use by students in colleges, was used to measure perceptions of the organizational climate of Lake Superior State College. This instrument identifies six organizational variables common

to all organizations, and ranging along an authoritarian-participative, or heavily bureaucratic-mildly bureaucratic continuum. The variables tested were: 1) Leadership Process, 2) Character of Motivational Forces, 3) Character of Communications Process, 4) Interaction-Influence Process, 5) Character of Decision-Making Process, and 6) Character of Goal-Setting Process.

The participants were asked to rank Lake Superior State College on each variable along the continuum. Individual scores were calculated for each variable, and mean scores for each of the two groups on each variable computed from that data.

The analysis of the data was done in two steps:

(1). Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance was used to determine the extent of agreement within each of the two student groups and to obtain a rank-ordering of the variables within each group.

(2). A two-way analysis of variance was used to determine the extent of agreement or disagreement existing between the two groups.

Major Questions Asked

(1). Is size a factor in the perceptions of students? Specifically, do the students at Lake Superior

State College view their institution in the same manner as students at Michigan State University's College of Education view theirs?

(2). Does involvement with the institution affect the perceptions students hold of its organization? Specifically, do students who occupy behavioral settings within the school tend to view it more favorably and as less bureaucratic in nature?

Findings

(1). Significant agreement existed within each of the groups on the definitions and the ordering of each of the six variables.

(2). There existed no significant difference between the two groups in their perceptions of the organizational climate of the college. Both groups, regardless of their degree of involvement with the organization, represent members of the same population.

(3). Both groups saw Lake Superior State College as bureaucratic in organization.

Conclusions

(1). Size does not appear to be a variable which in itself affects student attitudes towards educational

institutions. If size is a variable, it is apparently "washed out" by the impact of other variables.

(2). It is the system of organization which is critical in determining student attitudes. Student views in a large bureaucratic institution will be reflected by student views in a very small educational institution.

(3). The "neoclassical," or "human relations" approach to modifying bureaucracy may have little or no effect within educational institutions. Other factors, including perhaps an unavoidable role conflict between students and faculty, appear to be at work within schools to offset any changes in attitudes produced by changes within the organization itself.

Recommendations

(1). Lake Superior State College should reexamine its organizational patterns in light of the student attitudes determined by this study.

(2). National and local student organizations should be encouraged by educators to fund their own programs of research as a counterbalance to the "management"-funded research currently available.

(3). The use of the Likert scale should be extended to colleges and universities which are experimenting with alternate methods of organization.

(4). Educational institutions must be encouraged to regard themselves as legitimate fields of study and research. There is a nearly total lack of research on educational institutions as organizations, in spite of the fact that educational institutions themselves contain all of the resources to conduct such research.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

In a time of change and challenge, institutions of higher education are becoming more and more aware of themselves; are turning their eyes inward upon their own systems of organization. Perhaps few topics have received the attention that has been focused upon college and university systems of governance and organization in recent years. Much of this institutional self-analysis is the result of pressures brought to bear in the past decade upon systems of higher education: pressures from an increasingly organized and militant faculty on the one hand and an increasingly dissatisfied and militant student body on the other.

As systems of higher education have attempted to examine themselves, they have relied heavily upon models borrowed from the behavioral sciences, and specifically upon theories formulated for organizations dealing in the areas of business and industry. The findings gleaned from the empirical research in these fields have not been tested in educational institutions except in the most rudimentary

manner. Thus, the assumptions being used in education are assumptions by and large formulated for other systems, other forms of organization, and largely untested in scholastic settings.

One, and perhaps one of the most important examples of this general situation is the work of Rensis Likert. While his work on organizational theory was originally not tailored to the field of education, it has been applied by himself and by others to systems of higher education. One of the most recent of these applications was by Bechard¹ at Michigan State University. Operating on the assumption that educational institutions are in fact organizations, and using the prevailing attitudes of administrators, faculty, and students within one college at Michigan State University, his study concluded that Likert's theory and instrumentation did identify significant attitudes of the various groups involved, and that it was possible to isolate and identify existing conditions of perceptual dissonance. Bechard found, in fact, that Michigan State University's students, faculty, and administrators hold

¹J. E. Bechard, The College of Education at Michigan State University As An Organization: A Survey of the Perceptions of its Students, Faculty, and Administrators, Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Michigan State University, 1970.

most divergent views of their organization, and that a significant amount of dissonance existed between these groups.

The greatest amount of perceptual dissonance existed between the views that Michigan State's students held of their organization as compared to the views held by the faculty or by the administration. In all cases, the students in Bechard's study viewed their educational organization as more repressive and more bureaucratic than did either the faculty or the administration.

Bechard's work, however, did not attempt to discriminate between student groups, other than to divide them into graduate and undergraduate classifications. It therefore ignored some of Likert's assumptions about organizations (see Chapter II). The present study will attempt to discriminate between students, in terms of involvement with the organization, to determine if Likert's theoretical assumptions will still hold true.

One of the basic assumptions made by organizational, and by educational, theorists is that organizational size is a determining factor in the amount of satisfaction gained by a given individual within the organization. Indeed, as will be discussed in Chapter Two, it is generally assumed that smallness, both in class and in college size, is one answer to the problems besetting today's

schools. Newcomb,¹ Barker,² Perrucci,³ and Bales⁴ among others have all stressed that, other things being equal, a small organization will offer more support and satisfaction of its members than will a large one. Likert⁵ remarks that his theory does not encompass differences in organizational size, and notes that the largeness or smallness of the organization involved may affect any research done upon it.

This study will attempt to replicate that portion of Bechard's Michigan State Study which deals with students in an organization similar to Michigan State in structure but much smaller in size. It will attempt to determine if

¹T. M. Newcomb, What Happens to Students In College? (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, 1970), pp. 5-6.

²R. B. Barker and P. V. Gump, Big School, Small School, (Palo Alto: Stanford University Press, 1964), p. 196.

³R. Perrucci and R. A. Mormweiler, "Organizational Size, Complexity, and Administrative Succession in Higher Education," The Sociological Quarterly, Vol. 9, #3, 1968, pp. 343-356.

⁴R. F. Bales, "Some Uniformities of Behavior in Small Social Systems," in Swanson, G. and Newcomb, T., eds., Readings In Social Psychology, (New York: Holt and Co., 1952), p. 155.

⁵R. Likert, The Human Organization: Its Management and Value, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967), p. 97.

size is indeed a factor in the perceptions and satisfactions felt by student members of an academic community, and will add one additional dimension: it will attempt to determine if students active and participating within an educational organization differ significantly in their views of it than do students who are merely organizational "clients:" that is, students whose only contact with the institution is in a consumer role within the classroom setting.

THEORY

Educators have long been concerned, in one manner or another, with the question of the optimal size for educational units of organizations. While educational psychologists have stressed the advantages of the small classroom, college administrators have often devoted their energies to enlarging their institutions. Since the current era of campus unrest began in the early 1960's, the suggestion has been widespread in educational circles that one solution to the problems facing the colleges lay in decentralization, in breaking up the large college into a number of smaller units that could allow opportunities for all members of the academic community to interact and be heard.

In addition to legitimizing the role of the small college, such thinking has given birth to the "cluster," or residential college; typically a small subunit within a much larger university. Gaff¹ notes that the cluster college, because it is by definition small, can create a closer community, offer more personalized instruction, and foster warmer faculty-student relations than can a large university. He observes that "educators in college after college have come to the conclusion that they must organize the campus so that it will seem smaller as it grows larger."

The same thinking, and the same attempts at a structural solution, has been utilized in some large secondary schools. Ramsey,² in surveying the nation's secondary schools, calls them modern, sprawling institutions running the risk of becoming faceless factories that cannot remain sensitive to individual human beings, and recommends a decentralization pattern for these schools much like the cluster college concept in colleges and universities.

¹J. G. Gaff, The Cluster College, (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1970), p. 10.

²R. D. Ramsey, O. M. Henson and H. L. Hula The Schools-Within-A-School Program, (New York: Parker Publishing Company, Inc., 1967).

Newcomb,¹ while studying the effects of college upon students, moved close to most organizational theorists when he summed up the hypothetical ills that befall members of large educational institutions:

(1) Many diverse sub-populations will have little or no contact with one another; (2) Many procedures will become bureaucratic and impersonal, and will lead students (and also faculty) to feel that they are anonymous cogs in a huge machine; (3) Opportunities for individual participation in the life of the institution become increasingly limited--there are, so to speak, far fewer niches than there are people to fill them; (4) Academic life tends to become divorced from the "real" life of the student, who may never see either the teacher or the other members of his class between assigned hours of meeting.

Chickering,² in the course of commenting upon the undesirability of largeness for organizations engaged in the educational enterprise, makes much the same observations;

As the number of persons increases in relation to a given task or setting six things occur: (1) A smaller proportion of the total inhabitants actively participate. (2) The activities and responsibilities of those who do participate become less varied and more specialized. (3) Persons with marginal ability are left out, deprived of chances to develop further the skills they lack. (4) Evaluation shifts from how well a person's abilities fit the requirements for a given position, to how good one person is compared to another; distinctions are made on an

¹T. Newcomb, op. cit. p. 6.

²A. Chickering, Education and Identity, (San Francisco: Josey-Bass, Inc., 1969), p. 188.

increasingly fine basis. (5) A hierarchy of prestige and power develops. (6) Rules and conduct considered appropriate become formalized and rigid.

The types of organizations sketched above by Chickering and Newcomb would be those described by Rensis Likert as authoritarian. Likert¹ has conceptualized organizations as being four types, the first three of which are authoritarian in varying degrees. These systems he has labeled exploitative, benevolent, and consultative, in descending order of authoritarianism. The fourth, and non-authoritarian, system Likert calls the participative. For labeling purposes, and again in descending order of authoritarianism, Likert has labeled his systems System 1, 2, 3, and 4. He places them along a continuum for purposes of organizational analysis, and characterizes the amount of unilateral control exercised by individuals within the organization by its place along the continuum.

An organization which, after diagnosis, would be placed along the System 4 portion of the continuum would be one, according to Likert, which places emphasis on effective group functioning, a supportive ego-building climate for its members, and cooperative relationships. It will have high performance aspirations, shared by all its members, and will effectively use groups as its basic

¹R. Likert, New Patterns of Management, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. 1961).

decision-making units, rather than relying upon man-to-man, superior-to-subordinate, methods of making its decisions.

The assumption is made, by Likert as well as by educational theorists, that sheer size is a factor in determining how an organization will operate. Likert notes that "before discussing the influence of (other) conditions, it will be well to point out that other factors, such as variations in the size of the departments...can also affect the relationships found in a particular study. Size tends to adversely affect the intervening and end-result variables. The larger the department, the less favorable the attitudes and the poorer the performance."¹

In the same observation, Likert observes that any study done on organizations of differing size will probably reflect the influence of differences in size more than it will reflect the true relationships actually existing between the variables involved.

Should this statement be true, it would appear to rule out the usefulness of Likert's conceptual scheme as a tool for any comparative analysis of educational institutions, or even as a tool for comparing departments within a college or university, should they be of varying sizes.

¹R. Likert, op. cit, p. 97.

And yet, as a few observers of American education have pointed out, there is nothing in the research on educational organizations to support the theory that size is in fact a variable affecting educational institutions in any way. Eurich¹ notes that arguments in this regard always place the burden of proof on those who equate large size with ineffective teaching or organization, when in fact the available research evidence indicates that the procedure should be reversed.

It would appear, therefore, that arguments such as that presented by Kerr for the decentralization of our colleges may tend to rest on completely unproven theoretical assumptions, logical though they might appear on the surface. Kerr holds that

Greater involvement is possible only if we bring governance down to where the faculty and students are, that is, if we decentralize governance to small units of the campus. A college of letters and science that has 16,000 students and 1,000 faculty is not likely to have meaningful involvement; subunits of 500 students and fifty faculty members can.²

Bechard,³ using Likert's Profile of Organizational Characteristics to measure the organizational climate of

¹A. C. Eurich, Reforming American Education, (New York: Harper and Row, 1969).

²C. Kerr, The Uses of the University, (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1964).

³J. Bechard, op. cit.

the College of Education at Michigan State University, found that the nature of the College was bureaucratic, that both students and, to a lesser extent, faculty, viewed their participation in the organization as being at a low level, and that the administrative group was significantly out of touch with the organizational life of the college. Further, both students and faculty viewed the organization as being strongly hierarchical in nature. The College of Education, in other words, appears to fit the pattern claimed by Kerr and others for large, traditionally organized institutions.

Two questions may be posed: does a difference in organizational size and structure in fact make a difference in educational institutions, at least insofar as they are perceived by their members, and is Likert's Profile of Organizational Characteristics capable of discriminating such differences if they do exist?

Purpose of the Study

The general purpose of this study is to explore three questions: (1) is Likert's instrumentation an accurate tool, as Bechard's Michigan State Study would indicate, for diagnosing the organizational climate of an educational institution as it is perceived by a portion of its membership, (2) is size a factor in the perception

students hold of their organization, and (3) does involvement with the organization cause, as the work of numerous organizational theorists would indicate, a difference in the perceptions students hold of their educational institution? In detail, the purpose of this study shall be to:

1. Survey the perceptions of a randomly selected group of students at Lake Superior State College regarding the state of the organization in terms of their experience. This group shall include students who occupy no position, either formal or informal, within the organization.
2. Survey the perceptions of a randomly selected group of students at Lake Superior State College regarding the state of the organization in terms of their experience. This group shall include students who occupy behavioral "settings" (see Chapter II) within the college, who are a part of its formal or informal structure.
3. Determine the shared perceptions of the present state of the organization at Lake Superior State College held by the two groups of students identified in (1) and (2) above.
4. Determine areas of perceptual dissonance about the state of the organization as identified by the two groups of students identified in (1) and (2) above.

5. Compare the data gathered above to Bechard's Michigan State findings in an attempt to gauge the effects of size and involvement upon student attitudes towards educational organizations.
6. Seek answers to a series of questions, stated elsewhere under "Questions To Be Answered," relevant to the data gathered.

General Questions to be Answered

Questions this study will attempt to answer include:

1. Is there a substantial agreement among two groups of students, differentiated by their degree of involvement with the institution, as to their perceptions of the state of the organization of Lake Superior State College?
2. Is there a substantial disagreement among two groups of students, differentiated by their degree of involvement with the institution, as to their perceptions of the state of the organization of Lake Superior State College?
3. Are the perceptions of Lake Superior State College students similar to those of Michigan State students regarding the state of their respective organizations, irrespective of differences in size between the two organizations?

Significance of the Study

The study is significant in several respects. First, it attempts to apply Likert's approach of systematic organizational diagnosis to an entire college, rather than to a subunit of a college as was done in Bechard's work.

Students, faculty, and administrators who study or serve within a given academic area or unit are still part of a larger organization, the college itself in all its many parts. The student, for example, must deal with an organization made up not just of the faculty and administration in his major academic area, but one made up of faculty from other disciplines, of student service personnel, of librarians, of dormitory supervisors, to name but a few. All of these persons and more comprise the organization from the student's viewpoint.

Few faculty deal only with students and peers from within their own departments. Today's systems of faculty governance, of broadly based committee structures, and cross-disciplinary course offerings makes rare the faculty member who does not interact with those outside of his immediate department or area. Administrators, especially those who deal in the allocation of resources, must also attempt to view the organization as a whole, rather than as a series of isolated subparts.

All of these groups, faced as they are with an increasing demand for change, are in need of baseline data on the current state of their organization. Without such data, change can only be random and essentially directionless. This study may further validate Likert's methodology as a means of gathering such baseline data.

Secondly, the study seeks to provide information on the question of organizational size. As is noted in Chapter II, organizational theorists and behavioral scientists, including Likert himself, almost universally make the assumption that organizational size and member satisfaction are related. That is, the smaller the size, the greater the member satisfaction. It may equally be true, however, that size is not a factor at all. A totally autocratic, but very small organization, whatever opportunities it provides for member-to-member interaction may be just as prone to dissatisfaction and dissonance as might an autocratic large organization. In other words, the method of organization may be as, or even more, important than the size of the organization.

Since Lake Superior State College is organized along the same lines as is Michigan State University, and since Lake Superior State College is in fact perhaps more centralized than is Michigan State University, it is hoped that the study will provide some insight as to the relative effects of organizational size and organizational behavior.

Assumptions Underlying This Study

As Bechard notes, a study effort is in essence an argument. Both sides in any argument must accept certain basic assumptions if their dialogue is to bear fruit. The following assumptions underlie this study and are central to it:

1. Educational institutions are organizations with organizational characteristics that can be isolated and identified.
2. As organizations with identifiable characteristics, educational institutions may be valid subjects for study using general organizational theory.
3. The instrument designed by Rensis Likert is a valid tool for diagnosing educational institutions. This assumption, while certainly open to challenge, is central to the study since no completely reliable tool for diagnosing educational institutions exists at this time.
4. Different organizational structures will produce different psychological and sociological climates for the participants.
5. Effective and ineffective organizations may be identified in behavioral terms.
6. Once identified, ineffectual organizations can be changed to provide more member satisfaction and to achieve a greater proportion of organizational goals.

Definitions of Key Terms

An Organization--A social system, with a formal or informal hierarchy, which contains a plurality of parts interacting in various degrees to achieve specific objectives.

State of an Organization--The current status of an organization with respect to such items as leadership behavior, member motivation, communications and decision-making processes, and member satisfaction. The term is also used to indicate the congruence of perceptions regarding a given organization.

Characteristics of an Organization--The sum total of the organizational processes that would serve to categorize the organization by placing it on a continuum ranging from "open" systems to "closed" systems.

Superior--For the purpose of this study, an assumption of the existence of hierarchical levels within the overall organization of Lake Superior State College. The term refers to members of the organization who occupy a higher position on the hierarchical ladder than the respondent. Thus, for the student, the term would indicate faculty, dormitory supervisors, department and division chairmen, student services personnel, and members of the central administration such as the president and vice-presidents of the college.

Subordinate--Refers to members of the organization who occupy a position lower to or equal to that of the respondent.

Academic matters--Includes course content, instructional plans and methods, and policies covering teacher behavior within the classroom.

Non-academic matters--Includes student behavior, discipline, student activities, counseling, and other non-academic services provided the student by the college.

Leadership Process--As defined by Likert, the extent to which persons in leadership positions are able to create climates of trust and confidence with subordinates, the degree to which they exhibit supportive forms of behavior, and the degree to which they seek and apply the ideas and opinions of subordinates. Also includes the extent to which subordinates feel free to discuss important matters about their jobs with their superiors, and the degree to which subordinates have trust and confidence in superiors.

Interaction Forces--As defined by Likert, the character, amount, and direction of interaction involved in the flow of information within an organization. Includes accuracy of communications, willingness to share information, adequacy of upward, downward, and lateral communications, and the extent to which communications are accepted and clearly perceived by others within the organization.

Motivational Forces--As defined by Likert, the physical, economical, psychological, or sociological pressures present within an organization that influence task performance. Includes the amount of responsibility felt by each member of the organization for achieving organizational goals, the kinds of attitudes developed towards the organization and towards other members of the organization, and the extent to which underlying motives like physical security, economic needs, status, ego motives, affiliation, and achievement are utilized.

Organizational Size--The total number of participants within the organization.

Decision-making Process--As defined by Likert, the manner in which an organization seeks alternatives, establishes priorities, and sets courses of action. An organization would be "open" in this regard if subordinates are fully involved in decision-making, if full information is available for decision-making at the level in the hierarchy where the decision must be made, and if the overall pattern of decision-making involves teamwork between superior and subordinate.

Goal-Setting Process--After Likert, the procedures used by an organization to establish its purposes and objectives. An organization is "open" in this regard if goals are not set by administrative fiat, but by a participative process involving all levels of the organization.

Organizational Profile of
Lake Superior State College

Lake Superior State College currently enrolls 1348 full time students, the largest full time enrollment in the school's history. They are spread throughout five academic divisions, the largest of which contains 450 students. The academic divisions and their enrollments are listed below:

<u>Academic Division</u>	<u>No. of Students</u>
Applied Science	221
Arts and Letters	76
Business Administration	240
Natural Sciences	296
Social Sciences	450

The five academic divisions contain ninety-five faculty members, organized into fifteen departments, each with its own chairman. College administrative personnel include its president, a vice-president for academic affairs, a vice-president for business affairs, the dean of students, registrar, dean of admissions, and director of auxiliary enterprises.

Governance of the college rests with three councils and seventeen committees. The councils include the Academic Affairs Council, the Administrative Council, and the Student Affairs Council, while the committees range from Campus Planning to Student-Faculty Relations. Each council and committee is made up of administrators, faculty and

students, with a total of forty-four committee positions reserved for students. Any student is eligible to serve on a committee which interests him, applying for committee appointment through the Student Senate, the student governing body of the college.

The Student Senate consists of twenty members, four from each academic division, and four permanent officers: the President of the Student Body, a Vice-President for Student Affairs, a Vice-President for Student Social Life, and a Vice-President for Finance. These latter officers are elected annually by the entire student body.

Seven students, elected annually, form the Student judiciary, chief disciplinary body on Lake Superior State College's campus. There are currently thirty-eight recognized clubs and special interest organizations on campus, with a collective membership totalling some 490 students. Thus, in Barker's¹ terminology, a large number of "settings" are available for each individual on campus. A "setting" is defined as having two major components, behavior and objects with which behavior is transacted, and as having fairly well established boundaries within which behavior may be transacted, either with other persons or with objects.

It is equally important to note that no governing body or committee on the college campus can make decisions

¹R. G. Barker and P. V. Gump, op. cit.

or policy; this power is reserved to the chief administrative officer on campus and to the Board of Control. Committees, while perhaps providing involvement in terms of real power, can only issue recommendations.

Overview

The problem has been identified in Chapter I and the supporting theories touched upon. Lake Superior State College and its organizational system has been described. Chapter II presents a review of relevant literature. Chapter III features the research design, instrumentation, and techniques used in the study. Chapter IV includes the findings of the study. Chapter V features a summary of the findings and makes recommendations based upon them.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

There is as yet little research on educational institutions as organizations, and such research as does exist is often contradictory in its conclusion. Indeed, the existing body of research appears to rest on several conflicting basic assumptions. There is serious dispute within the field of education as to whether or not schools, be they elementary, secondary, or college level, can be studied as can other organizations. Since this dispute is central to any discussion of the manner in which schools are organized and studied, it will be examined in the first section of this chapter.

It has already been noted that size is widely considered to be an important variable in determining a number of factors about a given organization. In general, the assumption appears to be that "small is good" and "big is bad." Much of the existing theory on organization would appear to support this point of view, although there is lacking even a basic agreement on the definition of the terms "big" and "small," especially as the terms apply to

educational institutions. This disagreement will be surveyed in the second section of this chapter, and the existing research on organizational size and its effects noted.

The third section shall examine those elements of existing organizational theory relevant to this study. It will concentrate on types of organizational structures and their presumed effects upon those individuals who function within the organization. Central to this discussion will be an examination of the theory of Rensis Likert, upon whose work the research conducted for this study was based.

The School As An Organization

Most organizational theorists do not distinguish between kinds or types of organizations in their theoretical constructions. The assumption is often made that organizational theory applies to all organizations, and its constructs are thus generally stated in absolute terms: one encounters frequently the phrases "all" organizations, "any" organization, or merely the all-inclusive "organizations."

This assumption has been recognized and defended in some detail. Likert and Katz note that:

One of the basic concepts underlying our work is that no matter how varied the task, the same fundamental principles are applicable to the effective organization of human activity. Everytime we want to get a group of

people to do something and we organize them to do the job, certain fundamental principles are applicable.¹

To Rubenstein,² the most exciting and potentially powerful aspect of organizational theory is the similarity among individual organizations and between kinds or types of organizations. He observes that "the remarkable thing is that there are so many similarities among organizations--so many characteristics and behaviors that are strikingly similar in essence, if not in detail."

Some of the most famous of educational theorists have accepted this point of view. Callahan³ quotes John Dewey as saying that there is not, nor cannot be, any such thing as an independent "science of education." Instead, as Callahan reflects Dewey's view, material drawn from other sciences must furnish the content of any approach to the organizational problems of education.

Kembrough feels that the current state of educational organizational theory can be ascribed to the relative

¹R. Likert and D. Katz, "Supervisory Practices and Organizational Structures As They Affect Employee Productivity and Morale" in Executive Personality and Job Success, (New York: Personnel Series #120, American Management Association, 1948), p. 14.

²A. H. Rubenstein, "The Nature of Organizational Theory," in Rubenstein, Haberstroh, and Chadwick, Some Theories of Organization, (Homewood, Illinois: The Dorsey Press, 1966), p. 11.

³R. E. Callahan, Education and the Cult of Efficiency, (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1962).

lateness of its development:

The notion of formal study usually implies the existence of a systematized body of knowledge to be studied and learned. But in educational administration this body of knowledge has not yet been clearly defined... educational administration finds it possible to borrow bodies of knowledge from other specializations such as public and business administration, each of which has a longer history of dealing with the problem of directing the affairs of men. To the extent that all forms of administration have common elements, such knowledge is interchangeable.¹

One of the first and most famous instruments for diagnosing the organizational climate of schools was developed by Halpin and Croft. Their work was not however motivated by a belief in the uniqueness of schools as organizations, but rather by a belief that schools were interchangeable, for research purposes, with many other types of organizations. They state that:

A fourth impetus was our interest in organizational climate as such, whether in a school, in a hospital, a military unit, or a business corporation. Fortuitous circumstances made it convenient for us to begin the study of organizational climate with schools. We surmise that, if we had started instead with business corporations, we would have identified a similar set of sub-tests and a similar array of climates.²

The authors later acknowledged some deficiencies in their instrument, deficiencies worth noting in light of the later development of the Likert instrumentation.

¹R. Kembrough, Political Power and Educational Decision-Making, (New York: Rand McNally Inc., 1964) p. 92

²A. W. Halpin, Theory and Research In Administration, (New York: The McMillen Company, 1966) p. 132.

Halpin and Croft, in common with Likert, do not allow or suggest any criterion for checking a school's effectiveness. In addition, their instrument does not consider the impact of groups upon their formal and informal leaders, and the authors concluded that data gathered with it could not be used for change, for a frontal attack upon any symptoms of organizational illness besetting a school.

As early as 1935, some educational theorists had begun to evidence concern over the link between organizational and educational theory. Good¹ listed in that year two questions as demanding immediate study by those interested in educational institutions: (1) the relationship of education to unworthy interests in business and politics, and (2) the limitations upon the application of principles of business and industrial management to the problems of educational administration (Can a school be operated like a factory?).

The same questions have been echoed in the years since. Halpin² complained in 1966 that

we have found ourselves drawing heavily upon insights into administration derived from other disciplines. At the same time we are appalled by the poverty of theory within our own field and dismayed by the extent to which our own research has been anchored to 'naked empiricism'.

¹C. V. Good, The Methodology of Educational Research, (New York: Appleton-Century-Croft, Inc., 1935), p. 833.

²A. W. Halpin, op. cit. p. 3.

More direct criticisms have been set forth.

Downey and Enns¹ charge that

education differs organizationally and processually from other institutions, and hence those who have attempted to draw upon the organizational models of other institutions, such as the factory system or political bureaucracy, as the inspiration for educational administration, operate under erroneous assumptions.

In addition to holding that the model is false, some observers of the educational scene believe that reliance upon it is the source of most of education's problems.

The plausibility of radical challenge to automatization and computerization in education remains remote... as long as (our belief) carries its own heavy burden of influence--namely, that the best organization of education is to be found in models of business, with directors and managers properly in command, and with the rest of the personnel of education largely subject to their orders. The line-staff structure of education is a major source of current student and faculty revolt. Behind this revolt is an awakening...that the analogy with business models is blatantly false.²

This issue dividing those who attempt to apply institutional theory to education is far from being resolved: indeed, while it has been perceived for at least thirty-five years, it has yet to be clearly stated and made the subject of a concerted program of investigation.

¹L. W. Downey and F. Enns, The Social Sciences and Educational Administration, (Canada: University of Alberta Press, 1963), p. 37.

²T. Bromeld, "Illusions and Disillusions in American Education," Phi Delta Kappan, pp. 202-207, Vol. L, #4, December 1968.

Some investigators have approached the problem by attempting to identify the similarities and the differences held by business and educational organizations. Grass¹ notes that the two types of organizations are similar in that they divide authority among competing power groups, that they most often both utilize a staff-line concept of management, and that both contain formal and informal structures, clearly defined roles, and formal and informally defined norms.

On the other hand, there are in Grass' view, at least seven differences which distinguish the two kinds of organizations:

1. In schools, unlike industry, the career line is limited, and based usually on seniority rather than on merit.
2. There is little real specialization in schools.
3. Power in schools is contended for by competing professional organizations.
4. The objects that schools process, the students, can in themselves become a threat to the organization.

N. Grass, "The Use and Abuse of Sociological Inquiry In Training Programs for Educational Administrators," in L. W. Downey and F. Enns The Social Sciences and Educational Administration, (Canada: University of Alberta Press, 1963).

5. Financial control in schools often resides with one group, while decisions regarding expenditures must be made by another.
6. The boundaries governing a school's activities are not often clearly defined, and are therefore both open to attack and difficult to defend.
7. It is very difficult to achieve system-wide coordination in school systems. If such coordination is achieved, it very often causes more problems than it solves.

Other authors have also viewed education and industry as essentially different types of activities, but for varying reasons. Bidwell¹ argues that schools differ from the classic bureaucratic structure in the looseness of articulation which exists between subunits and in the lack of highly specialized teaching careers within the overall teaching profession. No bureaucratic teaching career exists.

Further, in Bidwell's view, the intrinsic nature of teaching, the need for warm personal relationships, runs counter to bureaucratic principles of organization.

¹C. E. Bidwell, "The School As A Formal Organization," in March, J. G., ed., Handbook of Organizations, (Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1965), pp. 972-1022.

Efforts to bureaucracize the educational process have forced teachers into a tight-knit fighting group, an effect not anticipated by administrators.

London¹ notes much the same result when he argues that teachers cannot effectively control their conditions of work. He holds that administrators, once absorbed into a bureaucratic hierarchy, can no longer retain an understanding of teachers' problems: hence the need for strong teachers' unions.

However true these views may be, educational administrative theorists still argue for a structure heavily bureaucratic. Thus, Douglass² points out the advantages of using a committee structure in schools, a committee structure based on business and military models. He observes that such a structure must be essentially manipulative, since "participation may lead to undesirable conclusions, to controversy and disagreement, making the lot of the leader difficult." He also stresses the need for strict role definition, enforced if necessary by the governing board.

Differences have been identified, but the central issue dividing those who must view schools as organizations

¹J. London, "The Development of a Grievance Procedure in the Public Schools," Educational Administration and Supervision, Vol. 43, No. 1, Jan. 1957. pp. 1-18.

²H. R. Douglass, Modern Administration of Secondary Schools, (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1954), p. 16.

is far from being resolved. General organizational theory may be capable of being applied to educational systems without modification, but doubts have been raised as long ago as thirty-five years, and the issue has yet to be clearly stated and made the subject of a concerted program of identification.

Organizational Size

There has long been presumed to be a direct relationship between the size of an organization and the attitudes toward it of its members. In general it is presumed that, the larger the organization, the greater the chance of alienation from it, or even outright hostility towards it, on the part of its members.

This relationship generally rests on the presumed existence of two variables: the opportunities in a given organization for face-to-face contact with other members of an organization, and the opportunities available for participation for each member of the organization.

Theodore M. Newcomb, who has extensively studied the impact of colleges upon students, sums up the operation of these variables in an educational setting:

The sheer size of a college or university affects many of the processes through which students are most likely to experience change. The larger the institution, the more probable it is that all of the following will occur: (1) Many diverse subpopulations will have little or no contact with each other; (2) Many proceedings will become bureaucratic and impersonal, and

will lead students (and also faculty) to feel that they are anonymous cogs in a huge machine; (3) opportunities for individual participation in the life of the institution become increasingly limited--there are, so to speak, far fewer niches than there are people to fill them...

Opportunities for participation, the concept of niches, or "settings" has been explored by several educational theorists. Gump and Barker² explored the opportunities available students in schools of various sizes. They defined "settings" as "a place where a student can satisfy a number of personal motives; where they can achieve multiple satisfactions; a setting contains opportunities."

Defining a "small" school as one containing less than 150 students, Barker and Gump found that small schools offer students up to twenty times the number of settings as does a larger school. Students in these schools, according to their report, have or exhibit greater effort, undertake more difficult or important tasks, display more responsibility, show more frequent occurrences of success and failure, and hold a greater functional self-identity.

Barker and Gump found that as schools became larger, the settings they offered inevitably became more heavily populated. Students began to feel less needed, became superfluous and redundant.

¹T. Newcomb, op. cit, p. 6.

²R. G. Barker, loc. cit, p. 25.

Chickering,¹ discussing the same concept of "setting," observes that limited opportunities for involvement probably interfere with the educational purpose of the school. He holds that when students are superfluous they "don't develop much. The basic point is that when a student is superfluous in a given situation, the less he is apt to be affected by it or to develop in the ways the setting was designed to foster."

Chickering² holds that small schools have the following consequences for students:

1. They experience twice as many pressures to participate, or to meet the expectations of the school, as do students in small schools. In addition, students who are marginal academically receive up to five times as much pressure to participate as they do in large schools.

2. Evaluation of students in small schools tends to be based on their contributions, while evaluation of students in large schools tends to be based on comparisons with one another.

3. Students in small schools tend to develop relatively limited competence in a wide variety of areas, while those in large schools tend to develop greater competence in a limited number of areas.

¹A. Chickering, op. cit., p. 186.

²Ibid. p. 190.

While the concept of settings would appear to be a useful one for diagnostic purposes, little or no research exists which tests the relationship of size or involvement in settings to student development and attitudes.

Chickering observes that

to the best of my knowledge, there has been no research that has attempted to study relationships between student attitudes and college size...this, I can only hypothesize that redundancy has implications for the development of competence, the development of identity, the freeing of interpersonal relationships, and the development of integrity.¹

This lack of research has not prevented an almost universal condemnation of sheer size in our organizations, especially our educational organizations. Indeed, many observers have held that size has been the dominant factor in the past decade of student unrest. S. L. Halleck,² in offering a series of observations about student unrest, sums up the thrust of these observers by noting that

a third hypothesis favorable to students is offered by those who believe that student unrest is an appropriate response to the deterioration of the quality of life in America. Students are among the first to sense the painful anonymity associated with bigness. This is a particularly serious problem on overcrowded campuses where students are painfully isolated from their teachers and other adults. A sense of student-faculty intimacy and a sense of scholarly community are sorely lacking on any of our large campuses.

¹A. Chickering, op. cit., p. 191.

²S. L. Halleck, "Twelve Hypothesis of Student Unrest," in Smith, K. G., ed., Stress and Campus Response, (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc. 1968), p. 124.

Research in the functioning of small groups would appear to support the thesis that a relationship exists between group size and morale, or a sense of belonging. A. Paul Hare¹ gave groups of varying size a hypothetical emergency to solve. He found that the smaller the group, the greater the degree of consensus reached regarding a solution. Further, the larger the group, the greater the amount of discord.

Launor Carter² and his associates, working with groups varying from four to eight members found no difference in problem-solving abilities between groups, but observed that the smaller groups offered much greater participation for each member. Anderson and Workov,³ examining employee morale in hospitals through an analysis of turnover rates, found that middle-size institutions (1,000 to 4,999 employees) had lower turnover rates than did institutions of over 5,000 employees or under 1,000 employees. They theorize that turnover is not a function

¹A. P. Hare, "Interaction and Consensus in Different Sized Groups," American Sociological Review, Vol. 17, 1952, pp. 261-267.

²C. F. Carter, "Evaluating the Performance of Individuals as Members of Small Groups," in Kemp, C. G., Perspectives on the Group Process, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1964) pp. 361-365.

³T. R. Anderson and S. Workov, "Organizational Size and Functional Complexity: A Study of Administration in Hospitals," American Sociological Review, 26, Feb., 1961, pp. 23-28.

of morale in the very small hospital but tends to be higher because of the lack of protection a small organization could offer its employees.

Schellenberg,¹ investigating student satisfaction with classroom groupings of various sizes, found that a systematic pattern developed which varied inversely with group size. Satisfaction in the experience decreased as the size of the groups increased, no matter what criterion of student satisfaction was used.

Golembiewski sums up a number of small group studies by observing that certain relations appear to exist between the sizes of human groupings and the communication pattern within those groupings. He notes that as size increases:

The most active participator in a group becomes increasingly differentiated from other group members in terms of initiation and reception of verbal communications. Other group members become increasingly undifferentiated from each other in terms of initiation and reception of verbal communication. Other restraints growing with less freedom of group interaction are greater dissatisfaction, greater pressure of time limits, greater tendency for groups to break up into factions, and the like.²

¹J. A. Schellenberg, "Group Size as a Factor in Success of Academic Discussion Groups," in Kemp, C. G., Perspectives on the Group Process, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1964), pp. 96-101.

²Robert T. Golembiewski, "The Small Group," (University of Chicago Press, Chicago and London: 1962), p. 146.

Slater¹ found groups of 4 to 6 members to be the most satisfying to their membership, with groups larger than six encouraging too much aggressiveness, impulsiveness, competitiveness and inconsiderateness in their members. He further observed that groups larger than six tended to break up into cliques, or to become overcentralized.

Thomas and Fink,² after surveying the research done on group size through 1960, concluded that as the size of a given group increases "there will be decreasing group cohesiveness and increasing organization and division of labor in the group, along with the development of cliques and possibly of factions."

While satisfaction appears to increase as the size of a group decreases, some researchers have suggested that this effect is unrelated to the effectiveness of the group. It has already been noted that the size of today's schools is often cited as a cause of student dissatisfaction. Yet, contrary to a widely held belief in education, some research suggests that there is no direct relationship between group, or class, size and rate of learning. Hoover

¹Philip E. Slater, "Contrasting Correlates of Group Size, Sociometry, (June 1968), pp. 129-139

²Edwin J. Thomas and Clinton F. Fink, "Effects of Group Size," in Hare, Paul A., Borgatta, E. F., and Bales, R. F. eds., "Small Groups: Studies in Social Interaction," (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1967), pp. 525-534.

and his associates¹ studied learning groups in colleges, groups that ranged in size from small discussion groups of ten students or less through classes of thirty to giant lecture groups of more than two hundred students. They found the giant lecture group to be as effective a learning medium as the other sized groups, and concluded that size is not a factor in determining how well students learn material. The authors concluded that the teacher may be the critical factor in how well students learn, rather than the size of their learning groups. Should this be so, it would suggest that the concepts of settings, of student redundancy applies not to the classroom but to extra-curricular activities only, and that it is in large part the happenings outside of the classroom that influence student attitudes towards their institution.

The student is redundant in the large lecture. Bales,² in looking at small social systems, sums up the changes that occur in work groups as they expand in size:

As groups increase in size, a larger and larger relative proportion of the activity tends to be addressed to

¹K. H. Hoover, V. H. Boumann and S. Schaffer, "The Influence of Class-size Variations on Cognitive and Affective Learning of College Freshmen", The Journal of Experimental Education, Vol. 38, No. 3, Spring 1970. pp. 39-43.

²R. F. Bales, "Some Uniformities of Behavior in Small Social Systems", in Swanson, G., Newcomb, T., Readings in Social Psychology, (New York: Holt and Co., 1952), pp. 146-159.

the top man, and a smaller and smaller relative proportion to other members...the communication pattern tends to centralize around a leader through whom flows most of the communication.

Caplow,¹ in attempting to structure categories of organizational size, used the concept of interaction possibilities as his criteria, feeling that interaction patterning is independent of other classifications. Thus, he defines "small groups" as primary groups, in which every member interacts individually with every other member. Using his classification system, most colleges and universities would be either "large groups," in which no member can know each of the others, but in which one or more members can at least be recognized by each of the other members, or "giant groups," in which only through mass communication devices can any one member either communicate with, or be recognized by, most of the other members. Caplow sets a lower size limit of ten thousand persons on such a group, while the large group has a lower size limit of approximately one thousand persons.

Gross,² in a study of goal congruence in American colleges and universities, surveyed over 15,000 faculty

¹T. Caplow, "Organizational Size," Administrative Science Quarterly, , Vol. 11, No. 2, 1967, pp. 484-505.

²E. Gross, "Universities as Organizations: A Research Approach," American Sociological Review, Vol. 33, No. 4, 1968, pp. 518-544.

and administrators. In interpreting his findings, he reached the conclusion that size may be an important variable in determining individual perceptions, but that it is "washed out" by other variables. He holds that if the impact of these other variables, which he does not specify, are examined the impact of size as an independent organizational variable would disappear. This is essentially the argument used by Hoover and his associates when they claim that it is the teacher, and not the class size, that affects learning.

Clearly, size, in spite of the importance attached to it as a factor in educational efficiency and satisfaction, has not been legitimately installed in the pantheon of variables which may have an effect upon educational institutions. While some research, and some common sense, would appear to support the importance of size as a variable, there has been little or no systematic research done which would verify this importance. It may even be, as some investigators have suggested, that size disappears as an important factor under the impact of other aspects or organizational life and functioning.

The Organizational Theory of Rensis Likert

Scott¹ defines three branches of organizational theory; the classical, the neoclassical, and the modern. The classical, in Scott's definition, includes the classical bureaucracy of Max Weber, while the neoclassical incorporates the body of theory called "human relations," and the modern spans systems theory and analysis.

He defines the human relations school as that which incorporates research and theory from the behavioral sciences and focuses on the informal organization, ignored by classical bureaucratic theory. According to Scott, the major interests of human relations school, in addition to production, are human needs and interests, aspects of social control, communications theory, and leadership techniques.

These interests are not included in older theories of bureaucracy. The major definition of classical bureaucracy is that of Max Weber² and it is Weber's definition that is most often cited when the term is used:

1. Organization tasks are distributed among the various positions as official duties. Implied is

¹W. R. Scott, "Organization Theory: An Overview and an Appraisal" in Davis and Scott, Readings in Human Relations, 2nd edition, (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1964), pp. 112-135.

²H. H. Gerth and C. W. Mills eds., From Max Weber: Essays in Sociology, (New York: Oxford University Press, 1946), pp. 196-204.

a clear cut division of labor among positions which makes possible a high degree of specialization. Specialization, in turn, promotes expertness among the staff, both directly and by enabling the organization to hire employees on the basis of their technical qualifications.

2. The positions of offices are organized into a hierarchical authority structure. In the usual case this hierarchy takes on the shape of a pyramid wherein each official is responsible for his subordinate's decisions and actions as well as his own to the superior above him in the pyramid and wherein each official has authority over the officials under him. The scope of authority of superiors over subordinates is clearly established.
3. A formally established system of rules and regulations governs official decisions and actions. In principle, the operations of these general regulations insure the uniformity of operations and, together with the authority structure, make possible the coordination of the various activities. They also provide for continuity in operations regardless of changes in personnel, thus promoting a stability lacking, as we have seen, in charismatic movements.
4. Officials are expected to assume an impersonal orientation in their contacts with clients and with other officials. Clients are to be treated as cases, the officials being expected to disregard all personal considerations and to maintain complete emotional detachment, and subordinates are to be treated in a similar impersonal fashion. The social distance between hierarchical levels and that between officials and their clients is intended to foster such formality. Impersonal detachment is designed to prevent the personal feelings of officials from distorting their rational judgement in carrying out their duties.
5. Employment by the organization constitutes a career for officials. Typically an official is a full-time employee and looks forward to a life-long career in the agency. Employment is based on the technical qualifications of the candidate rather than on political, family, or other connections. Usually, such qualifications are tested by examination or by certificates that demonstrate the candidate's educational attainment--college

degrees, for example. Such educational qualifications create a certain amount of homogeneity among officials, since relatively few persons of working class origins have college degrees, although their number is increasing. Officials are appointed to positions, not elected, and thus are dependent upon superiors in the organization rather than on a body of constituents. After a trial period, officials gain tenure of position and are protected against arbitrary dismissal. Remuneration is in the form of a salary, and pensions are provided after retirement. Career advancements are according to seniority or to achievement, or both.

Most observers of college and university organization would accept Weber's definition as accurate when applied to the system of organization practiced in those setting. Wallis offers this explanation for the widespread use of the bureaucratic model in education:

The great advantage of a centralized organization is that it is predictable and reliable. It can be controlled and directed. It can assume responsibility for bringing about a prescribed result. Correspondingly, a centralized organization has little ability to adapt, and none to adapt quickly. The great advantage of a decentralized organization is its adaptability, both in the sense of speed and in the sense of making many simultaneous adjustments to details of infinite and unanticipated variety. Correspondingly, a decentralized organization is not well suited for accepting responsibility for prescribed performance.

Educational organizations have not viewed themselves in the past, of course, as organizations which needed to adapt quickly, and they have long assumed the responsibility for achieving given levels of performance.

¹W. A. Wallis, "Centripetal and Centrifugal Forces in University Organization" in Morrison, R. S., ed., The Contemporary University: U. S. A. (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company 1966), pp. 40-41.

They have, until recently, been unapologetic about their bureaucratization, unapologetic to the point that some authors have argued that students must be considered as products. Charters¹ argues that:

While it may appear to violate humanistic conceptions of the educative process, our view of the pupil as "material" to be "processed" provides a useful starting point for analyzing the work structure of the school... he moves through a sequence of work processes, each presumably helping to shape him in accordance with an envisioned outcome--the educational goals of the school. We find in error the position of some observers who decry the school's inclination to "take over from business and the military" the line-and-staff pattern of administrative organization. The authority structure was not arbitrarily imported into the school. If a similarity exists, it is due to the similarity of organization problems with which the enterprises must cope.

Some research has been done on the effects of bureaucratic forms of organization in educational systems upon the feelings and practices of those working within such systems. Lippitt² found that the structure of the school appeared to have an effect upon its ability to adopt new practices. He found that teachers in schools with bureaucratic communication systems, systems extending from

¹W. W. Charters, "An Approach to the Formal Organization of the School," in Griffeths, D. E., ed., Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1964), pp. 243-261.

²R. Lippitt, "The Teacher as Innovator, Seeker, and Sharer of New Practices," in Miller, R., ed., Perspectives on Educational Change, (New York: Appleton-Century Crofts, 1967).

the top of the hierarchy downward, tended to be adaptive in their behavior, while teachers in schools with diffuse communication patterns tended to be innovative.

Williams¹ investigated the effects of bureaucratic school organization on perceived decision-making, and found that the greater the degree of bureaucracy the higher the organizational level at which decisions are perceived as being made. In the most bureaucratic schools, teachers perceived the board of trustees as being the major decision-making group in educational matters.

Moeller and Charters² used a Likert scale to measure the sense of power held by teachers in a variety of school systems. Contrary to their expectations, they found that teachers in highly bureaucratic systems felt more powerful, in their ability to influence events which affected them, than did teachers in less bureaucratic systems. The authors were unable to explain their findings, but speculated that their results might be the result of selective hiring practices or to the social class origins of the teachers.

¹J. O. Williams, A Study to Determine the Relationship Between Bureaucracy in School Systems and Decision-Making Practices as Perceived by Teachers, Principals, and Other Professional Personnel, Unpublished Ed. D., Auburn University, 1967.

²G. H. Moller and W. W. Charters, "Relation of Bureaucratization to Sense of Power Among Teachers," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 10, no. 4, March 1966.

If there are, as Charters argues, advantages to this form of organization for educational institutions, some observers have noted that the price paid for these advantages is too high in human terms. Merton¹ holds that the behavior of members within a bureaucratic organization becomes highly predictable, made so by the reduction of personalized relationships, the increased internalization of rules, and the decreased search for alternatives.

Hall holds that:

The deformation of a school system most likely to come to mind is the hardening of authority: hardened authority becomes tyranny...in the extreme case, those in authority abuse their power and rights. This is the case where bureaucracy shades into tyranny.

There are less obvious patterns that deserve equal scrutiny. An equally common development is one where the top dignitary or official develops a paternalistic orientation towards his subordinates. A third pattern of bureaucratic deformation can be thought of as moving in the opposite direction. In this case, those in subordinate positions try to level out differences between themselves and their superiors to the point where they act as equals...it is a matter of fact the pattern idealized by most of the members of the classical professions.²

Gouldner³ sees the same sorts of consequences for superior subordinate relations within the bureaucratic organization, consequences reflected in increasing tensions

¹R. K. Merton, "The Unanticipated Consequences of Purposive Social Action," American Sociological Review, 1, 1936, 894-904.

²O. Hall, "The Social Context of Conflict," in Lutz Kleinman, and Evans, Grievances and Their Resolution, (Danville, Illinois: The Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc., 1967).

³A. W. Goldner, Patters of Industrial Bureaucracy, (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1954).

and corresponding ever-increasing authoritarianism on the part of superiors. Sullivan's¹ interpersonal theory of psychiatry reflects Gouldner's point of view. He views most human behavior as the result of the individual's search for relief from tensions induced by conforming to authority.

This type of view, coupled with recent research in the field, have strengthened the neoclassical, or human relations, approach to educational administration.

Likert has summed up the movement away from classical bureaucratic structure thusly: "the trend in America, generally in communities, is toward giving the individual greater freedom and initiative. There are fewer direct, unexplained orders in our schools and homes, and youngsters are participating increasingly in decisions which affect them"²

Much of the theoretical work on which this movement is based has been done by Likert himself. Hickson³ lists Likert, along with Chris Argyris and Douglas McGregor,

¹H. S. Sullivan, "Tensions, Interpersonal and International," in H. Cantrel, ed., Tensions That Cause Wars, (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1950), p. 5.

²R. Likert, New Patterns of Management, p. 1.

³D. J. Hickson, "A Convergence in Organizational Theory," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. II, No. 11, Sept. 1966.

as one of the three major structural critics of organization the neoclassical theoretical school has produced.

Likert's work rests on several basic assumptions about the nature of an effective organization, one which, in his terms, is effective only if it meets both organizational goals and individual ego needs. Such an organization provides an interaction system satisfying to people while maintaining impressive performance characteristics. According to Likert, it has the following characteristics:

1. an overlapping form of organization and communication pattern. The key to this form of communication is the "linking pin" function, a system of upwards, downwards, and lateral communication.
2. a supportive, ego-building atmosphere, one in which persons feel valued and respected and in which confidence and trust grow.
3. a staff that has not only appropriate attitudes and skills for the functions for which they are responsible, but also adequate interpersonal and group process skills, and a maximum degree of accurate sensitivity to the reactions of others.
4. a minimum level of stability in personnel assignments, enabling members to know the members of other work groups and units, thus establishing a high level of confidence and trust.
5. an availability of accurate, current measurements which reflect the current state of the organization.¹

¹R. Likert, "A Motivational Approach to a Modified Theory of Organization and Management," in Haire, M., ed., Modern Organizational Theory, (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1959), pp. 184-217.

Likert objects strongly to the downward-only communication flow pattern of classical bureaucracy. His "linking pin" function rests in the assumption that superiors will only be viewed as effective leaders by their subordinates if they can exert influence on their superiors. He holds that close, cross-organization links across the top levels of the organizational hierarchy are especially critical, since a communications failure at that level has the greatest potential for harm. Likert believes that "...an organization is strengthened by having staff groups and ad hoc committees provide multiple overlapping groups through which linking functions are performed and the organization bound together."¹

Likert feels that supportive relationships within an organization are primarily a function of the behavior of superiors in the organizational hierarchy.

The leadership and other processes of the organization must be such as to insure a maximum probability that in all organization, each member, in the light of his background, values, desires, and expectations, will view the experience as supportive and one which builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance.²

These processes are achieved by superiors who are friendly and helpful, rather than threatening. Such a superior has confidence in people and high levels of

¹R. Likert, New Patterns of Management, p. 114.

²R. Likert, The Human Organization, p. 47.

expectations for them. He never behaves in a hostile manner, and actively trains his subordinates for the next job level in the system, while coaching and assisting sub-standard subordinates.¹

In addition to their effect upon the interpersonal relationships within the organization, superiors, in Likert's view, have a strong impact upon the performance aspirations of their subordinates. He believes that a superior must himself hold high performance goals and a contagious enthusiasm for them if the organization is to reach a high level of performance.²

To achieve and maintain high performance, it is necessary that the subordinates, as well as the superiors of an organization, have high performance goals and have their work well-organized.

Subordinates are unlikely to set high performance goals for themselves and organize their work well if their superiors do not have such aspirations...a superior with high performance goals and excellent job organization is much more likely to have subordinates who set high goals for themselves when he uses group methods of supervision and applies the principle of supportive relationships effectively than when he does not.³

Finally, Likert's effective organization places a high premium on group decision-making. Under this system, all problems which involve a given group are dealt with by that group. In Likert's view, group goal-setting results

¹R. Likert, New Patterns of Management, p. 101.

²Ibid, p. 8.

³R. Likert, The Human Organization, p. 63.

in a high individual commitment to those goals, but does not involve the relinquishing of the superior's responsibility. He remains responsible for the actions and decisions of the group.

Likert's insistence on constant measurement as criteria for a healthy organization has resulted in the development of the so-called "Likert scales." The scale used to measure the nature of a given management system has led Likert to develop a system of organizational classification which ranges along a continuum from "System 1" to System 4." A System 1 organization is labeled "Exploitive Authoritative," and reflects the characteristics of classical bureaucracy. "System 2" and "System 3," "Benevolent Authoritative" and "Consultative," represent variations on the bureaucratic pattern, while "System 4," "Participative Group," represents an organization functioning according to Likert's ideal.

It is Likert's claim that the scale and classification system can be used "as a reliable instrument to measure the nature of the management system of any organization in which there is at least a minimum level of control or coordination; i.e., it is not laissez-faire in character."¹

Some research would at least appear to suggest

¹Ibid, p. 122.

that Likert's theoretical assumptions hold true in educational systems. Silverman surveyed teachers in New York State to determine what aspects of their principal's behavior most affected teacher morale. He found that teachers ranked lack of supportive behavior and failure to inspire trust as the main contributors to low morale.¹

Williams cites the failure of school systems to move toward the Likert ideal as a prime course of teacher militancy:

It has become painfully clear, however, that the attainment by teachers of adequate democratic participation in school affairs has fallen short of its mark. The achievement of a satisfactory level of democratic sharing in decision-making by a participant group is seldom characterized by that groups assuming an increasingly aggressive almost disobedient, posture toward those charged with the responsibility for policy determination.² Yet in public education such seems to be the case.

Lippitt found, in research designed to determine the characteristics of innovative teachers, that the most common variable appears to be a principal who exhibits supportive behavior.³

Thompson, in investigating the common structural

¹M. Silverman, "Principals--What Are You Doing to Teacher Morale," Educational Administration and Supervision, Vol. 43, No. 4, April 1957, pp. 204-211.

²R. C. Williams, "Teacher Personality Factors as Related to Membership in Teacher Organization," The High School Journal, Vol. LI, No. 4, Jan. 1968, pp. 165-172.

³R. Lippitt, op cit., p. 197.

elements of innovative organizations, isolated a list of similarities close resembling Likert's model. The common elements included (1) a general structural looseness, (2) free communication in all directions, high rate of interpersonal communication, multiple-group membership, and high level of supportive behavior by superiors.¹

Goldman and Heald examined 657 teachers to determine their perceptions of the most critical variables creating the organizational climate within the school. Two behavioral qualities received the most emphasis from teachers; the perceived level of social support and the perceived level of staff involvement. Of the two, the former was judged the most important quality by teachers.

The authors speculate that this may be due to a general insecurity on the part of teachers as a group. If so, they predict that a highly supportive atmosphere must be produced before any change can be introduced which would bring about greater teacher involvement in decision-making.²

¹V. A. Thompson, "Bureaucracy and Innovation," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 10, No. 1, June 1965, pp. 1-20.

²H. Goldman and J. Heald, "Teacher Expectations of Administrative Behavior," Educational Administration Quarterly, Vol. IV, No. 3, Autumn 1968, pp. 29-40.

Lender and Gunn also investigated causes of low teacher morale. The prime variables identified in their study were lack of feedback as to performance and lack of receptivity on the part of the principal to any frank appraisal by the staff.¹

Summary

The school and its relationship to other organizations has been examined. The view that all organizations have similarities which extend from organization to organization and across types of organizations was explored, as was the existing state of organizational theory as it applies to education.

An alternative view, which holds that organizational theory is not adequate for educational forms of organization was examined. Central to this viewpoint is the assumption that educational institutions possess unique qualities which require a separate set of theoretical constructs.

The effects of size upon schools and students was reviewed. The general view that small size is desirable from a number of viewpoints was surveyed, along with research from small groups illustrating the effects of group size upon production and morale.

¹I. H. Lender and H. M. Gunn, Secondary School Administration, (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1963), p. 139.

The fact that little or no research exists which systematically explores the effects of size upon educational institutions was noted, and views surveyed which indicate that size is not perhaps after all an important variable in educational organization.

In the final section, the classical definition of bureaucracy was set down, and its operation within school systems noted. Alternate forms of organization were noted, and one of them, the theoretical construct of Rensis Likert, upon whose measurement techniques this work rests, explored in detail. Research was introduced indicating that Likert's constructs may have validity within educational settings.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Source of the Data

Data for the study were gathered from two groups of individuals on the Lake Superior State College Campus. The two groups are:

1. Organizationally uninvolved students. Included in this group is a random sample of eighty-five students who attend Lake Superior State College on a full-time basis but who belong to no student organization, take no part in campus governance, or who are not employed in any capacity by Lake Superior State College. These students, in other words, have a contact with the college limited only to the classroom.

2. Organizationally involved students. Included in this group are students who belong to some campus organization, hold some office in student government, are involved in campus governance, or are employed in some capacity by Lake Superior State College. They have, in other words, an involvement with the college which extends in some manner beyond their classroom contacts.

Students in both groups were randomly selected from a population which included only full-time students.

The college defines such students as those taking ten academic credit hours or more per quarter. The focus of the study is on the perceptions of these individuals as they view the organization of the college. Therefore, first-year students were excluded from the study on the assumption that they would not have had sufficient time to become acquainted with the organizational process and practices of the institution.

The instrument used to gather data for the study was the student questionnaire designed by Dr. Rensis Likert, Director of the Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan, and first used by Dr. Joseph Bechard in his pilot study at Michigan State University. Since Bechard's study was the first application of this instrument, statistical data from other institutions is not available.

The Sample Group

A total of six hundred and sixty-seven students was eligible under the criteria designed for this study. That is, they were both full-time students carrying ten or more hours and had been on the Lake Superior State College campus for a period of time at least one year or longer.

From this total eligible student population, two lists of student names were compiled. One contained organizationally involved students, the other organizationally uninvolved students. Data for compiling these lists was drawn from the membership lists of student organizations, from the college payroll, from lists of campus committees

and their members, from the membership of the student judicial group, and from the membership of the governing bodies of student organizations on campus. The two lists were thus mutually exclusive.

Divided in this manner, the list of organizationally uninvolved students contained four hundred and eighteen students, while the list of organizationally involved students contained two hundred and forty-nine names. Eighty-five students were drawn randomly from both lists to comprise the sample for the study.

Selection was determined by the Lake Superior State College computer, programmed for random selection from both lists. Hardyck's and Petrinovich's Table of Random Numbers was used as the basis for the random selection process.¹

Application of the student questionnaire was done through the Lake Superior State College Counseling Center during pre-scheduling activities for the Spring 1971 academic quarter. While slight variation in the size of the sample groups would not have affected the analysis, attrition was not allowed in either group and students who elected not to return to school, and thus did not go through the pre-scheduling process, were replaced with students randomly selected from the original lists. Thus both groups were held at eighty-five members. Seven students from the original

¹C. D. Hardyck and L. F. Petrinovich, Introduction to Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences, (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Company, 1969), pp. 257-261.

selection of eighty-five organizationally uninvolved students elected not to return to school and were thus replaced, while two organizationally involved students elected not to return to school and had to be replaced.

The student questionnaire was coded to identify the two sample groups, but students were not otherwise identified by name. As each student came to the Counseling Center for his regular pre-scheduling interview, he or she was given the appropriate copy of the student questionnaire and, after a brief explanation of the operation of the Likert scale, asked to complete the form in the Testing Room of the Counseling Center. Since the Center has for seven years conducted an attitude survey of students at approximately the same time of the year, this procedure occasioned little or no curiosity on the part of the sample subjects.

By including all eligible students and randomly selecting the sample of students, it is possible to make statements concerning the perceptions of Lake Superior State College held by the members of each population. Since no respondent had less than one year's acquaintance with the college, it is presumed that each had adequate time to form impressions of the organization and its operation, thus adding to the validity of the findings.

Additional demographic data for each of the two sample groups are found in Tables 1.1 and 1.2 which follow.

Table 1.1 Participants of this Study Categorized
by Academic Division

Academic Division	Number of Full-time students
1. Division of Social Sciences	41
2. Division of Applied Science	19
3. Division of Natural Science	52
4. Division of Arths and Letters	37
5. Division of Business	21
6. Division of Continuing Education	
TOTALS	170

Table 2.2 Demographic Characteristics of Students
Participating in this Study

	<u>Under 25</u>	<u>26-30</u>	<u>31-35</u>	<u>35+</u>
a. Age	159	10	1	
	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>		
b. Sex	116	54		
	<u>Employed</u>	<u>Not Employed</u>		
c. No. of students employed by LSSC	32	138		
	<u>Institutional Payroll</u>	<u>Work-Study</u>		
d. Type of Employment	8	24		
	<u>B.A.</u>	<u>B.S.</u>		
e. Type of degree work- ing toward	99	71		
	<u>Sophomore</u>	<u>Junior</u>	<u>Senior</u>	
f. Class	112	43	15	

Instrumentation

Each questionnaire is a graphic rating scale on which each respondent is asked to rate Lake Superior State College on each of six organizational variables. The variables are identified by Likert, and supported by other scholars in the field, as being essential processes present in all organizations. These organizational variables are: (1) Leadership processes, (2) Character of motivational forces, (3) Character of communication processes, (4) Character of interaction-influence processes, (5) Character of decision-making processes, and (6) Character of goal-setting processes (See definition of key terms, pp. 17-20).

Likert has identified the characteristic elements which make up each variable. Following Bechard,¹ each item on the questionnaire has been assigned to one or more of the characteristic elements, and these elements in turn have been assigned to one or more of the six organizational variables.

A list of each organizational variable follows, with the characteristic elements and items listed which contribute to each.

¹J. E. Bechard, op cit., pp. 83-100.

The Organizational Variables Used in this Study
and the Characteristic elements and items
from the Questionnaire Assigned
to each Variable

Listed below are the six organizational variables considered in this study, and the characteristic elements and the number of the items assigned to each variable. Scores on each variable were computed for each student group as described in Treatment of the Data, found elsewhere in this chapter. See also Definition of Key Terms, found in Chapter I, pp. 17-20.

1. Leadership Process Variable

- (a) extent to which subordinates feel that superiors have trust and confidence in them.

Items: #22, #23

- (b) extent to which subordinates have confidence and trust in superiors.

Items: #24, #25

- (c) extent to which subordinates perceive the behavior of superiors as friendly and supportive.

Item: #1

- (d) extent to which subordinates try to behave in a friendly and supportive manner toward superiors.

Items: #3, #4

- ✓ (e) extent to which subordinates try to behave in a friendly and supportive manner toward others.

Item: #2

- (f) extent to which subordinates feel free to discuss academic matters with superiors.

Item: #26

- ✓ (g) extent to which subordinates feel free to discuss non-academic matters with superiors.

Item: #27

- (h) extent to which superiors ask for ideas from subordinates concerning problems about academic matters.

Items: #10, #14

- ✓ (i) extent to which superiors ask for ideas from subordinates concerning problems about non-academic matters.

Items: #11, #15

- (j) extent to which subordinates feel that superiors are interested in their success.

Items: #5, #7

2. Motivational Forces Variable

- (a) extent to which individuals perceive that there is cooperative teamwork within the college.

Item: #36

- L (b) extent to which individuals like the college as a place to work or go to school.

Item: #37

- (c) extent to which subordinates feel peers are interested in their success.

Item: #6

- (d) extent to which responsibility for achieving high performance is shared.

Item: #40

- (e) extent to which involvement in decision-making increases motivation to strive for better performance.

Item: #35

- W (f) extent to which individuals are involved in the major decisions related to their work.

Item: #32

3. Communications Process Variable

- (a) extent to which subordinates feel that superiors know the problems faced by subordinates.

Items: #8, #9

- (b) extent to which upward communication is accurate.

Item: #28

- (c) extent to which subordinates accept communications from superiors.

Items: #29, #30

- (d) extent to which subordinates feel superiors really try to help with their problems.

Item: #38

- (e) extent to which ideas are sought by superiors from subordinates about academic matters.

Items: #10, #14

- (f) extent to which ideas are sought by superiors from subordinates about non-academic matters.

Items: #11, #15

- (g) extent to which decision-making is shared by all members of the organization (extent to which information is willingly shared).

Item: #32

4. Character of Interaction-Influence Process Variable

- (a) extent of influence subordinates feel they have in decisions related to their work.

Item: #33

- (b) extent to which interaction between members of the college is friendly with a high degree of confidence and trust.

Item: #31

- (c) extent of influence subordinates feel they should have in making decisions related to their work.

Item: #34

- (d) extent to which the belief exists that having an influence on decision-making makes people work harder.

Item: #35

- (e) extent to which members feel they can influence goals and methods and other academic decisions.

Items: #10, #14, #31, #32, #33, #26

- (f) extent to which members feel they can influence decisions about non-academic matters.

Items: #11, #15, #31, #32, #27

- (g) extent to which members perceive the presence of cooperative teamwork.

Item: #36

- (h) extent of actual influence members exercise in major decisions related to their work.

Items: #32, #33

5. Character of Decision-Making Variable

- (a) extent to which superiors feel subordinates should have a say about academic matters.

Items: #12, #16

- (b) extent to which subordinates feel that they should have a say about academic matters.

Items: #18, #20

- (c) extent to which superiors feel subordinates should have a say about non-academic matters that affect them.

Items: #13, #17

- (d) extent to which subordinates feel they should have a say about non-academic matters.

Items: #19, #21

- (e) extent to which subordinates feel they are involved in major decisions affecting them.

Items: #32, #33

- (f) at what level of the organization are decisions made.

Items: #33, #32

- (g) extent to which superiors are aware of the problems at the lower levels of the organization.

Items: #8, #9

- (h) extent to which decision-making is shared by all members of the organization.

Item: #32

- (i) extent to which upward communications are accurate.

Item: #28

- (j) extent to which ideas are sought by superiors from subordinates about academic matters.

Items: #10, #14

- (k) extent to which ideas are sought by superiors from subordinates about non-academic matters.

Items: #11, #15

6. Goal Setting Variable

- (a) extent to which individuals feel that the organization cooperatively holds high performance goals.

Item: #39

- (b) extent to which individuals determine who shall be responsible for achieving high performance goals.

Item: #40

- (c) extent to which individuals feel that there is resistance to achieving high performance goals.

Item: #42

Treatment of the Data

Likert identifies four general types of organizations, each with its own identifiable characteristics, characteristics which range along a continuum from most bureaucratic, and, in Likert's view, least effective, through least bureaucratic and most effective. The former system Likert labels System 1, the latter System 4. Systems 2 and 3 represent shadings towards one end of the continuum or the other, with System 3 a more effective form of organization than System 2.

Likert's questionnaire (see Appendix) is organized along the same continuum, and divided into twenty possible areas of response. Five of these possible responses are located under each of the four organizational typologies.

Following Bechard, a value of one through twenty was assigned to each of the twenty segments, or areas of response, and scores computed for each of the participants on each item. Items (see above) were organized into characteristic elements of each of the six variables.

A mean element response for each of the characteristic elements for each individual was computed by adding the scores of the items of the characteristic elements and dividing by the number of items.

The standard deviation of the mean element responses of the individuals were calculated to weight the contribution of each characteristic element to the score of the variable for each individual.

The weighting was accomplished by dividing the individual's mean element score by the standard deviation of the element. The individual's score on a variable was then the mean of these weighted means.

The following equations represent the calculation of the score on each variable for each individual:

Let: X_i = the individual's score on item i .

n = the number of items in element j .

N = the number of individuals.

m = the number of characteristic elements
per variable.

Calculate the individual's mean element response
to element j :

$$\bar{X}_j = \frac{\sum X_{ij}}{n}$$

Calculate the mean of the element across all individuals:

$$\bar{X}_{.j} = \frac{\sum \bar{X}_j}{N}$$

Calculate standard deviation of each element:

$$s_{\bar{X}_j}^2 = \frac{\sum (\bar{X}_j - \bar{X}_{.j})^2}{N-1}$$

Then each individual's score on a variable =

$$Z_{ij} = \frac{\bar{X}_j - \bar{X}_{.j}}{s_{\bar{X}_j} / \sqrt{m}}$$

Analysis of the data was done in two steps: First, Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance technique was applied to each of the two groups to determine the extent to which there was agreement within each group. A significant value of the coefficient of concordance, W , is interpreted as meaning that the members of each group are applying the same standard in ranking the variables under study. That

is, they are in agreement as to what it is that they are ranking. This agreement does not necessarily mean that the ordering of variables is correct: it merely means that members of each group agree as to the ordering itself. A "W" value of 1.0 would be perfect agreement and a value of 0.0 would indicate perfect disagreement.

The test of significance of W is found by applying the formula:

$$\chi^2 = k(N-1)W \text{ with d.f.} = N-1 \text{ where}$$

k = the number of subjects within a group

N = the number of organizational variables.

The implied null hypothesis is that the ratings by the subjects within each group are unrelated. This technique also yields a rank order consensus of each variable within each group. These results indicate the tendency of the group to agree on the value score of a variable, and does not represent a value judgement.

Since the implied null hypothesis was rejected for both groups, a two-way analysis of variance was applied to individual scores so that inferences pertaining to the significance of differences between group scores could be established. In this test, the implied null hypothesis is that both groups are drawn from the same population, that no significant difference exists between them on the issues in question. If the null hypothesis were rejected, it would appear that the two groups do view the college from differing frames of reference.

Through these tests, a composite picture of Lake Superior State College as viewed by its upperclass students was obtained, and the findings of the study constitute a source of information about Lake Superior State College as viewed by its client system. This information can become a tool for organizational change, should the college decide such change to be desirable.

The findings of the study are discussed in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

The statistical analysis of all data for this study was done by the Computer Center at Lake Superior State College. The statistical tests themselves in large part represent the design developed by Bechard for interpretation of data from the Likert scale.

Two separate techniques were used for data analysis: (1) the Kendall Coefficient of Concordance and (2) a two-way analysis of variance. The findings of each technique are presented in tabular form.

Analysis of the Data

The first null hypothesis to be tested implies that there is no substantial agreement within the two groups, that the rankings of the variables within each of the two groups is unrelated.

An examination of Tables 2.1 and 2.2 reveals that the implied null hypothesis is rejected at the .001 level of significance. Thus, there appears to be strong agreement of perception within both groups about the

Table 2.1 Organizationally uninvolved students.

	Leader- ship Process	Motiva- tional Forces	Communi- cation	Inter- Action Influence	Decision- Making	Goal Setting
<u>Variable</u>	1	2	3	4	5	6
<u>Consensus of Rank</u>	1	3	4	5	2	6
	W=0.1835		N=85	$\chi^2=77.49^*$		V=6 dF=5

*Significant at .001 level

Table 2.2 Organizationally uninvolved students.

	Leader- ship Process	Motiva- tional Forces	Communi- cation	Inter- Action Influence	Decision- Making	Goal Setting
<u>Variable</u>	1	2	3	4	5	6
<u>Consensus of Rank</u>	1	6	3	5	2	4
	W=0.1369		N=85	$\chi^2=58.18^*$		V=6
						dF=5

*Significant at .001 level

organization climate of Lake Superior State College.

Since there was strong within-group agreement, a two-way analysis of variance was applied to all data. The results of this technique show the implied null hypothesis that both groups came from the same population is accepted at the .05 of significance.

Table 2.3. Analysis of variance table.

	DF	S.S.	M.S.	F
BG	5	1099.2766	274.80	2.79*
WG	<u>164</u>	<u>319.1773</u>	129.57	
TOTAL	169	1418.4499		

*Not significant at the .005 level.

Thus, the conclusion is drawn that both the organizationally involved and the organizationally uninvolved students are members of the same population, at least so far as viewing Lake Superior State College through six organizational variables is concerned.

Both groups view Lake Superior State College in a somewhat negative manner, given their rankings of the school along Likert's continuum. The fact that one group of students has been involved in the machinery of campus governance does not affect their attitude towards the college, at least as reflected through Likert's six variables.

Table 2.4. Mean scores and standard deviations for groups on each variable.

Group	Leadership Motivation Communication		Interaction- Influence	Decision- Making	Goal Setting
Organiza- tionally Uninvolved Students	\bar{x} 2.450	2.562	2.972	N=85 V=6 3.079	2.496 3.398
	s 0.648	0.460	0.514	0.456	0.607 0.657
Organiza- tionally Involved Students	\bar{x} 2.313	3.114	2.522	N=85 V=6 2.944	2.407 2.566
	s 0.586	0.551	0.672	0.412	0.615 0.638

The fact that organizationally involved students do not differ significantly from their less involved fellows runs counter to the views of those theorists who see increased involvement and communication as a means of improving student attitudes. It also casts some doubts upon the role of behavioral settings as tools for improving student attitudes towards the institution.

The results would appear to confirm Gross' prediction that organizational size as a variable affecting attitudes does indeed "wash out" under the pressure of other variables, since Bechard's Michigan State study, done in a very large educational institution, also found somewhat negative attitudes held by both graduate and undergraduate students.

The Michigan State study compared the attitudes of both these groups, and found substantial agreement between the two groups in their perceptions of the university. While the concept of involvement was not a factor in that study, it could perhaps be assumed that graduate students, as members of a smaller overall population, with more immediate and more intimate contacts with both faculty and administration, would occupy more behavioral settings than would undergraduates. Even if this assumption holds true, the resulting higher degree of involvement with the organization did not provide a degree of discrimination between the attitudes of the two groups.

These findings would appear to have implications for efforts to change the organizational patterns of colleges and universities. Observers have often remarked during the past decade on the fact that it has been the smaller, more "liberal" campuses which have borne the brunt of some of the more severe student disruptions. The question most often heard is phrased something like "why do students at small colleges, colleges which involve them heavily in the running of the school, become so frustrated and dissatisfied as to resort to violence?"

If size and involvement are not factors in determining student attitudes, then it may well be that these attitudes are shaped by forces largely outside of the control of the institution.

Virtually all forms of human organization involve systems of control and authority and some distinction between roles held by participants within the organization. The necessity for authority, for leadership, and the necessary distinctions between persons involved in a given organization may make negative feelings on the part of some members virtually inevitable.

For example, the act of being a student may in itself be considered either as a role or as an occupation. As a role, being a student carries with it a good deal of control by others, control manifested by grades, by requirements, by the necessity for credentials, and by the need

for fulfilling whatever requirements may be set by the school. Similarly, both faculty and administration are affected in their occupational roles by controls exerted from both within and without the institution.

At any rate, the findings would appear to indicate that the question is complex indeed, and that the answers offered by organizational and educational theorists thus far to the question of the effects of educational organization have been oversimplified.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This final chapter contains a summary of the ideas examined in earlier chapters, and a summary of the research design and findings. One possible interpretation of the results is presented, and recommendations made in light of the summarized findings.

Summary

This study was designed to assess significant agreements and disagreements between two groups of students at Lake Superior State College regarding the organizational climate of their school. These two groups of students were randomly selected from two seemingly separate student populations. The first population contained organizationally uninvolved students, students who occupied no behavioral "setting" within the school, whose contact with the institution is limited primarily to the classroom.

The second of the student populations contained students who were involved with the institution in ways extending beyond mere classroom contacts. Included in this

group were students who actually worked for the college, who took part in some aspect of student government, or who occupied positions on one of a number of administrative-faculty-student governing committees within the college. The concerns of these committees ranged from curriculum to student affairs, from the operation of the college bookstore to student-faculty relations.

Likert's Profile of Organizational Characteristics questionnaire, as developed for colleges, was used for measuring the perceptions of both groups concerning the school's organizational climate. This was, so far as is known, the second such use of Likert's questionnaire, the first being Bechard's study of the organizational climate of the College of Education at Michigan State University.

The instrument delineates six organizational variables presumed common to all organizations along a continuum ranging from authoritarian to participative, from highly bureaucratic (in terms of Weber's classic definition of bureaucracy) to non-bureaucratic in many elements.

Participants were asked to rank Lake Superior State College on each variable along the continuum. Individual scores were calculated for each variable and mean scores for each group computed for each variable from that data.

Two steps were involved in the analysis of the data. Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance technique was used to determine agreement within each group, while a

two-way analysis of variance was used to determine the extent of agreement between the two groups.

A number of questions were asked or implied regarding the data:

1. Is there a substantial agreement between the two groups of students as to their perceptions of the state of the organization of Lake Superior State College?
2. Is there a substantial disagreement between the two groups of students as to their perceptions of the state of the organization of Lake Superior State College?
3. Are the perceptions of Lake Superior State College students similar to those of Michigan State University students regarding the state of their respective organizations, irrespective of the difference in size of the two institutions?
4. Does the size of an educational institution in fact play a part in the attitudes students hold to it, or is the variable of size "washed out" by other, and overriding, variables and considerations?
5. Does involvement with, and participation within, an educational organization play a part in the attitudes students hold towards the institution?
6. Does a neoclassical, or "human relations" modified bureaucracy produce favorable attitudes towards it

on the part of its members?

Analysis of the data revealed a strong within-group agreement for both groups. That is, both groups were in agreement among themselves as to the nature and the rankings of the variables involved. There was also significant agreement between the two groups, thus confirming the implied null hypothesis.

Since the two groups differed only in terms of their involvement with the college, the acceptance of the null hypothesis means that this difference had no impact upon their perception of the organization of the college. They come, in this regard as in others, in fact from the same population.

Several of the implied questions were examined through the literature in the field, with substantial areas of disagreement found to exist among researchers and theorists. The question of size, for example, has been under much discussion in educational circles during the past decade, with the assumption often being made that large schools are "bad" because of their size. Thus, movements to decentralize campuses have sprung up throughout both higher education and the public schools. The concept of "cluster" colleges, "living-learning" units, and "schools-within-schools" all reflect this movement.

A few theorists have, however, resisted this argument, although they have been largely ignored by educators.

This group has argued that size per se is not a relevant variable at all, that it disappears under the impact of other, and more important, variables.

This argument is in one sense an extension of another of the questions examined. This question, perhaps the basic and critical question, centers on the organization of educational institutions. It revolves around the appropriateness for education of the organizational models of business and industry.

Arrayed on the one hand of this argument are those theorists who see all organizations as theoretically and basically the same, regardless of their function or mission. This group would argue that there are basic principles of human organization which can be applied to any and to all organizations, including educational ones. When extended into the educational field itself, this position holds that the organizational pattern of business and the military is equally appropriate and desirable for schools.

This position is challenged by a second group of theorists, much smaller in number, who argue that this model is not appropriate for education, that it in fact is harmful to the processes of teaching and learning. Most authorities who take this position point to the affective nature of the educational process, and claim that the nature of the relationship between the teacher and the student is such that a bureaucratic form of organization

can only interfere with the business of learning.

The nature of bureaucracy itself was examined, along with the major schools of organizational theory. Identified here were the classical school, the neoclassical school, which contains the "human relations" theorists, and the systems analysis approach. Concentration was on the work of Rensis Likert, identified as one of the three leading theorists of the neoclassical school, and his system of classifying and diagnosing organizations.

Conclusions

The author draws the following conclusions from the study:

1. Size is not a factor affecting student attitudes towards educational institutions. Therefore, much of the effort currently being expended in education to decentralize campuses is misplaced, and ignores the real issue involved.
2. Involvement, either in campus governance, student government, or through employment by the school, is not a factor affecting student attitudes towards their educational institution.
3. Current theories regarding organizational structure and its effects upon members of the organization appear to be oversimplified. In the case of educational organizations, efforts at change based upon

these theories may be concentrating on factors which actually have little or no effect upon student attitudes.

4. Whatever their merits may be in business and industry, the tenants of the "human relations" theoretical school do not appear to hold true for educational institutions.

One observer of the "human relations" or neoclassical theorists, who include Likert, has offered an explanation for the emphasis which this approach has received in business and education, and the author accepts this explanation as a part of his conclusions. Victor Thompson¹ views the aims of the "human relations" school as essentially manipulative, a device designed to reinforce the legitimacy of bureaucratic authority. Thompson cites the pressures and challenges being brought to bear upon established authority, and sees the propositions of the human relations schools as attempts to reduce these pressures. They are, in other words, a sophisticated method of defending the role of those at the top of bureaucratic hierarchies.

Thompson feels that the responses of the neoclassical school--better communications, increased participation, retraining, and increased interpersonal contacts--rest on

¹Thompson, V.A., Modern Organization, (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1961).

one basic assumption: that assumption holds that if a problem exists it must exist within the people who make up an organization and not within the organization itself. To admit the latter would, of course, do grave damage to the top levels of the hierarchy within the organization, further undermining its authority.

Since the problem is presumed to rest within the people who make up the organization, it must be solved by changing them, by manipulating their value systems to conform once more with those of the organization. Thus, "if people just knew the facts, they'd accept our position." To the author, this motivation would appear to be at work, although admittedly perhaps not consciously, in many of the efforts to increase student involvement in college governance.

Recommendations

The findings of this study suggest, as did Bechard's, the need for further investigation into the organizational character of educational institutions. Specifically:

1. Lake Superior State College should reexamine its organizational pattern in light of the student attitudes determined by this study. Such a reexamination should not center on standard responses to student discontent, i.e., more participation, better communication, but should concentrate on a more basic question: is there not an

alternative model of organization which might better serve the needs of a small college?

2. Thompson points out, in the study cited above, the fact that most research done by "human relations" theorists has been done by men who are in one way or another dependent upon business and industry for their professional careers. This would include college and university-based theorists who depend upon their consulting activities for much of their income and reputation. Thus, even with the most scrupulous professional standards, such research will reflect the interests of those at the top of the system rather than of those at the bottom. This fact is reflected in the number of studies which center on those at the bottom of the organizational hierarchy: workers, staff, and students. An equally powerful research spotlight must be focused on the top levels of organization, if meaningful change is to be brought about.

Therefore, national and local student organizations should be encouraged to fund and to conduct their own research programs as a countervailing force, as a means of obtaining a composite picture of the operation of an educational organization, rather than the partial portraits which now exist.

3. The critical question remains that of the best method of organizing educational institutions. Since Likert's instrumentation does appear to be able to

delineate student attitudes, its use should be extended into further studies between types of colleges. There are colleges experimenting with forms of organization based on other than bureaucratic models. Likert's instrument should become part of a program designed to test the effects of these alternate forms of organization.

Within the State of Michigan, for example, Saginaw Valley State College is attempting such an alternate model. A logical next research step would be to compare attitudes at that institution with those at the more traditional state colleges.

4. Finally, educational institutions must be encouraged to regard themselves as legitimate fields for study and research. One cannot help but be amazed at the paucity of the research concerning schools as organizations, in spite of the fact that most colleges and universities contain both the resources to bring to bear on the problem and the problem itself.

Those studies and research instruments which do exist do not consider the organization as a problem; rather, they concentrate on the problems of the organization, and there is a vast difference. The latter theoretical bias is perpetuated by the available instrumentation. Thus, the College Scholarship Services "Institutional Self-Study" form is actually an instrument for measuring student attitudes, and not an instrument for diagnosing the institution.

There is a growing feeling of unease about higher education abroad in the nation today. The work of Rogers, Leonard, Holt, and Goodman, to list but a few authors, has caused serious questions to be raised about the nature, the purposes, and the values of our educational systems. A rational response to these questions shall require that education place the examination of itself at the top of its list of priorities, rather than at the bottom as in the past.

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APPENDIX

	System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4	Item No.
How often is the behavior of faculty members friendly and supportive?	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Almost Always	1
How often do you try to be friendly and supportive to:					
a. other students?	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Almost Always	2
b. faculty members?					3
c. the administration?					4
On the average, how much do you feel that your professors are interested in your success as a student?	Not Interested	Slightly Interested	Quite Interested	Very Interested	5
On the average, how much do you feel that other students are interested in your success as a student?	Not Interested	Slightly Interested	Quite Interested	Very Interested	6
How much do you feel that the college administrators are interested in your success as a student?	Not Interested	Slightly Interested	Quite Interested	Very Interested	7
How well do your professors know the problems you face in your course work?	Not well	Somewhat	Quite well	Very well	8

	System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4	Item No.
How well to the college administrators know the problems you face in your course work?	Not well	Somewhat	Quite well	Very well	9
How often do your professors ask for and use your ideas about:	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Frequently	
a. academic matters, such as course content, subjects to be studied, books?					10
b. non-academic school matters, such as discipline and student activities?					11
How much say do the professors, on the average, think students should have in what goes on in your college as to:	Practically None	A Slight Amount	A Considerable Amount	A Very Great Deal	
a. academic matters?					12
b. non-academic college matters?					13

	System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4	Item No.
How often does the administration ask for and use your ideas about:					
a. academic matters?					14
b. non-academic college matters?					15
How much say does the administration think students should have in what goes on in your college as to:					
a. academic matters	Practically None	A Slight Amount	A Considerable Amount	A Very Great Deal	16
b. non-academic college matters?					17
How much say do students, on the average, think they should have in what goes on in your college as to:					
a. academic matters?	Practically None	A Slight Amount	A Considerable Amount	A Very Great Deal	18
b. non-academic college matters?					19

	System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4	Item No.
How much say do you think students should have in what goes on in your college as to:	Practically None	A Slight Amount	A Considerable Amount	A Very Great Deal	20
a. academic matters?					
b. non-academic college matters?	Practically None	A Slight Amount	A Considerable Amount	A Very Great Deal	21
In general, how much confidence and trust do your professors have in you?					
How much confidence and trust do the college administrators have in you?	Practically None	A Slight Amount	A Considerable Amount	A Very Great Deal	22
How much confidence and trust do you have in your professors?	Practically None	A Slight Amount	A Considerable Amount	A Very Great Deal	23
How much confidence and trust do you have in the administration?	Practically None	A Slight Amount	A Considerable Amount	A Very Great Deal	24
	Practically None	A Slight Amount	A Considerable Amount	A Very Great Deal	25

	System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4	Item No.
How free do you feel to talk to your professors about:					
Not Free		Slightly Free	Quite Free	Very Free	
a. problems associated with your work?					26
b. non-academic college matters?					27
How accurate is the information you give to your professors concerning class or college matters?					
Usually Inaccurate		Often Inaccurate	Fairly Accurate	Almost Always Accurate	
Communications Some Accepted; Viewed with Some Viewed Great Suspicion with Suspicion					28
Usually Inaccurate		Often Inaccurate	Fairly Accurate	Almost Always Accurate	
Communications Some Accepted; Viewed with Some Viewed Great Suspicion with Suspicion					
Usually Inaccurate		Often Inaccurate	Fairly Accurate	Almost Always Accurate	
Communications Some Accepted; Viewed with Some Viewed Great Suspicion with Suspicion					29
a. the administration?					
b. your professors?					30
How much discussion do you have with your professors about college and other matters?					
Very Little Discussion; Usually with Fear and Distrust		Little Discussion; Usually Maintained	Moderate Discussion; Often with Fair Amount of Confidence and Trust	Extensive, Friendly Discussion with High Degree of Confidence and Trust	
					31

	System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4	Item No.
To what extent are you involved in major decisions affecting you?	Not at All	Never Involved in Decisions Affecting Me; Occasionally Consulted	Usually Consulted, but Ordinarily Not Involved in Decisions Affecting Me	Fully Involved in Decisions Affecting Me	32
	Practically None	Some	A Considerable Amount	A Very Great Deal	
How much influence do you have in decisions concerning the subject matter of your courses?	Practically None	Some	A Considerable Amount	A Very Great Deal	33
	Practically None	Some	A Considerable Amount	A Very Great Deal	
To what extent does having influence on decisions concerning the subject matter of your courses make you want to work harder?	Practically None	A Slight Amount	A Considerable Amount	A Very Great Deal	34
	Practically None	A Slight Amount	A Considerable Amount	A Very Great Deal	
(If you have no say, put a check mark here _____)					35

	System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4	Item No.
In your course work, is it "every man for himself" or do students and professors work cooperatively as a team?	"Every Man for Himself"	Relatively Little Cooperative Teamwork	A Moderate Amount of Cooperative Teamwork	A Very Substantial Amount of Cooperative Teamwork	36
How do you feel toward your college?	Dislike It	Sometimes Dislike It, Sometimes Like It	Usually Like It	Like It Very Much	37
How much do your professors really try to help you with your problems?	Very Little	Somewhat	Quite a Bit	Very Much	38
*Who holds high performance goals for your college?	The Administration	The Administration, Department Chairmen and Some Professors	The Administration, Department Chairmen, Most Professors, Some Students	The Administration, Department Chairmen, Professors, Students	39

*If no one expects a high level of performance, place a mark here ___ and skip items 39, 40, and 41.

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