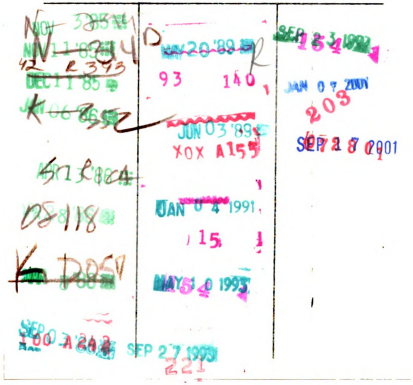

INNOVATION ADOPTION DECISIONS IN ORGANIZATIONS: AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

by

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ABSTRACT

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The adoption of innovations is a popular area for study among social scientists in a variety of disciplines. This study investigated factors in the adoption decision as perceived by organizational members involved in the decision. Three hundred and eighteen organizations that had and had not adopted one of eight innovative programs in the criminal justice area and educational area were contacted through conversational phone interviews. These reasons for adoption were rationally and empirically scaled into four scales: Expected Smooth Implementation, Cost and Financial Support, Changes in Roles and Role Relationships, and Support from Organizational Members. Program and content area differences were found on the Expected Smooth Implementation scale. Program differences were also found on the Support from Organizational Members scale. Organizational demographics did not differ between adopting organizations and organizations that had never heard of the program. Educational and criminal justice organizations did differ in terms of the number of people involved in decision making. However, the corre-

lation between participation in decision making and adoption status was low. Reasons for the findings and possible implications are discussed.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

Innovation diffusion is an area of great importance both practically and theoretically. The practical importance comes into play if new practice is perceived to be better than existing practice. It is then imperative for the sake of both organizational efficiency and survival that this process be carried out quickly. The theoretical interest in this area is very much linked to practicality. Since an innovation is usually defined as any practice or product that is new to the organization (Rogers & Shoemaker, 1971), the only way that organizations change is through the innovation process. This may account for both the multi-disciplinary nature of the study of innovation and the large numbers of studies dealing with this topic (Rogers & Eveland, 1975).

Policy Models

Several policy models of innovation diffusion have been

proposed. For example, Datta (1981) discussed beliefs concerning change in educational organizations. This is a question of more than academic interest since the policies of the federal government are based on these beliefs. The first strategy she discussed has been labeled the Directed Development approach. It is also known as the Research and Development model (House, Kerins, & Steele, 1972), or the Research, Development, and Diffusion model (Yin, 1978). Characteristic of this model is the use of programs that have been through some kind of effectiveness demonstration or validation process. Organizations are given incentives, usually in the form of money, to start these programs. This type of model takes a fidelity perspective; that is, since the programs are proven effective it is imperative that they be adopted and implemented as devoloped.

This Directed Development approach has been criticized on a number of grounds. The approach assumes a passive user population; potential users of a program or approach are assumed to be just waiting passively for a program to come along and solve their problems (House, Kerins, & Steele, 1972). Second, this approach focuses on the environment external to the organization rather than to conditions internal to the innovating organization (Yin, 1978). Third, this model pays attention only to the determinants of the adoption of innovations, rather than looking at the adoption, implementation, and eventual incorporation of the innovation as an ongoing part of the organization. It therefore takes what has been called the adoption perspective (Berman & McLaughlin, 1974).

A second policy model for influencing change suggests that problems should be solved at the local level. The intent of federal policy should be to foster problem solving skills at the local level and to provide programs that are easily adaptable to the needs of the local system. Datta refers to this model as the Local Problem-Solving and Mutual Adaptation view.

The support for the second perspective of change and most of the empirical criticism of the Directed Development model rests on the work of Berman and McLaughlin (1978). This series of reports deals with the impact of four major federal programs on innovative practices in public schools. The most widely known conclusions of this study concern the lack of impact of the federally supported innovations on local school practices. Datta (1981) has pointed out that the conclusions and implications drawn from this report are misleading and not totally based on the data. While Berman and McLaughlin (1974) purport to be studying the impact of major federal expenditures to aid local school systems adopting and implementing well developed innovations, this is not in fact the case according to Datta, who noted that the "massive federal funds" amounted to only about an additional $100 per student served per year. Another widely cited finding of the study was that none of the programs seemed to be implemented as planned. Datta suggests that this was due to the fact that none of the programs were disseminated specifically; the "programs" were in fact only general directives to serve a specific targeted group or to work on a

general need. In sum, Datta's basic thesis was that the Directed Development model was never really tested by the Berman and McLaughlin study.

Stages of Innovation

Although there is disagreement concerning the basic policy model, there is currently a consensus among researchers and policy makers that innovation diffusion should be conceived of as consisting of three major stages: Adoption, Implementation, and Incorporation. This investigation focuses on adoption, although linkages with implementation and incorporation are considered.

The linkage between implementation and adoption is established through the idea of future expectations on the part of users of the program. The process of innovation is a very uncertain one (Tornatzky, Roitman, Boylan, Carpenter, Eveland, Hetzner, Lucas, & Schneider, 1979). Organizations make changes on the basis of the predicted effects of the changes. A major class of determinants of the adoption of new programs is predictions by relevant organizational actors concerning the effects on the organization of the implementation of the program. For this reason it is imperative to study these predictions or expectations.

This investigation involved an empirical investigation of these expectations. First, the literature on the adopotion of innovations is discussed. A discussion of some of the methodological criticisms of this tradition will follow. Three "exemplarary" studies particu-

larly relevant to the present investigation are then discussed. The manner in which the methodological criticisms have been taken into account in the present investigation is presented followed by the rationale, research questions, method, and results of the present investigation.

Individual Influences on the Adoption of Innovations

A seminal work embodying the classical diffusion approach is that by Rogers and Shoemaker (1971). Rogers and Shoemaker reviewed over 1500 empirical studies. They organized the literature into four basic elements. "Crucial elements in the diffusion of new ideas are (1) the innovation (2) which is communicated through certain channels (3) over time (4) among members of a social system"(p. 18). Rogers and Shoemaker used the voting method of meta-analysis (Jackson, 1980). This strategy involves looking at all the empirical studies dealing with a given proposition and reporting the percentages of studies showing effects in a positive or negative direction as well as reporting the percentage of studies that show no effects for a given proposition. The directional conclusion is based on which alternative was supported by the highest percentage of studies. The innovation category breaks down into five attributes for which Rogers and Shoemaker review the literature. These five attributes of innovation are all considered as perceived by the adopter:

(1) Relative advantage--the degree to which an innovation is perceived as better than the idea it supersedes.

(2) Compatability--the degree to which an innovation is perceived as being consistent with the existing values, past experiences, and needs of the receivers.

(3) Complexity--the degree to which an innovation is perceived as difficult to understand and use.

(4) Trialability--the degree to which an innovation may be experimented with on a limited basis.

(5) Observability--the degree to which the results of an innovation are visible to others (pp. 22-23).

Relative advantage, compatibility, trialability, and observability, are all positively related to the rate of adoption of an innovation, while complexity was not found to be related to the rate of adoption.

It should be noted that Rogers and Shoemaker (1971) dealt almost exclusively with the adoption of innovations by individuals. They compared the characteristics of individuals who adopted early to those who adopted later in the process. Characteristics included variables such as education, social status, dogmatism, empathy, rationality, and intelligence. These findings were taken mostly from the rural sociology tradition which investigates the spread of new farm practices and new crops. The question of the generalizability of these findings to the complex situation of an individual in an organization remains.

An example of the limited generalizability of the Rogers and Shoemaker findings was provided in a compelling analysis by

Pincus (1974). Pincus likened the public school to a public utility in terms of the bureaucratic structure and incentives operating to adopt new technologies. Both a public utility and the public schools are non-market oriented with a captive population of non-selected clients. The public schools, however, are likely to be even less innovative than the public utility since there exists little or no consensus concerning the aims of schooling, the technology of schools is unclear, the quality of schooling can vary substantially within a school district, and there is little incentive for schools to be economically competitive. Given this situation, the attributes of innovation that Rogers and Shoemaker identified as leading to adoption are likely to be negatively related to adoption in the public schools. Schools are more likely to adopt innovations that are not readily observable in their effects since this raises the specter of evaluation. Schools should, therefore, be less likely to adopt trialable innovations since the decision to use the innovation can be reversed. Given the kinds of incentives pointed out by Pincus, the situation with respect to the determinants of the adoption of innovations by public service bureaucracies is likely to be vastly different than the determinants of the adoption of a new seed or new farm practice by an individual farmer.

Two recent studies looked at the relative contribution of individual-level and organizational-level variables within an empirical framework. Baldridge and Burnham (1975) studied 20

schools in seven different school districts. They interviewed all district superintendents and principals. In addition, 53 opinion leaders (identified by principals), 309 change participants (participating in the change but not instigating the change), and 775 other teachers (a 50% random sample of the remaining teachers) were questioned. The dependent variable was the adoption/non-adoption of one curricular innovation and one organizational innovation selected from each school. In order to be selected for study, an innovation had to meet two criteria. First, the innovation had to be rated as important by knowledgeable observers, meaning that the observers felt that the change had "real promise" for change in a major educational area. Second, the innovation had to be well established and appear likely to continue for a significant period of time. It was determined that individual characteristics, such as sex, age, work experience, education, career satisfaction, social origin, and cosmopolitanism did not differ among the three groups of teachers studied. The organizational characteristics of district size and complexity were found to be positively related to the adoption of innovations. In addition, indicators of environmental heterogeneity were found to vary positively with the adoption of innovations. Environmental change did not relate to the adoption of innovations. Together size, complexity, and environmental heterogeneity accounted for 31% of the variance in the adoption of innovations. Most importantly, the authors concluded that individual level variables are not important in the adoption of orga-

nizational innovations.

Hage and Dewar (1973) used the concept of values held by organizational personnel to predict the number of new practices adopted in a three-year period in 16 health and welfare organizations. Two types of operationalization of values were used. The first referred to the formal elite, the high level personnel and executive director of the organization. The second referred to the behavioral elite, which included the executive directors and those personnel who reported they always or usually participated in strategic decisions. The values concerned the recognition of the need for change in the environment (an individual level construct). In this study, Hage and Dewar (1973) used as a definition of innovation, anything that was new to the organization. Both value explanations emerged as the strongest predictors of the adoption of innovations. Two measures of organizational complexity, the number of occupational specialities and the degree of professional activity, were also significantly related to the adoption of innovations. However, with all the structural variables held constant, the elite values were still better predictors of the adoption of innovations than the organizational characteristics. The structural variables did not effect the predictive power of the values. This study is important because it shows (contrary to Baldridge & Burnham, 1975) that individual variables can be predictive of organizational innovation over and above the influence of structural explanations.

The papers discussed in this section indicate why the individual tradition in the classical diffusion approach may not be totally applicable to the topic of organizational innovation. Organizational innovation is a complex phenomena involving multiple actors embedded in a context of formal and informal authority structures, personal relationships, as well as organizational relationships to clients and the environment (Pincus, 1974). This context may serve to constrain the individual organizational actor or group (Hage & Dewar, 1973) thus attenuating the relationships among individual variables and innovation adoption (e.g., Baldridge & Burnham, 1975). However, given the finding that innovation adoption was predicted more accurately with individual level variables (values) than with organizational properties (Hage & Dewar, 1973), totally ignoring the whole class of individual variables seems unwarranted. In sum, the assessment of under what organizational and environmental conditions individual variables play a role in organizational innovation needs further clarification.

Organizational Influences on Innovation Adoption

Zaltman, Duncan, and Holbek (1973) used a framework similar to that of Rogers and Shoemaker (1971) to look at the adoption of innovations by organizations. They included the five innovation attributes of Rogers and Shoemaker, but they also expanded the list. Other attributes discussed by Zaltman et. al. included: cost (both financial and social), returns to investment, risk and uncertainty, communicability, scientific status, point of origin,

terminality (whether there exists some point in time after which the adoption of the innovation is less rewarding, useless, or impossible), reversibility, commitment (degree required for successful use of the innovation), impact on interpersonal relationships, and the gateway capacity of the innovation (the extent to which the adoption of one innovation makes the adoption of other innovations easier). Some of these attributes are clearly not attributes of the innovation alone, but depend on the nature of the adopting organization (Downs & Mohr, 1976). In addition to innovation attributes, Zaltman et. al. discussed organizational characteristics related to the adoption of innovations. These are almost the conceptual equivalent of the characteristics of individuals related to early adoption as discussed by Rogers and Shoemaker. Zaltman et. al. (1973) discuss five characteristics of organizations affecting the innovation process:

(1) Complexity--the number of occupational specialities in the organization and their professionalism.

(2) Formalization--the emphasis placed on following specific rules and procedures in performing one's job within the organization.

(3) Centralization--the locus of the authority and decision making in the organization.

(4) Interpersonal Relations--the degree of impersonality in interpersonal relationships within the organization.

(5) Ability to Deal with Conflict--how well the organization

deals with conflict (pp. 159-163).

The effects of these five properties are complex. Some aid in the adoption of innovations yet hinder the effective implementation of innovations. Other properties hinder adoption yet aid in the effective implementation of innovations. For example, complex organizations are more aware of new practices and all other things being equal are more likely to adopt innovations. However, this professionalism is likely to lead to disagreements over how the new idea is to be put into practice. Highly formalized organizations are likely to encounter a large amount of resistance to the changing of practices that the adoption of an innovation will necessitate. However, once the decision is made to adopt and the practices entailed by the innovation are written into the jobs of the organization's members, there is likely to be little problem in implementation.

Zaltman et. al. (1973) emphasized that the effect of the attributes of the innovation are likely to vary depending on the characteristics of the organization. This arguement implies the presence of statistical interaction between innovation attributes and organizational properties. In sum, a major accomplishment of the Zaltman et. al. (1973) work was to emphasize the importance of organizational innovation and to point out some of the applicability of the Rogers and Shoemaker work to this area. Much of the research in the area of organizational innovation has been carried out since the publication of the Zaltman et. al. (1973) work and was not included in their review of the

literature.

The research of Hage and Aiken (1967) and Aiken and Hage (1971) is typical of many of the studies concerning the effects of organizational properties on innovation adoption. In both studies the same sample and dependent variable were utilized. Executive directors of 16 (10 private and six public) health and welfare offices were interviewed and asked how many new practices they had started in the previous five years. This served as the dependent variable. The organizational properties were obtained by interviewing all the directors and department heads, one-half the staff in departments of less than 10 members, and one-third of the staff in departments with more than 10 members. A total of 314 staff were interviewed. These responses were aggregated so as not to give undue weight to the responses of the lower level personnel over the more numerically sparse higher level personnel. The authors concluded that: the number of occupational specialities correlated .48 with innovativeness, the degree of professional activity associated with each occupation correlated .37 with innovativeness, the degree of participation in decision making correlated .49 with innovativeness, and the degree of job codification (formalization) correlated -.47 with innovativeness (Hage & Aiken, 1967). Aiken and Hage (1971) followed the same data collection strategies, except that they asked the executive directors about the number of new practices adopted by the organization in the preceeding five years, three years after the original data collection efforts. Number of occupational

specialities (.59) and degree of professional activity (.63) were significantly related to the number of new practices adopted by the organization in the preceeding five years. In addition, the presence of a rule manual (-.60), the number of communications (.46), and the frequency of communication meetings (.53) were all found to be significantly related to the measure of innovation. In toto, these findings are taken to suggest that the more organic form of organization (Burns & Stalker, 1961) will adopt new practices more readily than the mechanistic organization. These conclusions were causal. However, since the data were correlational in nature, a reversal of the direction of causality cannot be ruled out. In other words, it may be that organizations which adopt innovations become more organic over time because of the adoptions. Emphasizing the effect of innovation adoption on changes in organizational properties is a no less compelling explanation than the authors' conclusions.

Fairweather, Sanders, and Tornatzky (1974) provided additional although somewhat qualified support for the idea that participative decision making leads to the adoption of innovations. However, the results provided strong support for the argument that face-to-face "active" dissemination methods (e.g. demonstrations and site visits) are more effective than "passive" methods (e.g. articles and brochures) in disseminating complex social technologies. This study attempted to persuade state and federal hospitals to adopt the Lodge Program, an innovation which consists of creating autonomous problem solving

groups of patients in the hospital and then moving these functioning groups into the community. Two hundred and fifty-five hospitals were randomly assigned into one of three persuasion strategies; sending of a brochure, holding a workshop, or establishing a demonstration ward. The dependent variable had three levels; no change/no persuasion attempt permitted, no change/persuasion attempt permitted, and persuaded to change. It should be noted that of the 255 hospitals contacted, 23 were persuaded to change. It was found that initial entry (persuasion attempt) was easier in the brochure and workshop condition than in the demonstration ward condition. However, the demonstration ward led to more adoptions of the Lodge Program. Adoption of the program did not vary as a function of the setting of the hospital (rural vs. urban), the social status of the person contacted in the hospitial, consultant experience, or whether the hospital was state or federal. Cluster analyses of questionnaire data revealed that the social change process was more dependent on participative decision making in the workshop and brochure approaches (inactive) than in the more action oriented demonstration ward approach.

Tornatzky, Fergus, Avellar, Fairweather, and Fleischer (1980) dealt with the effects of the number of initial contacts, group enhancement, and the involvement of staff and/or administrators in decision making on whether 108 hospitals wanted a workshop and further implementation assistance on the Lodge

program. The three variables mentioned above were experimentally manipulated. None of the variables affected the consultation decision, and only the level of staff contacted affected the initial workshop decision. The effect of the level of staff was such that when ward level personnel were included there was a greater likelihood that the hospital would participate in the workshop. It should be noted that 30 of the 108 organizations asked for consultation at a later time. The authors concluded that: (1) participation techniques focusing on structure are more effective in producing actual decisions for the innovation, (2) attitudes such as readiness to change and perceived philosophical congruity of the program to the hospital are related to decisions to change, and (3) pre-existing organizational characteristics such as overall participation and innovation attitudes were more predictive of adoption of the innovation than any of the brief experimental manipulations. Further analyses by Tornatzky et. al. (1980) suggested that organizational values and norms were more likely to persist as stable characteristics related to innovation adoption rather than processes such as participative decision making. These variables may be conceptualized as part of the underlying organizational climate (Schneider, 1975).

Siegel and Kaemmerer (1978) focused specifically on the organizational climate for innovation. These researchers administered a questionnaire to respondents in six traditional and two alternative high schools. The assumption was that the

climate in the alternative schools would be more supportive of innovation than the climate in the traditional schools. Significant differences between teachers and students in both types of schools were observed on the following five a priori specified dimensions: leadership, ownership, norms for diversity, continuous development, and consistency. In all cases the teachers were higher on each of these subscales than the students. In addition, there was a main effect for type of school, with the alternative schools scoring significantly higher on all five subscales than the traditional schools. A factor analysis was performed on the responses of the traditional schools' members. This resulted in three factors. The first factor was labelled Support of Creativity. This was the extent to which members perceived the organization as supportive of their functioning independently and supportive of new ideas. The second factor was Tolerance for Differences, which reflected the members' perceptions of the organization's supportiveness and tolerance of diversity among its members. The final factor was Personal Commitment. This reflected the degree of personal commitment that members felt towards the organization. Alternative schools were significantly different from traditional schools on the first two of the above factors. This study highlights organization member's perceptions in traditional and alternative schools. There are two explanations for these findings. Alternative and traditional schools may select staff with norms and values that match the norms and values of the

schools. Alternatively, potential organizational members may self-select (Crites, 1969) into the organization closest to their personal norms and values. Either or both of these processes could have occurred.

Another empirical study investigating the influence of organizational-level variables on innovation adoption in schools was conducted by Deal, Meyer, and Scott (1975). These researchers performed a study involving 188 elementary schools in 34 different districts. All principals were interviewed concerning current instructional practices and classroom organization. Two types of innovation were considered in this study, one an instructional innovation and the other an organizational innovation. Instructional innovation was defined as the amount of instructional differentiation existing in the reading curriculum. Organizational innovation was defined as the organization of teachers into small groups to teach reading. Archival data was collected at both the local school and district levels. Multiple regression was employed to assess the total amount of variance that was explained by all the variables. Normalized beta coefficients were used to indicate the relative importance of each variable. Twenty-three percent of the variance was explained in both instructional and organizational innovation. The most important variables in explaining instructional innovation were number of students in the district (negative), the amount of open space in the school (positive), and the per student expenditure in the district (positive). The most important variables in ex-

plaining organizational innovation were the amount of open space in the school (positive), the proportion of total district administrative staff in special administrative positions (positive), and the per-student expenditure at the district level (positive). The authors concluded that ". . . there is a disconnected pattern of district and school influences on innovation at the classroom level" (p. 124). They also concluded that the pattern of relationships among district and school level variables are different for instructional and organizational innovations. Although the authors conducted no statistical test on the presence of an interaction, the above conclusions suggest that an interaction is present among type of innovation and district and school level variables.

At this point it is useful to summarize the major findings and research implications of these studies. The studies reviewed in this section have focused attention on organizational variables in the adoption of innovations. Hage and Aiken (1967) and Aiken and Hage (1971) pointed out the association among variables indicating a more organismic form of organization (high complexity, low formalization, less centralization) and the number of new practices started in a five year period. Unfortunately, questions about what organizational characteristics were associated with what type of new practices and questions about the direction of causality among organizational characteristics and practice change were not addressed in this research. Tornatzky et. al. (1980) demonstrated the impact of an

organizational atmosphere favoring change or organizational climate on the adoption of an innovation. The more favorable the climate was toward change, the more likely that follow-up and adoption activities would occur. Siegel and Kaemmerer (1978) demonstrated the existence of differential amounts of these climate dimensions in traditional and alternative schools. In both these studies, the question of what caused this "innovative" type of climate was not addressed. Deal, Meyer, and Scott's (1975) results seemed to indicate an interaction among the type of school innovation (instructional or organizational) and the organizational properties associated with adoption. The innovation variable was not defined on a sufficiently detailed level to assess what organizational property related to the starting of a specific practice. Finally, with the exception of the Fairweather and Tornatzky work, these studies as a whole tend to relate macro-organizational properties to macro-definitions of innovation. Questions remain concerning the relationship of these macro-properties to the adoption of specific innovations or practices.

Methodological Criticisms and Considerations

Responding to the lack of consistent findings concerning both organizational properties and innovation attributes from one study to another, Downs and Mohr (1976) pointed out some conceptual problems and methodological pitfalls inherent in much of the previous research. They distinguished among primary and secondary attributes of innovations (and organizations). A

primary attribute of an innovation is an attribute upon which an innovation can be classified without reference to the adopting organization. This is a property of the innovation that is invariant across all the organizations that may ultimately adopt the innovation. A secondary attribute of an innovation is an attribute whose classification depends upon the organization that is contemplating its adoption. These attributes therefore vary depending on the organization.

Downs and Mohr (1976) listed four sources of instability across studies of innovation adoption. First, there could be variation in the primary attribute across studies. Although different investigators think they are studying the same attribute, the difference in the level of the attribute dictates a necessity for a different theory of innovation for each level of a primary attribute. Downs and Mohr argued that, to the extent that primary attributes do exist, there is no chance for a single unitary theory of innovation adoption. A second source of instability is that the idea of a secondary attribute requires that statistical interactions among innovation attributes and organizational properties must be taken into account. Whether an attribute of the innovation or another factor leads to adoption depends on the level of some variable characterizing the organization. This is clearly an interactional hypothesis, and has been ignored by much past research (e.g., Deal, Meyer, & Scott, 1975). A third source of instability concerns the "ecological fallacy" of cross-level inference. Many studies use

as a summary measure of innovation a variable such as "number of new practices" (e.g., Aiken & Hage, 1971; Hage & Aiken, 1967; Hage & Dewar, 1973). This variable is not the same as the adoption of one new practice. The determinants of innovativeness in the aggregate may differ from the determinants of the adoption of a single innovation. When a correlation is found between two aggregated variables such as average perceived cost of innovations and total number of new practices, this does not imply a correlation on the individual level between perceived cost and adoption of the innovation. The fourth source of instability across studies is related to the third source and deals with the operationalization of the dependent variable of innovation. Downs and Mohr provided three different operationalizations of this variable. The first was a binary yes/no definition based on the responses to questions dealing with whether the organization had adopted this particular innovation (or innovations). The second definition dealt with the time of adoption or when the organization first adopted the innovation. The third definition had to with the extent of implementation. These three definitions are clearly three conceptually different phenomena and the determinants of one would seem unlikely to be the determinants of any of the other variables. However, authors often do not limit the generalizability of their findings by the definition of the dependent variable used.

Downs and Mohr concluded with seven prescriptions for studying innovation based on their criticisms of the past

literature. The major prescription was to use what they called the Innovation Decision Design. This involves looking at each innovation in relation to each organization. For example, 10 innovations used, adopted, or considered by 100 organizations, yields a sample size of 1000. The unit of analysis is the innovation-organization link. Other prescriptions dealt with the use of the interactive model, not using a summary or aggregate measure of innovation, being aware of the meaning of the dependent variable chosen for study, and using multiple innovations within a study to look at variations in primary attributes. The reasoning and examples given by Downs and Mohr are very compelling. However, the implications of their arguments rule out any general theory of innovation across the content area of the organizations and the innovations under study, and should therefore be viewed critically.

To begin with, there are problems with some of the premises of the Downs and Mohr (1976) argument. For instance, a question remains about the mere existence of primary attributes. Downs and Mohr use cost as an example of a primary attribute stating that: "For example, some findings of research into the determinants of high-cost innovations are generalizable only to other high-cost innovation" (p. 703). However whether an innovation is perceived as high-cost will depend on how much money the organization has to spend on the area to which the innovation pertains. In short, there do not seem to be any good examples of real-world "primary" innovation attributes. In the

second place, Downs and Mohr discussed the necessity of a different theory of innovation for each different category of primary attribute. They suggested studying each level of primary attribute separately. However, if this was the strategy, the primary attribute could not correlate with any other variable given its invariance. A better strategy would seem to be using more than one category or level of a primary attribute, and to then experimentally study the effects (Fairweather et. al., 1974).

In addition to the criticisms expressed by Downs and Mohr, there are a number of other methodological issues to be raised concerning the other studies reviewed above. For example, many of the studies used a very small sample of organizations. Hage and Aiken (1967), Aiken and Hage (1971), and Hage and Dewar (1973) all used a sample consisting of only 16 organizations. The study by Baldridge and Burnham (1975) used 20 schools in seven different school districts. To the extent that district-wide variables are important in adoption, the effective sample size was only seven. Siegel and Kaemmerer's (1978) sample consisted of eight different schools. Given these small samples, it is little wonder that somewhat inconsistent findings have emerged. However, the samples of Deal et. al. (1975), Fairweather et. al. (1974), and Tornatzky et. al. (1980) consisted of over 100 schools or hospitals.

Another criticism has been leveled at the number of innovations studied. In many of the studies reviewed in this

paper, an aggregate measure of innovation was used (Aiken & Hage, 1971; Hage & Aiken, 1967; Hage & Dewar, 1973). The specific determinants of a single innovation cannot be inferred from these studies. Siegel and Kammerer (1978) did not incorporate a measure of innovation into their study. They assumed a priori that alternative schools were more innovative than traditional schools. Baldridge and Burnham (1975) and Deal et. al. (1975) used variable measures of innovation such that a practice defined as an innovation in one school might not be considered an innovation in another school. Only Fairweather et. al. (1974) and Tornatzky et. al. (1980) dealt with a single innovation. These differing definitions of the dependent variable could easily account for much of the inconsistency in the results across studies. For example, Baldridge and Burnham (1975) only studied extensive innovation with "real promise" that appeared well established and able to continue for a significant period of time. Therefore, the study severely curtailed the range of innovations studied by the selection of only those innovations that had become routinized or part of the standard practice of the organization (Yin, Quick, Bateman, & Marks, 1978). Consequently, their findings apply only to the adoption of innovations that ultimately become routinized.

In summary, many methodological problems must be considered when studying the topic of innovation. Differences within and among studies in (1) the specificity of the measure of innovation, (2) the number and level (e.g. school versus dis-

trict) of organizations sampled, and (3) the criteria for sample inclusion for both innovations and organizations can cause vastly different findings. The Innovation Decision Design suggested by Downs and Mohr, which takes into account complex statistical interactions among variables would seem to offer promise in dealing with these issues.

Exemplary Studies

The studies reviewed below were identified as exemplary for the present research. These studies have applied the greatest amount of empirical attention to the methodological considerations discussed earlier. They also used large samples in general, and issues related to the dependent variables in each of these studies were carefully considered.

Duchesneau, Cohen, and Dutton (1979) studied 50 firms in the footwear industry that were randomly selected from a sample stratified on the basis of geographic location, firm size, and type of shoe produced. Only firms above a minimum size standard and who were potential adopters of the innovations being studied were included in the random sample. Fifteen process and product innovations were studied. Presidents in each firm who were identified as the key decision makers were interviewed. In firms where the presidents were not identified as the key decision maker, the key decision maker was interviewed. In addition, presidents of each firm also completed a questionnaire. A sample of managers in each firm also completed a questionnaire. The response rates to the presidential and managerial questionnaires

were 72% and 66% respectively. This was a very large scale study in terms of the number of variables studied. For this reason only certain findings will be summarized here. It is of special importance to note that these findings supported the Downs and Mohr (1976) interaction hypothesis in two respects. First, the effect of a given factor on adoption varied as a function of the innovation studied. The authors also considered definitions of innovation both in the macro sense (all 15 innovations) and in the micro sense (yes/no to the adoption of a single innovation). The findings again support Downs and Mohr in that factors predicting the adoption of innovations in the aggregate did not predict the adoption of innovations in the individual sense. Another major finding was that models including both economic variables (research and development activity) and organizational variables (number of occupational specialities) were better predictors of the adoption of innovations than either class of these variables alone. When both economic variables and organizational variables were included in the analysis, the size of the firm had no incremental effect on the adoption of innovations. Size was found to be a proxy variable for: the presence of a larger body of professional and technically specialized managers, less reliance on traditional sources of information, presidents less bound by industry tradition, and the utilization of more sophisticated management techniques. One final finding of interest was the relationship between real time and retrospective data. It was found that there was substantial

variation between the real time and retrospective values obtained for many variables. Correlations between the values of variables collected in 1975 and 1977 range from .28 to .98. Agreement on responses to two other questions was 86% and 69%. Based on their analysis, the authors concluded that retrospective analysis tends to overstate the values of variables compared to real time measurement and that the reliability of retrospective data is suspect.

Another exemplary study was carried out by Bigoness and Perreault (1980). They used the data of Duchesneau et. al. (1979) to generate a multiple innovation criteria (counter to the recommendations of Downs and Mohr). Bigoness and Perreault specified three domains that are important to consider when designing studies of innovation. The first was the innovativeness domain, i.e., the adoption/non-adoption of a given innovation. The second was the content domain of the innovations sampled. This refers to the type of innovations, e.g., specific single-application innovations versus general innovations. The third was the reference domain, i.e., the comparison sample of the organizations being considered. That is, innovating organizations should be compared to organizations that did not adopt a specific innovation with respect to a variety of organizational and member characteristics. These authors argued that the generalizability of the findings of a study are limited by the representativeness of the content and reference domains. Bigoness and Perreault used multiple innovations scored in a

dichotomous yes/no fashion to determine the innovativeness of firms in the footwear industry. The independent variables were the possession of an internal technical group and the presence of managers with technical expertise. Item analysis procedures were applied to 12 innovations to arrive at the final criterion measure, resulting in the deletion of six innovations with no variability. The final criterion measure thus included six innovations. The reliability of this measure (internal consistency) was .68, and the authors concluded from this coefficient that the innovations were homogeneous. Summarizing a few of these results, the presence of a technical engineering group was found to be significantly related to the adoption of innovations for firms that did not possess technical managerial experience; the technical expertise of the managers was related to innovativeness when firms did not possess a technical engineering group; and firms with both managers with technical expertise and a technical engineering group were not more innovative than firms with either of the above groups.

A third exemplary study dealt more directly with the Directed Development (or RD&D) model of change. House, Kerins, and Steele (1972) studied the diffusion of centers for gifted children. Twelve hundred visitors to 20 demonstration centers were asked what they were doing as a result of their visit and their reasons for accepting or rejecting what they had seen two, four, six, or 12 months after their visit to the demonstration center. The authors found that: 29% of the

visitors could supply a specific, concrete example of what they were doing as a result of the visit; and the shorter the time period between the visits and the administration of the questionnaire, the more concrete examples the teachers could supply. However, more important than the time interval between the visit and the questionnaire was the time of year in which teachers and administrators received the questionnaires. That is, more specific examples were garnered when teachers were questioned in the spring rather than in the fall. In addition, only 2% of the visitors adopted the program in toto. For administrators, follow-up help from the demonstration center and an administrative judgment of how well the program worked were the most important factors in accounting for changes as a result of the demonstration visit. The most important reasons for attempting the change for teachers were that: time spent would be well used, they were able to adopt parts of the program, administrators would accept change, enough facilities were available, and that cooperation from other teachers could be obtained. Interestingly, these reasons all dealt with how well the change fits into the teachers world; the subject area and grade level of the teacher was only of slight importance. Finally, it should be noted that this study asked innovation adopters directly why they adopted part or all of the program, rather than relying only on organizational or individual variables to explain the reasons for adoption.

Implications of the Exemplary Studies

These studies taken together have important implications for the present research. First, the Duchesneau et. al. (1979) study supports Downs and Mohr's (1976) argument concerning the use of aggregated versus single measures of innovation, yet the Bigoness and Perreault (1980) study supports the idea of using a multiple innovation criteria. Therefore, given the present "state of the art" of our understanding of innovation processes, it would seem that the ability to use both the micro (within innovation) and macro (across innovations) definitions of innovation should be built into research designed to study innovation. Second, the framework of reference and content domains (Bigoness & Perreault, 1980) is very useful to consider when sampling innovations and organizations. Finally, a focus on the perceived reasons (House, Kerins, & Steele, 1972) for adoption would seem to offer promise in explicating factors important to organizational adoption decisions.

Rationale for the Present Study and Research Questions

The preceding literature review has pointed out the importance of various individual and organizational characteristics in the study of innovation in organizations. Individual values, participative decision-making, organizational climate, and centralization of control all have been related empirically to the adoption of innovations by organizations. In addition, methodological problems such as different levels of aggregation in the measure of innovation, small sample sizes,

varying criteria for sample inclusion, and the failure to use statistical tests for interactions cast doubts on many of the findings in the existing literature. As a resolution to the inconsistency of this literature, it is suggested that the perceived reasons for the adoption decision across many different innovations may provide a mediating variable between organizational characteristics and innovation adoption. The present research addresses the following questions:

1) What are the reasons that organizations adopt programs? Do these reasons differ as a function of the program that is under consideration? Given that most of the past research in this area has taken place in the field of education, are there differences between education as a field and other fields in terms of the reasons for adopting programs?
2) Do organizations which ultimately adopt a program differ from organizations which have never heard of the program in terms of increasing, decreasing, or stable numbers of clients, administrators, and front-line service providing staff? Are there differences on these variables as a function of either the program under consideration or field that the organization is in?
3) Do organizations that ultimately adopt a program have different patterns of participation in decision making than organizations which have never heard of the program? If so, are these differences a function of either the program or

the field?

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Sample

Innovations. This study focused on organizational social innovations, defined broadly as changes in work, patterns of interaction, or practices and procedures within organizations. The reference domain (Bigoness & Perreault, 1980) or comparison group of organizations for this study was created with respect to two dimensions: use/non-use, and awareness/non-awareness of a given innovation at a given point in time. This creates a matrix (see Figure 1) of different organizations in each of the three cells with the fourth cell being not of interest in the present research. In the first cell are those organizations that are both aware of the innovation and currently using the innovation. Organizations falling in this cell are sustainers or adopters. The second cell contains those organizations that are aware of the innovation but are not currently using the innovation for one of two reasons. Either these organizations never implemented the

Figure 1

Reference Domain Categorization of Organizations

	Currently Using Innovation	Not Currently Using Innovation
Aware of Innovation	Sustainers OR Adopters	Aware Non-adopters, OR Terminators (discontinued innovation use)
Unaware of Innovation	----------	Unaware Non-adopters

innovation (called aware non-adopters) or these organizations have stopped using the innovation (called terminators). The third non-empty cell contains those organizations that have never heard of the innovation and for that reason are not using the innovation. The logically empty cell contains those organizations that are unaware of the innovation but are currently using the innovation. Without looking at implementation issues (Hall & Loucks, 1976) it is impossible to determine whether the practices and methods that the organization is using in a given area are actually the innovation under study. Since this was a study of issues in the adoption of innovations, it was decided to ignore this cell.

Since the field of education has been at the forefront of research on innovation adoption, it was decided to include a second field as well in this study. The field of criminal justice was chosen as the second field. The fields of education and criminal justice at the Federal level, are two of the most visible users of the RD&D policy model.

Four programs were chosen for study from each of these two fields. Table 1 contains a brief description of each of the programs. In order to be included in the present study, programs had to meet the following four criteria:

a) Validation --A major criterion for the inclusion of an innovation in the study was a federally approved summative evaluation or "validation" of the innovation prior to its dissemination. This was necessary in order to insure that the innovations

Table 1

Innovations Selected in the Present Study

Education

Help One Student to Succeed (HOSTS)--A diagnostic, prescriptive, tutorial reading program for children in grades 2-6. Tutors are community volunteers and high school students. The program includes "pulling out" students from their regular classes at least one-half hour per day.

ECOS Training Institute (ECOS)--A training program to help principals and teachers infuse new content areas into existing curricula or add new content areas. A major part is the formation of a committee composed of administrators, teachers, and students. Deals with all grade levels.

Experience Based Career Education (EBCE)--This program provides experience outside of school at volunteer field sites for the student. Systematic career and interest exploration on the part of the student is also encouraged. The development of an individualized learning plan for each student is carried out. Program concerns high school students.

Focus Dissemination Project (FOCUS)--A "school within a school" for disaffected junior and senior high school students. All students are required to participate in a group of 8-10 students and one leader (called Family). Students take at least one class in the Focus program. Classes in the Focus program involve individualized, self-paced instruction.

Criminal Justice

One Day/One Trial (ODOT)--A jury management system that calls in a certain number of potential jurors per day. Potential jurors come in for that day and if not selected to serve in a trial have completed their obligation.

Community Arbitration Project (CAP)--Juvenile offenders are sent to a formal arbitration hearing run by the court intake division, rather than to courts. Juveniles have the specific consequences of their actions explained to them. Youths are then given a number of hours of informal supervision usually involving work in the community.

Community Crime Prevention (SCCPP)--This program is a three phase attack at residential burglary. This involves the setting up of a neighborhood block watch, property marking and inventory, and home security inspections.

Pre-Release Center (MCPRC)--Involves the setting up of a residential facility separate from the prison. This facility should be in the community from which most of the inmates are drawn. Inmates are encouraged to work so that they will have a job when they are released. Counseling and social awareness instruction is also part of this program.

would not vary considerably as a function of their perceived legitimacy to potential adopters, and to increase the likelihood that the process of disseminating the innovations closely approximated the RD&D model. Two federal programs currently in operation require this validation prior to dissemination: the National Diffusion Network (NDN) of the Department of Education and the Exemplary Projects Program of the Department of Justice. To become a part of the NDN diffusion effort, a program must go through the Joint Dissemination Review Panel. This process entails the submission of evidence documenting the innovative program's effectiveness (Emrick et. al., 1977). Criminal Justice programs seeking exemplary project status go through a similar evaluation/application process and are evaluated on site (The National Institute Host Program Report, 1979). As a first step in selecting the specific programs to be investigated, written literature on all the NDN programs and the Exemplary Projects was obtained. Program descriptions were read and programs were chosen that met three additional criteria.

b) Replications --In order to guarantee a sufficient sample size for analysis of the data, only programs that could reasonably guarantee 20-30 adopters were chosen for study. This was ascertained through discussions with innovation developers, and NDN and Exemplary Projects Program administrators.

c) Age of the innovation --In order to insure the ability to investigate implementation and routinization issues in later phases of the research, it was necessary to select innovations

that had been disseminated for at least three years. This allowed a sufficient length of time for adopters of two or more years to be operating programs that have become standard operating procedures in their organizations.

d) Organization-wide innovations --Since this study was primarily concerned with organizational influences on innovation adoption, a large amount of effort went into choosing innovations that were complex and likely to require an organizational decision to adopt. Two sub-criteria were of primary importance in this decision: the number of organizational units involved in the program, and the demands of the organization to interact with its environment. For example, if the innovation could be implemented by a single teacher or a single police officer without a large amount of interaction being required with community members, the innovation was not included in this study.

Unit of analysis. The study of organizational innovations requires an appropriate definition of the adopting "organization". In the field of education, following a number of discussions with NDN administrators, innovation developers, and other researchers concerning the appropriate decision unit, schools were chosen as the unit of analysis. Although school districts frequently have a good deal of influence on the adoption decision, they are generally far removed from crucial implementation decisions. Schools and districts are the prime example of what is called "loosely-coupled systems" (Weick, 1976). For example, in the present study, a number of

cases were found where district administrators claimed to have adopted a program, when in fact no such program was in place. Consequently, the influence of the district was measured in this study, but the school remained the unit of analysis.

In criminal justice, the decision concerning the appropriate unit of analysis was more difficult. In order to insure comparability across social policy areas, the organization was defined as the unit which implemented the innovation, unless the implementing unit was created solely to operate the newly adopted program (i.e., the organizational unit had to exist prior to the adoption decision in order to make the decision). During the course of the research, decisions on what to call various units within the criminal justice field were made with an eye to insuring compatibility with the decision to treat the school as the adopting organization.

Random sampling of organizations within innovations. In order to allow greater generalizability of research findings, a random selection of organizations was undertaken within each innovation. In the education area, a 3% random sample of all schools in the continental United States was generated from a source tape purchased from the National Center for Educational Statistics and Market Data Retrieval. Potential adopting schools were then randomly selected from this list for any of the four educational innovations. In the criminal justice area, a 3% random sample from all the appropriate organizational units was generated for each of the following types of organizations: circuit

and district courts, juvenile courts, police departments, and prisons. This sample was generated from a tape of organizations purchased from the United States Department of the Census. Potential adopters of the four criminal justice programs were randomly selected from this source list.

Purposive sampling of organizations. As a fail-safe, in case the random identification procedure was too costly in terms of time and effort, lists were obtained from other sources. The source for obtaining lists of potential adopters was the innovation developers. These lists varied considerably in quality from one innovation to another. For example, some developers had very detailed lists of adopters including date implemented and contact person at the adopting site. Other developers only had lists of people who had requested literature about the program. As a result, for some of the innovations it was difficult to identify a sufficient number of adopters from the developer supplied lists. In an attempt to alleviate this problem, various state planning agencies in criminal justice and state facilitators in education were contacted.

Switching from random to purposive lists. After several weeks of data collection using the randomly generated lists of organizations, data was compiled concerning the utility of this method for identifying adopters, terminators, and aware non-adopters. Combining the 115 organizations contacted across the eight innovations, the following breakdown existed within the following categories:

adopters N=3 (2.6%)

terminators N=0 (0%)

aware non-adopters N=4 (3.4%)

unaware non-adopters N-103 (89.7%)

The number of organizations contacted within each innovation ranged from 12 to 19 with a mean of approximately 14. If it were to be assumed that the true number of adopters and aware non-adopters in the population was seven out of every 100 organizations contacted, then the number of contacts required to obtain a sample of 25 of each category would be approximately 357 per innovation. For this study, 2856 contacts would be required. Due to time and financial constraints, the random lists were abandoned as a means of identifying adopters in favor of the purposive lists obtained primarily from the innovation developers. The idea of comparing the various reference groups with respect to their status on an innovation was scaled down to compare just the adopters with the unaware non-adopters. The random lists continued to be used in order to identify additional unaware non-adopters.

Respondents. One hundred and sixty adopters and 158 unaware non-adopters were contacted over the phone. Table 2 shows the breakdown of adopters and unaware non-adopters by each of the eight programs. As can be seen from the table, somewhat more of the adopters were from the four educational programs and two more unaware non-adopters were from the criminal justice programs.

The decision to treat schools as the "organization" led to

Table 2

Number of Adopters and Unaware Non-adopters by Program

		Adopters	Unaware Non-adopters
Education	HOSTS	32	18
	ECOS	24	20
	EBCE	28	20
	FOCUS	25	20
Criminal Justice	ODOT	16	20
	CAP	9	20
	SCCPP	18	20
	MCPRC	8	20
	Total	160	158

some problems. The framework for this study was erected with educational organizations in mind and was stretched to fit the situation in criminal justice. Multiple schools are found within a single school district. It should be noted that in some cases multiple schools within a single district had adopted the same program. For the purposes of this research, only one school within the district was treated as a program adopter. The term "super-ordinate organization" was used to refer to districts in this study. Various actors at the district level were categorized into three different groups: Policy/Budget super-ordinate organization (SO), which included members of the school board; Administrative SO, including various district-level administrators such as superintendents and assistant superintendents; Specialized SO staff, which included district heads of departments such as Vocational Education, curriculum coordinators, and Personnel. On the school level, the various actors were categorized as follows: Organization (O) administrators, which included principals and assistant principals; Specialized O staff, including guidance counselors and school level department heads; O Front-Line staff or teachers. In addition a category was used to signify when the respondent had left the organization or the field.

The above framework was used for the criminal justice programs as well. The distinction between the O and the SO was much more difficult in criminal justice than it was in education. Some of the actors coded into the various categories include:

county commisioners (SO Policy/Budget); city council, city manager, director of public works, chiefs of the Department of Corrections, and Juvenile Service Administration heads (SO Administrative); special project or grant coordinators, state level special consultants (SO specialized staff); judges, court administrators, police chiefs, wardens, mayors, independent agency directors, and chief probation officers (O Administrators); work release coordinators, lawyers or detectives (Specialized O staff); intake workers, court clerks, baliffs, probation officers, correction officers and patrolmen (O Front-Line staff). Difficulties with this framework for the organizations in criminal justice were mainly concerned with defining the appropriate super-ordinate organization. All decisions were made with an eye to keeping consistency with the situation in education.

Table 3 shows a breakdown of the adopters by the program and job position. Across all the programs, the two major categories of respondents were O Administrators (n=71, 44%) and O Front-Line staff (n=37, 23%). Table 4 shows the same breakdowns for unawre non-adopters. Across all the programs the two major categories of respondents were again O Administrators (n=90, 58%) and O Front-Line staff (n=38, 25%). The job positions in Tables 3 and 4 were content coded after all the data had been collected. The number of unaware non-adopters in Table 4 is not the same as the number presented in Table 2 due to missing or incomplete data.

Table 3

Percentage, Number, and Current Content Coded Job Position
by Program for Adopters
(Abbreviations Explained in the Text)

Program	SO Policy/ Budget	SO Administrative	O Administrators	Specialized SO Staff	Specialized O Staff	O Front-Line Staff	Left the Field	Total
HOSTS	0%(0)	6.3%(2)	31.3%(10)	15.6%(5)	18.8%(6)	28.1%(9)	0%(0)	32
ECOS	0%(0)	0%(0)	45.8%(11)	8.3%(2)	12.5%(3)	29.2%(7)	4.2%(1)	24
EBCE	0%(0)	3.6%(1)	25.0%(7)	7.1%(2)	39.3%(11)	14.3%(4)	10.7%(3)	28
FOCUS	0%(0)	4.0%(1)	24.0%(6)	12.0%(3)	28.0%(7)	28.0%(7)	4.0%(1)	25
ODOT	0%(0)	0%(0)	68.8%(11)	0%(0)	6.2%(1)	12.5%(2)	12.5%(2)	16
CAP	0%(0)	0%(0)	77.8%(7)	0%(0)	0%(0)	22.2%(2)	0%(0)	9
SCCPP	0%(0)	0%(0)	61.1%(11)	0%(0)	0%(0)	33.3%(6)	5.6%(1)	18
MCPRC	0%(0)	0%(0)	100.0%(8)	0%(0)	0%(0)	0%(0)	0%(0)	8

Table 4

Percentage, Number, and Current Content Coded Job Position by Program for Unaware Non-adopters (Abbreviations Explained in the Text)

Program	SO Policy/ Budget	SO Administrative	O Administrators	Specialized SO Staff	Specialized O Staff	O Front-Line Staff	Left the Field	Total
HOSTS	0%(0)	11.1%(2)	83.3%(15)	0%(0)	5.6%(1)	0%(0)	0%(0)	18
ECOS	0%(0)	0%(0)	84.2%(16)	0%(0)	5.3%(1)	10.5%(2)	0%(0)	19
EBCE	0%(0)	15.8%(3)	52.6%(10)	5.3%(1)	26.3%(5)	0%(0)	0%(0)	19
FOCUS	0%(0)	10.0%(2)	60.0%(12)	5.0%(1)	25.0%(5)	0%(0)	0%(0)	20
ODOT	0%(0)	0%(0)	20.0%(4)	0%(0)	0%(0)	80.0%(16)	0%(0)	20
CAP	0%(0)	5.3%(1)	63.2%(12)	0%(0)	0%(0)	31.5%(6)	0%(0)	19
SCCPP	0%(0)	0%(0)	78.9%(15)	0%(0)	0%(0)	21.1%(4)	0%(0)	19
MCPRC	15.0%(3)	0%(0)	30.0%(6)	0%(0)	5.0%(1)	50.0%(10)	0%(0)	20

Measures

Adoption Decision Questionnaire. This instrument was designed to obtain perceptions of informed organizational personnel concerning the important reasons for the adoption decision. The Adoption Decision Questionnnaire (ADQ) was based on variables from the literature reviewed above and included items in the following categories: perceived innovation characteristics, characteristics of innovation champions and change agents, support or antagonism from relevant groups or actors inside or outside the organization, amount and type of role change required by the innovation, availability of organizational and extra-organizational resources for the innovation, incentives for innovation within the organization, quality of the management of the adoption decision process, and environmental factors aiding or hindering the adoption of the innovation. In addition the following information was gathered when relevant: how the organization first came in contact with the innovation, the length and extent of the respondent's involvement with the innovation, the respondent's job position at present and when the innovation decision was made, the locus of the final innovation adoption decision, whether alternative innovations were being considered, and whether the organization was aware of the validation of the innovation and to what extent that awareness played a role in the adoption decision. Appendix A contains the Adoption Decision Questionnaire.

Organization Profile. This instrument was designed to obtain information concerning organizational resources, age, location, size, and extent of contact with NDN or the LEAA Exemplary Projects Program. In addition, information concerning the level and number of actors involved in both the adoption decision and involved in decision-making in general was collected for adopters. Only the latter piece of information was collected for unaware non-adopters. This information was collected in terms of the category system for various organizational groups and actors discussed above. Appendix B contains the Organizational Profile.

Procedure

Interviewers. Interviewers were undergraduate and graduate students from Michigan State University. All interviewers committed themselves to participating in data collection for at least two academic terms. Students received course credit, payment, or some combination of the two for their participation.

Interviewer training. Interviewers were initially exposed to materials concerning the objectives of the research project, NDN, LEAA Exemplary Projects Program, and the specific innovations included in the research.

A mastery system of data collection training was used with the interviewers. The bulk of the interview (Adoption Decision Questionnaire) was intended to follow an open-ended, fairly unstructured, conversational format. Interviewers were provided an outline of areas to focus upon (Appendix C) and were trained

through the use of role plays, in the skills of manipulating the direction of the conversational interview. The Organizational Profile, on the other hand, presented fewer problems due to its requiring a much more structured gathering of demographic data.

Training lasted four to six weeks. Mastery was determined through an inter-rater agreement process. Interviewers were required to complete at least one inter-rater agreement session (project staff listened in on the call) with an exact agreement coding figure of at least .70. Interviewers who did not reach this criterion within the allotted time interval were assigned other tasks.

Interview administration. The interviews were conducted by telephone. When calling from the randomly sampled list of organizations, interviewers frequently had to go through a complex tracking process to locate the appropriate respondent. Interviewers first had to determine if there was someone in the organization who had heard of the particular innovation in question and then ascertain whether the innovation was currently in use in the organization. Respondents in adopting organizations were interviewed both concerning the reasons for adoption (Adoption Decision Questionnaire) and organizational demographics (Organizational Profile). Respondents in unaware non-adopting organizations were interviewed only concerning organizational demographics.

In all cases the interviewer attempted to locate and interview the person in the organization most knowledgeable

about the adoption decision even if this person was no longer employed by the specific organization. This procedure insured questioning a respondent who was actually involved in the adoption decision.

The interview itself started with the interviewer introducing him or herself and the purposes of the research. The interviewer then asked questions concerning the respondent's relationship to the innovation. In the educational arena, districts were defined a priori as super-ordinate organizations. However, in the criminal justice area, respondents were queried as to the existience of a relevant super-ordinate organization for their particular organization.

The interviewer then asked about some of the reasons that influenced the adoption decision. The interviewers were instructed to obtain as many reasons as possible from the respondents. After obtaining an exhaustive list of reasons from the respondents, interviewers asked a series of "probes" to obtain additional reasons. These probes were the ADQ variable categories discussed above prefaced by "Was there anything about [variable category e.g., the availability of resources] which had an impact in your decision making?" Interviewers then verbally summarized the respondent's reasons for adoption and asked for clarification or amplification if neccesary. Appendix C contains the interview protocol. Interviewers then asked the questions on the Organizational Profile.

Immediately following the interview, interviewers coded the

interviews. The coding protocol for the Adoption Decision Questionnaire was contained on the ADQ itself (Appendix A). The coding protocol for the Organizational Profile was also contained on the instrument itself (Appendix B).

Reliability and validity. Reliability was assessed through an inter-rater agreement figure (Tinsley & Weiss, 1975). To assess this, a second person listened on the phone during the interview and subsequently coded the interview. During the calculation of agreement, the 139 items on the ADQ dealing with the reasons for the adoption decision were collapsed across the five-point ADQ scale (see Appendix A) resulting in three scale points: reasons to adopt; reasons not mentioned or not important to the adoption decision; and reasons not to adopt.

The researcher was concerned that the reasons for adoption should be more than just the idiosyncratic reaction of a single individual to the program in question. It was hoped that the reasons for adoption would be organizational considerations taken into account during decision making. In order to assess this, a second respondent at a sample of organizations was interviewed. Ideally, in order to minimize the possible confounding effects of respondent disagreement due to differential organizational levels, this second respondent was identified at the same organizational level as the initial respondent. Inter-respondent agreement was determined to be the percentage of exact agreement as interviewed and coded by the same interviewer. Inter-respondent agreement is very similar conceptually to the concept

of validity and is an example of the reliability of the respondent. If reliability and validity are conceived to exist on a single continuum, interrespondent agreement is in the gray area between these two concepts. Inter-respondent agreement taps whether the information given by the initial respondent converges with the information provided by a second respondent in the organization. That is, whether this information was known to a second respondent in the organization.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Reliability and Validity

Table 5 shows the inter-coder agreement on the Adoption Decision Questionnaire and Organizational Profile. This percentage for each organization on the Adoption Decision Questionnaire was calculated as:

$$\frac{\text{\# of reasons on which coders agreed}}{\text{total \# or reasons mentioned by either coder}}$$

The average percentage agreement across all programs was .587. This figure on first glance seems rather low. It should be noted that agreement was calculated in a quite conservative manner. Much of the coding of the interview consisted of deciding that a given reason was not a factor in the adoption decision at a given organization. These reasons did not enter into the calculation of agreement. When these reasons do enter into the calculation, agreement ranges from .863 to .966 with a mean agreement of .921. Table 5 also shows the inter-coder agreement on the Organiza-

Table 5

Inter-coder Agreement on the Adoption Decision Questionnaire and Organizational Profile by Program

	ADQ		OP	
	% Agreement	N of Cases	% Agreement	N of Cases
HOSTS	.595	2	.759	2
ECOS	---	0	---	0
EBCE	---	0	---	0
FOCUS	.566	2	.897	1
ODOT	.645	3	.876	3
CAP	.174	1	.676	1
SCCPP	.650	2	.886	1
MCPRC	.660	2	.946	2
	$\bar{X}$ = .587	12	$\bar{X}$ = .850	10

tional Profile. The reliability calculation is not conservative for this measure due to the more structured nature of the measure. Inter-coder agreement on this measure ranges from .676 to .946 with a mean of .850.

Some of the programs did not have either the inter-coder or inter-respondent checks according to Tables 5 and 6. This was because of the difference between the random and purposive samples. In the initial phases of the research, inter-coder agreement was computed for training purposes on aware non-adopters. The agreement figures on terminators and aware non-adopters are not reported in Tables 5 and 6.

Inter-respondent agreement was calculated in a similar manner as inter-coder agreement with the focus being on the respondents rather than the coders. Table 6 shows the inter-respondent agreement on the Adoption Decision Questionnaire and Organizational Profile. Again, the procedure used to compute agreement on the Adoption Decision Questionnaire does not include the reasons that respondents agreed were not a factor in the adoption decision. Inter-respondent agreement including these reasons ranges from .774 to .945 with a mean of .890. Table 6 shows the inter-respondent agreement on the Organization Profile is again higher than that of the Adoption Decision Questionnaire.

Reliability and validity were considered to be adequate given the conservative nature of the procedure used to calculate these proportions. A second reason for judging the reliability and validity adequate will be taken up in the section dealing

Table 6

Inter-respondent Agreement on the Adoption Decision Questionnaire and Organizational Profile by Program

	ADQ		OP	
	% Agreement	N of Cases	% Agreement	N of Cases
HOSTS	.643	3	.650	3
ECOS	.286	1	.650	1
EBCE	.454	3	.703	3
FOCUS	.586	2	.627	2
ODOT	.515	2	.736	2
CAP	---	0	---	0
SCCPP	---	0	---	0
MCPRC	.652	1	.900	1
	$\bar{X}$ = .536	12	$\bar{X}$ = .692	12

with the scaling of the reasons for adoption.

Reasons for Adoption

Number of reasons. Table 7 shows the mean and standard deviation of the number of reasons by program. An analysis of variance of the number of reasons coded by program failed to reveal any significant differences among programs in terms of the number of reasons coded ($F(7,152) = 1.90$ $p>.05$).

Scaling of the reasons for adoption. The reasons for adoption were scaled using rational and empirical methods (Jackson, 1971). The first step was the elimination of items that had less than a 10% endorsement frequency across the 160 adopters. The five point scale used for the Adoption Decision Questionnaire was actually two separate scales. The negative end of the scale was designed specifically to be used with aware non-adopters. The negative end of the scale refers to factors that were reasons not to adopt. Since the reference group of aware non-adopters with respect to the innovation was so hard to locate given either the random or purposive sampling strategy coupled with resource constraints, it was decided not to pursue identification of these organizations. In the scaling of the reasons for adoption, only adopters were considered. Because of the discontinuous nature of the scale, only those reasons which were coded on the scale points: not mentioned or unimportant, less important reasons to adopt, and important reasons to adopt, were considered in scaling. Zero-order correlations were then computed for all items. Based on item content, coding protocol, and negative cor-

Table 7

Means and Standard Deviations of the Number of Reasons Given by Each of the Programs

Program	Mean	Standard Deviation
HOSTS	17.84	4.90
ECOS	15.67	4.51
EBCE	17.07	4.11
FOCUS	15.00	4.12
ODOT	14.88	4.27
CAP	14.11	5.21
SCCPP	15.55	5.11
MCPRC	13.50	4.24

relations, some items addressing very specific aspects of the same general construct were combined into one item. For example, combining of items took place on two items referring to the perceived expense of the program. One item referred to the program being inexpensive due to grant support brought in by the program while the other item referred to the program being inexpensive without any referent. Clearly, both these items are getting at the perceived expense of the program to the organization. However, due to coding procedures these items would never both be coded for the same organization. Therefore there was a negative correlation between these two items. For the purposes of building reliable scales, in instances such as the above, items were added together and the mean of the two items was taken to represent the constructs.

Given the fact that some of the specific items had to be combined into a single item, the fairly low inter-rater agreement was less of a concern than it might ordinarily have been. A good deal of the disagreement among coders consisted of differences in coding on items that were later combined. Given both the combining of some of the items and the conservative nature of the inter-rater agreement calculation, the reliability obtained was considered adequate.

Figure 2 shows the scale names and item composition of each of the four scales that resulted from the process outlined above. The first scale was called Expense and Financial Support and its items refer to both the perceived expense of the program and the

Figure 2

Items in Scales and Scale Names

ADQ Item #*	Scale Name	Item
	Expense and Financial Support	
67		Program would be relatively inexpensive for the organization.
68		Program would be relatively inexpensive for the organization due to grant support brought in by the program.
115		Federal financial support was available.
119		State financial support was available.
123		Local financial support was available.
	Changes in Roles and Role Relationships	
52		Program would involve large change in the organization's client roles or role behaviors.
54		Program would require a large change in the organization's member roles or role behaviors.
55		Program would involve a large change in the role relationships (interaction) between any organization actors.
59		Program would improve the interpersonal relationships in the organization.

*The following items were combined due to coding procedures for scaling purposes (see text): 67 and 68; 115, 119 and 123; 52 and 54.

Figure 2 (cont.)

Items in Scales and Scale Names

ADQ Item #*	Scale Name	Item
	Expected Smooth Implementation	
43		Program would increase the efficiency of the organization (broadly interpreted).
45		Program would not take a lot of staff time to execute.
39		Program would be likely to function smoothly in the organization (WORKABLE; organization member-organization, i.e., administrative).
41		Program would be likely to function smoothly in the organization (WORKABLE; organization member-client, i.e., services process).
107		Appropriate materials for the program were available before adoption.
111		Appropriate facilities were available for the program before adoption.
	Support	
70		Members of the policy super-ordinate organization were supportive of the program.
72		Members of the administrative super-ordinate organization were supportive of the program.
74		Administrators in the organization were supportive of the program.
76		Specialized super-ordinate organization staff were supportive of the program.
78		Specialized organizational staff directly involved with the program's implementation were supportive of the program.
80		Front-line staff (potentially) directly involved with the program's implementation were supportive of the program.

*The following items were combined due to coding procedures for scaling purposes (see text): 39 and 41; 107 and 111.

perceived availability of financial support. The second scale was called Changes in Roles and Role Relationships and its items refer to changes in either client or member roles and interactions or interpersonal relationships among organizational actors. The third scale was called Expected Smooth Implementation and had items referring to the workability of the program, lack of staff time to execute the program, expectations that the program would increase the efficiency of the organization, and the belief that the organization posessed appropriate facilities or materials to carry out the program before adoption. The fourth scale was called Support and had items referring to support from various actors at either the super-ordinate organization or organizational level.

Table 8 shows the correlations among the scales and the internal consistency (alpha) of each of the scales. It should be noted that no internal consistency estimate was carried out for the Support scale. Due to the coding protocol, multiple actors were sometimes put into the same item. Also, there is little reason to expect that what one level of the organization supports another level would also support. Given the saliency in the literature of support as a factor in the adoption process (e.g., Berman & McGlaughlin, 1978) this scale was retained on strictly a priori, rational grounds. A look at Table 8 shows that all the internal consistency estimates are .50 or above. Table 8 also shows that three out of the six possible correlation among the scales were significantly different from zero.

Table 8

Scale Correlations of the Reasons for Adoption

	Expense and Financial Support	Changes in Roles and Role Relationships	Expected Smooth Implementation	Support
Expense and Financial Support	(.54)*			
Changes in Roles and Role Relationships	.23***	(.54)		
Expected Smooth Implementation	.20***	.17***	(.51)	
Support	.07	.10	-.09	**

*Diagonals are coefficient alphas

**Rational Scale (no α computed)

***$p < .05$

Differences among programs on the scales. Table 9 shows the scale means and standard deviations for each of the four scales by program. Due to significant correlations among the scales, a multivariate analysis of variance was performed. The scales showed significant multivariate heterogeneity of variance. A square root transformation on each of the scales was carried out to attempt to control for the heterogeneity since the heterogeneity could have been due to the non-orthogonality or unbalanced nature of the design. Significant heterogeneity of variance still existed on the Change in Roles and Role Relationships scale and the Expected Smooth Implementation scale. The multivariate analysis of variance did reveal significant differences among the scales by program (Wilk's F approximation= 17.26 $p<.00001$). On this basis, univariate analyses of variance were performed.

Table 10 shows the results of the univariate analyses of variance. As can be seen, all the scales differed significantly as a function of the program. In order to determine whether these differences occurred as a function of whether the program was in education or criminal justice, planned contrast analyses of variance were performed. No significant differences were found beween areas on the Expense and Financial Support scale ($T(152) = .82$, $p>.05$), the Changes in Roles and Role Relationships scale ($T(152) = .75$, $p>.05$), and the Support scale ($T(152) = 1.09$, $p>.09$), however on the Expected Smooth Implementation scale education and criminal justice were significantly different from

Table 9

Scale Item Means and Standard Deviations by Program*

	SCALE							
	Expense and Financial Support		Changes in Roles and Role Relationships		Expected Smooth Implementation		Support	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
HOSTS	.63	.22	.45	.50	.42	.40	.42	.36
ECOS	.45	.32	.17	.28	.13	.16	.63	.29
EBCE	.46	.24	.10	.21	.04	.08	.77	.34
FOCUS	.35	.24	.14	.21	.19	.24	.53	.33
ODOT	.52	.28	.08	.23	.43	.48	.54	.25
CAP	.42	.30	.13	.16	.56	.39	.50	.32
SCCPP	.51	.24	.32	.50	.23	.29	.59	.32
MCPRC	.28	.30	.15	.16	.31	.38	.46	.25

*0 = not a factor in adoption decision, 1 = somewhat of a factor in the adoption decision, 2 = strong factor in adoption decision

Table 10

Results of Univariate Analysis of Variance on Expense and Financial Support Scale, Changes in Roles and Role Relationships Scale, Expected Smooth Implementation Scale, and Support Scale by Program

		Expense and Financial Support			Changes in Roles and Role Relationships			Expected Smooth Implementation			Support		
Source	df	MS	F	ω^2	MS	F	ω^2	MS	F	ω^2	MS	F	ω^2
Among Programs	7	.22	3.12*	.09	.43	3.79*	.11	.57	6.09*	.24	.30	2.92*	.08
Error	152	.07			.11			.09			.103		

*$p < .01$

one another ($T(152) = 3.34$, $p<.001$) with criminal justice being significantly higher than education. The expected ease of the implementation was more of a reason to adopt the program for criminal justice organizations than for educational organizations.

It should be noted that on the univariate level, heterogeneity of variance was found. Both the Changes in Roles and Role Relationships scale (Bartlett's Box $F = 7.21$, $p<.001$) and the Expected Smooth Implementation scale (Bartlett's Box $F = 10.64$, $p<.001$) had significantly heterogeneous variances. The Expense and Financial Support scale and the Support scale had homogeneous variances.

Post-hoc Scheffe pairwise comparisons among programs were calculated for all scales. There were no significant pairwise differences among programs on either the Expense and Financial Support scale or the Changes in Roles and Role Relationships scale. Tables 11 and 12 show the significant pairwise comparisons among programs. As can be seen in Table 11, the HOSTS program is significantly higher than the EBCE program, and the ODOT and CAP programs were significantly higher than the EBCE program on the Expected Smooth Implementation Scale. Table 12 reveals only one significant difference among the pairs of programs on the Support scale; EBCE had significantly higher support than the HOSTS program. In other words, the expected ease of implementation was more of a reason to adopt the HOSTS, ODOT, and CAP programs than it was to adopt the EBCE program. Support from

Table 11

Scheffé Procedure for Comparisons Among All Pairs of Means on Expected Smooth Implementation Scale

	HOSTS	ECOS	EBCE	FOCUS	ODOT	CAP	SCCPP	MCPRC
HOSTS		NS	+	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
ECOS			NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
EBCE				NS	-	-	NS	NS
FOCUS					NS	NS	NS	NS
ODOT						NS	NS	NS
CAP							NS	NS
SCCPP								NS
MCPRC								

NS = Non-significant

\+ = Row program significantly higher on scale than column program ($p < .05$).

\- = Row program significantly lower on scale than column program ($p < .05$).

Table 12

Scheffé Procedure for Comparisons Along All Pairs of Means on Support Scale

	HOSTS	ECOS	EBCE	FOCUS	ODOT	CAP	SCCPP	MCPRC
HOSTS		NS	-	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
ECOS		NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
EBCE				NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
FOCUS					NS	NS	NS	NS
ODOT						NS	NS	NS
CAP							NS	NS
SCCPP								NS
MCPRC								

NS = Non-significant

\+ = Row program significantly higher on scale than column program ($p < .05$).

\- = Row program significantly lower on scale than column program ($p < .05$).

organizational members was more of a reason to adopt the EBCE program than it was to adopt the HOSTS program.

Organizational Demographics and Environments

The Organizational Profile asked respondents (both adopters and unaware non-adopters) about the number of clients (people processed by the organization), number of administrative staff, and number of front-line staff in both the organization and the super-ordinate organization. In addition, respondents were asked for each of the above, whether these client or staffing numbers had been increasing, decreasing, or stable at the time of the adoption decision. Only analyses for the increasing, decreasing, and stable information are presented here. This was done for two reasons. First, as discussed above, there were often conceptual problems in trying to find a district-type organization for criminal justice organizations. This led to adopters and unaware non-adopters of the same program having different super-ordinate organizations. Given this situation it is clear that the absolute sizes of the variables will differ as a function of the program. Second, it is conceptually clear that schools are different from courts, juvenile service agencies, police departments, and prisons (although some students may argue on the last institution). Therefore, differences in the size of these organizations is of little interest. Instead, whether these client and staff numbers were changing, the direction of the change, or the stability of the variables is a much less program-specific issue and therefore of more interest in the present research.

These demographic variables reflect environmental pressures towards the types of changes that the eight programs bring.

The first question of interest concerning stability and change in client and staff numbers concerns whether the sample of adopting organizations is significantly different from the sample of unaware non-adopters. Table 13 gives the percentage breakdown by program and adoption status for the three variables. In order to ascertain whether the adopting organizations were different from the unaware non-adopting organizations, three analyses of variance were performed. For these analyses, increasing was coded 1, stable coded 0, decreasing coded -1. The analyses of variance treated program as one independent variable and adoption status as a second independent variable. Table 14 shows the analyses of variance of increasing, decreasing, and stable numbers of clients, administrative staff, and front-line staff respectively, as a function of program and adoption status. In all three analyses, these variables differed as a function of program and did not differ as a function of adoption status. In all three analyses there was no interaction between program and adoption status. However, in terms of the numbers of clients and front-line staff, the main effect for adoption status approached statistical significance ($F(1,294) = 2.86$, $p<.09$; $F(1,294) = 3.23$, $p<.07$, respectively).

Planned contrast analyses of variance comparing education to criminal justice were conducted for each of the three variables. All three contrasts were significant: the number of clients is

Table 13

Number and Percentage of Adopters (A) and Unaware Non-adopters (NA)
Who Have Increasing, Decreasing, and Stable
Number of Clients, Administrative Staff, and Front-line Staff

		HOSTS		ECOS		EBCE		FOCUS		ODOT		CAP		SCCPP		MCPRC	
		A	NA	A	NA	A	NA	A	NA	A	NA	A	NA	A	NA	A	NA
Number of Clients	Increasing	38% (12)	22% (4)	29% (7)	25% (5)	30% (8)	25% (5)	28% (7)	5% (1)	56% (9)	40% (8)	67% (6)	55% (11)	53% (9)	60% (12)	88% (7)	75% (15)
	Decreasing	31% (10)	56% (10)	54% (13)	50% (10)	41% (11)	50% (10)	56% (14)	50% (10)	0% (0)	15% (3)	22% (2)	5% (1)	12% (2)	15% (3)	0% (0)	10% (2)
	Stable	31% (10)	22% (4)	17% (4)	25% (5)	30% (8)	25% (5)	16% (4)	45% (9)	44% (7)	45% (9)	11% (1)	40% (8)	35% (6)	25% (5)	12% (1)	15% (3)
Number of Front-Line Staff	Increasing	25% (8)	22% (4)	25% (6)	5% (1)	22% (6)	21% (4)	16% (4)	10% (2)	19% (3)	11% (2)	44% (4)	37% (7)	39% (7)	40% (8)	50% (4)	35% (6)
	Decreasing	31% (10)	39% (7)	38% (9)	45% (9)	22% (6)	37% (7)	57% (13)	65% (13)	0% (0)	0% (0)	11% (1)	11% (2)	11% (2)	15% (3)	12% (1)	18% (3)
	Stable	44% (14)	39% (7)	38% (9)	50% (10)	56% (15)	42% (8)	32% (8)	25% (5)	81% (3)	89% (17)	44% (4)	53% (10)	50% (9)	45% (9)	38% (3)	47% (8)
Number of Administrative Staff	Increasing	16% (5)	11% (2)	17% (4)	15% (3)	11% (3)	10% (2)	4% (1)	0% (0)	31% (5)	5% (1)	22% (2)	20% (4)	17% (3)	25% (5)	13% (1)	28% (5)
	Decreasing	6% (2)	22% (4)	17% (4)	5% (1)	11% (3)	20% (4)	20% (5)	20% (4)	6% (1)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	6% (1)	0% (0)	13% (1)	6% (1)
	Stable	78% (25)	67% (12)	67% (16)	80% (16)	78% (21)	70% (14)	76% (19)	80% (16)	63% (10)	95% (19)	78% (7)	80% (16)	78% (14)	75% (15)	75% (6)	66% (12)

Table 14

Results of Analysis of Variance on Numbers of Clients, Administrative Staff, and Front-Line Staff (increasing, decreasing, or stable[+]) by Program and Adoption Status

		Number of Clients			Number of Administrative Staff			Number of Front-Line Staff		
Source	df	MS	F	ω^2	MS	F	ω^2	MS	F	ω^2
Program	7	6.26	10.47*	.18	.66	2.81*	.04	2.91	6.01*	.11
Adoption Status	1	1.71	2.86		.04	.15		1.55	3.23	
Program by Adoption Status	7	.25	.42		.24	1.00		.06	.12	
Error	294	.60			.24			.49		

*$p < .01$

[+]Increase coded 1, decreasing coding -1, stable coded 0.

significantly more likely to be stable or decreasing in education compared to criminal justice ($T(151) = 5.01$, $p<.0001$), educational organizations are more likely to exhibit decreasing or stable numbers of administrative staff than criminal justice organizations ($T(151) = 1.81$, $p<.07$), and educational organizations are more likely to show stable or decreasing patterns of the number of front-line staff compared to criminal justice organizations ($T(151) = 3.41$, $p<.001$). The Scheffe post-hoc pairwise comparison procedure was performed for all three variables. There were no significant pairwise differences among programs on any of the three variables ($p>.05$).

Participation in Decision Making

The number of different levels of organizational and extra-organizational actors participating both in the adoption decision (adopters) and in decision making in general (adopters and unaware non-adopters) were analyzed to see if program or adoption status differences existed. These questions were asked on a four-point scale ranging from not mentioned or no influence to a great deal of influence. The minimal, moderate, great deal of influence distinction was collapsed into one category. The scale then became a binary no influence/influence scale.

In addition to collapsing across the amount of influence dimension, collapsing across the various levels of the actors was also carried out. Given the discussion above concerning the problems in finding and defining an appropriate super-ordinate organization and the fact that the measure was devised to tap the

differentiation in educational organizations, it was decided to collapse the various levels of the actors into three more global levels: influence from the super-ordinate level, influence from the organizational level, and influence from outside the organization. Tables 15 and 16 show both the original and collapsed by level program means and standard deviations on both the number of levels participating in the adoption decision and the number of levels participating in decisions in general. Table 17 shows the analysis of variance for the number of levels involved in decision making in general by both the program and the adoption status. Again, there is a main effect for program, no main effect for adoption status, and no interaction between adoption status and program. Table 18 shows the analysis of variance of the number of levels involved in the adoption decision by program. Again, the main effect for program is significant.

A planned-contrast analysis of variance was performed on each of the above variables to see if education significantly differed from criminal justice. Educational organizations have significantly more levels involved in both general decision making ($T(152) = 4.67$, $p<.0001$) and in the adoption decision ($T(152) = 3.92$, $p<.0001$) than criminal justice adopters. The Scheffe procedure for post-hoc pairwise comparisons revealed no significant differences among any pair of programs on these two variables ($p>.05$).

A third variable was formed by subtracting the number of levels involved in decision making in general from the number of

Table 15

Means and Standard Deviations for Adopters on Number of Levels Participating in the Adoption Decision by Program Uncollapsed and Collapsed to Control for Possible Bias

	Original Mean	SD	Collapsed Mean	SD
HOSTS	3.41	1.39	2.25	.76
ECOS	3.63	1.44	2.37	.65
EBCE	4.21	1.81	2.36	.83
FOCUS	3.48	1.23	2.04	.68
ODOT	2.56	1.09	1.75	.68
CAP	3.11	1.69	2.00	.71
SCCPP	3.11	1.18	2.17	.79
MCPRC	1.63	.74	1.25	.47

Table 16

Means and Standard Deviations for Adopters on Number of Levels Participating in Decisions in General by Program Uncollapsed and Collapsed

	Original Mean	SD	Collapsed Mean	SD
HOSTS	3.28	1.40	2.16	.85
ECOS	3.88	1.36	2.50	.59
EBCE	3.96	1.64	2.25	.70
FOCUS	4.40	1.22	2.32	.63
ODOT	2.38	1.09	1.56	.73
CAP	2.57	.98	1.44	1.13
SCCPP	3.06	1.11	2.00	.77
MCPRC	2.75	1.04	1.75	.71

Table 17

Results of Analysis of Variance of Collapsed Number of Levels Involved in Decision Making in General by Program and Adoption Status for both Adopters and Non-adopters

Source	df	SS	MS	F	ω^2
Program	7	32.20	4.60	9.92*	.16
Adoption Status	1	.36	.36	.78	
Program by Adoption Status	7	2.77	.40	.85	
Error	302	140.10	.46	2.34	
Total	317	175.43			

*p < .01

Table 18

Results of Analysis of Variance of Collapsed Number of Levels Involved in the Adoption Decision by Program for Adopters

Source	df	SS	MS	F	ω^2
Program	7	12.23	1.75	3.31*	.10
Error	152	80.01	.53		
Total	159	92.24			

*p < .01

levels involved in the adoption decision. This variable represents whether more or less levels were involved in the adoption decision than are involved in decision making in general. Table 19 shows the means and standard deviations on this variable by program. Table 20 shows the analysis of variance on this variable by program. There is no significant effect by program on this variable.

Correlations for adopters between the four scales, number of levels involved in both the adoption decision and decision making in general, the difference in the number of levels involved in these two decisions, and the length of time the program has been in use at the organization, and the demographic variables are shown in Table 21. The ability of the demographic variables to explain programmatic differences on the scales would, from this analysis appear to be limited.

Other Analyses to Explicate Program Differences

Two additional variables were explored as possible explanations for program differences on the scales. The first of these variables was the length of time that the program had been used. It was felt that the time frame in which the program was started might effect the reasons for adoption. Table 22 shows the analysis of variance on the length of time the programs had been used by the organization. Organizations did differ as a function of the length of time they had been using the program. A plannned contrast analysis of variance revealed that educational programs had been in use significantly longer than criminal justice programs

Table 19

Means and Standard Deviations for Adopters on Number of Levels Involved in the Adoption - Number of Levels Involved in Decisions in General Collapsed and Uncollapsed

	Original Mean	SD	Collapsed Mean	SD
HOSTS	-2.44	1.70	.09	.93
ECOS	-3.33	1.66	-.13	.74
EBCE	-3.25	1.96	.11	.88
FOCUS	-3.76	1.51	-.28	.74
ODOT	-1.63	1.45	.19	.66
CAP	-.56	2.13	.56	1.13
SCCPP	-2.22	1.26	.17	.99
MCPRC	-2.38	.52	-.50	.53

Table 20

Results of Analysis of Variance of Collapsed Number of Levels Participating in the Adoption Decision - Number of Levels Participating in Decisions in General by Program for Adoption

Source	df	SS	MS	F	ω^2
Program	7	8.72	1.25	1.75	NS
Error	152	108.22	.71		
Total	159	116.94			

Table 21

Correlations Among Four Scales, Number of Levels Participating in Both the Adoption Decision and Decisions in General (Collapsed), Number of Levels in Adoption Decision -- Number of Levels in General (Collapsed), Length of Time Program Has Been in Use in the Organization, and Demographic Variables for Adopters

	Expense and Financial Support	Changes in Roles and Role Relationships	Expected Smooth Implementation	Support
Length of Time Program Used In Organization	-.10	-.16**	-.11	.18**
Number of Levels Involved In Adoption Decision	.15	.08	.09	.24**
Number of Levels Involved In Decisions in General	-.14	.01	-.11	.15
(Number of Levels In Adoption Decision -- Number of Levels In General)	.26**	.06	.19**	.08
Number of Clients*	-.06	-.13	.09	-.11
Number of Administrative Staff*	.03	.02	.05	.02
Number of Front-Line Staff*	.02	.01	-.003	-.04

*Increasing coded 1, stable coded 0, decreasing coded -1.

**$p < .05$

Table 22

Results of Analysis of Variance of How Long the Program Has Been Used by Program

Source	df	SS	MS	F	ω^2
Program	7	88.27	12.61	6.76*	.21
Error	152	283.61	1.87		
Total	159	371.88			

*p < .01

($T\ (152) = 3.61$, $p<.001$). Table 23 shows the results of the Scheffe pairwise comparison procedure. It can be seen from the table that the ECOS program has been, on the average, in use significantly longer than the HOSTS, ODOT, and MCPRC programs.

Given that differences existed in the length of time that the programs had been in use, the question of differences on the scales as a function of the length of time became important. To answer these questions, the median length of time that each organization had been using the program was assessed for each program. Each organization was assigned a score of 1 or 2 based on how long they had been using the program compared to other adopters of the same program. For example, an organization below the median of the HOSTS program that had adopted the HOSTS program, was assigned a score of 1. Length of time that the organization had been using the program thus became a two-factor variable; long or short period of time. Differences in the scales were then assessed as a function of both age and the program. Table 24 shows these analyses of variance. As can be seen from the tables, on none of the scales is there a main effect or interaction involving age of the program. However, there are two significant correlations involving age of the programs and the scales. For the correlational analysis, age of the program was not split by median age of the program.

The second explanatory variable explored was the respondents job position following House et. al. (1972). It was thought that if the reasons for adoption were indeed reflecting the idiosyn-

Table 23

Scheffé Procedure for Comparisons Among All Pairs of Means on How Long the Program Has Been in Use

	HOSTS	ECOS	EBCE	FOCUS	ODOT	CAP	SCCPP	MCPRC
HOSTS		-	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
ECOS			NS	NS	+	NS	NS	+
EBCE				NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
FOCUS					NS	NS	NS	NS
ODOT						NS	NS	NS
CAP							NS	NS
SCCPP								NS
MCPRC								

NS = Non-significant

\+ = Row program has been in use significantly longer than column program ($p < .05$).

\- = Row program has been in use significantly shorter than column program ($p < .05$).

Table 24

Results of Analysis of Variance on Expense and Financial Support Scale, Changes in Roles and Role Relationships Scale, Expected Smooth Implementation Scale, and Support Scale by Program and Age

		Expense and Financial Support			Changes in Roles and Role Relationships			Expected Smooth Implementation			Support		
Source	df	MS	F	ω^2	MS	F	ω^2	MS	F	ω^2	MS	F	ω^2
Program	7	.22	3.21*	.09	.43	3.64*	.11	.57	6.13*	.19	.30	2.63*	.07
Age	1	.00	.00		.04	.33		.01	.11		.11	1.00	
Program by Age	7	.12	1.72		.03	.25		.12	1.27		.06	.59	
Error	144	.07			.12			.09			.11		

*$p < .01$

cratic perceptions and motives of the respondent, there might be significant differences on the scales as a function of whether the respondent was an administrator or a front-line staff member. It was thought that administrators might have different reasons to adopt than front-line staff. Accordingly, respondents were collapsed into two rough categories; administrative and front-line staff. As can be seen from Table 3, most of the respondents in this study were not front-line staff members. This collapsing must be regarded as fairly rough, since in some cases a Specialized O Staff will actually be involved in service provision. Caveats such as this make it difficult to be sure of the scheme used for collapsing. All non front-line staff were collapsed into a single category. Table 25 shows the scale means, standard deviations, and the results of the multivariate analysis of variance of the four scale means by the respondent's job position. There were no significant differences on the scales as a function of the respondent's job position.

Table 25

Scale Average Item Means, Variances, and Multivariate Analysis of Variance for Respondents' Job Positions*

		Administrative Staff	Front-Line Staff	
Expense and Financial Support	Mean	.4637	.4910	
	SD	.2760	.2741	
Changes in Roles and Role Relationships	Mean	.2130	.2387	
	SD	.3445	.4130	
Expected Smooth Implementation	Mean	.2794	.1926	
	SD	.3685	.2255	
Support	Mean	.5896	.4775	
	SD	.3406	.3171	
		n=115	n=37	n=152

Wilks F approximation (4,147) = 1.70 ns.

*0 = not a factor in adoption decision, 1 = somewhat of a factor in the adoption decision, 2 = strong factor in adoption decision.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

Four different reasons for adoption were formed into scales: expense and financial support, changes in roles and role relationships, expected smooth implementation, and support from various organizational members. Differences between the fields of criminal justice and education were found on the expected smooth implementation scale. Criminal justice organizations were more likely to cite expected smooth implementation of the program as a reason to adopt the program. This finding can be explained in a number of ways. First, since much of the research on innovations has been carried out in the educational area, and since "innovativeness" is a characteristic that we want organizations to possess (Downs & Mohr, 1976), schools may be more likely to want to appear in a good light. That is, although ease of implementation may be a factor in education, respondents may have wanted to appear in a good light and may not admit to considering the difficulty or ease of implementation. Second, changes in the operating system in criminal justice organizations could be more dif-

ficult than changes in education. Upon reflection, differences between the two social policy areas in the difficulty in making organizational changes would seem to make a great deal of sense. Criminal justice organizations have an "open house" quality about them. That is, public attention is much more focused on the failures and successes of criminal justice organizations than it is on the successes and failures of educational organizations. This could be due to the fact that as citezens, we are much more likely to come in contact with criminal justice organizations than educational organizations. In our contacts with the educational system, we are much more likely to see a formal open house view of the activities of the system. Open houses in education, do not show us the regular interactions of the members of the system. On the other hand, interactions with the criminal justice system are more likely to show us these organizations as they typically function. In view of both the amount of public attention to criminal justice organizations, and the difficulty these organizations have in putting on a different appearance from the reality, it is not surprising that the expected smoothness of the implementation would be more of a reason to adopt innovations for criminal justice organizations than educational organizations. For criminal justice organizations, making a change could be a much more difficult process involving numerous struggles involving organizational politics. For this reason, criminal justice organizations must take account of how easy the change will be prior to undertaking the change.

Significant pairwise differences among programs were also found on the Expected Smooth Implementation scale. The HOSTS, ODOT, and CAP programs were all significantly higher on this scale than the EBCE program. All three of these programs would seem to be much easier to implement than the EBCE program which involves the student spending significant periods of time outside of the school. HOSTS mainly involves a thorough systemization of what might be an already existing Title I program and might not involve the changing of any organizational rules or procedures. ODOT involves improving on what the organization already does (process jurors) by spreading out the obligation more equitably across the population and keeping most jurors for a much shorter period of time. The major part of the CAP program is deciding that juvenile offenders who previously had been left alone, should have some sort of hearing concerning their offense. On content grounds then, EBCE would seem to be a harder program to implement.

Conclusions such as the above should be understood with the following caution in mind. The present investigation was focused upon the adoption decision. At no point in the study was the content of the eight programs investigated systematically as a factor in the adoption decision. The present study has consciously taken an adoption perspective (Berman & McLaughlin, 1974), and has ignored implementation issues concerning the content of the program.

One significant pairwise difference was found on the Support

scale. EBCE adopters mentioned support as a reason for adoption more often than HOSTS adopters. The comments above concerning ease of implementation could explain this difference. That is, EBCE as a program is harder to implement than HOSTS, therefore support from various quarters is much more of a necessity in implementing EBCE than in implementing HOSTS. In other words, it could be that support must be present prior to implementation for EBCE and not for the other programs.

The analyses of the organizational demographics and environments indicated that adopters and unaware non-adopters were not significantly different. These analyses would seem to indicate that the adopters as a whole were representative of the population of organizations in terms of these variables. The finding that there were differences on these variables as a function of the area that the program was in, should come as little surprise. Educational facilities and staffing came about as a reaction to the so-called baby boom. Given the well publicized decline in the birth rate, educational organizations face a much more uncertain environment than criminal justice organizations. If there is a trend, it would be toward decreasing the staff size at schools due to decreasing student enrollment. Criminal justice organizations face a much rosier future given increases in crime rate, litigation, and inmate population. The fact that client and staff sizes were stable or increasing in criminal justice should come as no surprise either. However, on the one hand, it is surprising that these variables did not correlate signifi-

cantly with any of the reasons for adoption. Given the expected differences in the future for these two areas, one would expect the stability or instability of these variables to be related to the program changes. It would be instructive to compare a sample of organizations that had heard of the programs but had explicitly decided not to adopt the programs to the present sample on these demographic type variables to see if any differences existed.

On the other hand, perhaps it should come as no surprise that these variables did not correlate with any of the reasons for adoption. Reasons for adoption were thought to be organizational considerations taken into account during decision making or organizational justifications for decisions. Perhaps the expectation that the reasons for adoption would correlate with organizational demographics is committing the ecological fallacy of cross-level inference (Downs & Mohr, 1976). That is, the reasons for adoption are on a different level of analysis than the organizational demographics.

The analyses of the data concerning participation in decision making revealed that concerning decisions in general, adopters were typical of the unaware non-adopters in the sample. The educational organizations had significantly more levels participating in both the adoption decision and decisions in general than criminal justice organizations. Besides actual differences in decision-making practices between the two areas, this finding could indicate a lack of diffused responsibility in the criminal

justice area. Pincus' (1974) analysis indicates that educational organizations would strive for less clear lines of responsibility as a means to avoid accountability. A second explanation is methodological. Since the instrument used to measure participation in decision making was designed with educational organizations in mind, it is possible that the differentiation in criminal justice organizations was not adequately captured by the measure. It is interesting to note that the adoption decision appears to have been a fairly typical decision for the various organizations. This was indicated by the small differences on the variable computed by subtracting the number of levels involved in general decision making from the number of levels involved in the adoption decision. The significant correlations between the scaled reasons for adoption and this computed variable are interesting to consider. The larger the difference in terms of number of organizational levels participating in the adoption decision and the number of organizational levels participating in decision making in general, the more expense and the availability of financial support is considered. However, correlations do not indicate causality and it could be that decisions with costs (either high or low) necessitate the involvement of a certain number of levels. Cost may be causing more levels to be involved (high cost) or less levels to be involved (low cost).

The correlation of the computed variable with the Expected Smooth Implementation scale is also interesting. The more levels involved in the adoption decision when compared with decisions in

general, the more ease of implementation issues are considered. The converse also holds; the more ease of implementation issues are considered as a factor, the more likely it is that more organizational levels will be involved than in decision making in general. This correlation could also indicate an increasing reliance on the usual decision making apparatus of the organization when a change is going to be difficult to implement.

The correlation between the Support scale and the number of levels involved in the adoption decision probably reflects method bias. Interviewers were instructed to ask about the influence of various organizational levels on the decison to adopt immediately following the discussion of support as a reason to adopt (see Appendix C). The contiguity in the interview of these two similar type questions/issues may have lead people to attribute support or influence to actors or levels that they might not have ordinarily considered.

The length of time that an organization had been using the program did vary as a function of program. Educational programs had been in use longer than criminal justice programs. The ECOS program had been in use significantly longer than the HOSTS, ODOT, and MCPRC programs. This probably reflects both the different times when the eight programs were developed and approved, and the differential rate with which different programs diffuse (Rogers & Shoemaker, 1971). However, the analysis indicated no differences in the reasons to adopt as a function of being an "earlier" or "later" adopter.

The length of time that the program had been in use did correlate significantly with two of the scales. The correlation between the Changes in Roles and Role Relationships scale, the Support scale, and the length of time in use can be explained by the fact that the saliency of these two reasons for adoption was effected by the length of time between the adoption decision and the interview. The further away in time that the adoption decision was, the less likely that changes in roles was remembered as a factor. On the other hand, the further away in time the adoption decision, the more likely that support was recalled as a factor. Perhaps, people do not recall wanting to make a basic change in roles a certain length of time after that change has been made, and instead focus on the support they have received in the time since the change. The current support is then remembered as being present at the time of the adoption decision.

The lack of a significant multivariate difference on the four scales as a function of the job position of the respondent is also interesting. This finding would seem to indicate that administrators do not adopt a program for different reasons than a front-line staff person. However, front-line staff could have responded to the interviewer with the organizationally approved "story" of the reasons for adoption. The lack of significant differences as a function of job position would also tend to show that what were given as the reasons for adoption were, in fact, the organizational reasons for adoption rather than the individual respondent's motivation for starting the program.

This study both partially supports and partially refutes the ideas of Downs and Mohr (1976). The fact that the reasons for adoption are significantly different depending on the program would seem to say that the reasons for adoption are not primary characteristics of innovations. The lack of significant interactions between length of time the innovation has been in use in the organization and the program on the reasons for adoption is dissappointing given the fairly large number of respondents involved in this study. Given the fairly large number of adopters (160) and non-adopters (158) interviewed, the power to detect interactions shoud have been higher than much of the past research in this area.

An interesting question not answered fully by this study is why the reasons for adoption vary as a function of program. There may be primary characteristics of programs that are differentially salient to organizations depending on the situation and the people involved.

In looking at this study and the results, one might be tempted to say "So what? Different organizations adopt different programs for different reasons". Given the lack of consistient findings in the literature, this would hardly seem to be a so what conclusion. It would have been difficult to say what the factors involved in the adoption decision are on the basis of the inconsistent findings of past research. This study has rationally and empirically derived what the different reasons are for different programs.

The concept of reasons for adoption may still be of importance. Due to resource constraints, it was not possible to obtain a sample of non-adopters who had seriously considered the various programs. The researcher's impression after interviewing respondents from a number of these organizations, was that there had been no organizational decision not to adopt the program. Rather, one member of the organization had heard of the program and decided that the program was not right for his/her organization. This organizational member was serving as a gatekeeper. It is very possible that these non-adopters would not have the same types of considerations as the adopters. That is, non-adopters may not be looking at what the adopters perceive to be the program's strong points. These strong points (reasons for adoption) would seem to be valuable for program developers to consider when they are trying to "sell" the program to potential adopters. In certain cases, these reasons for adoption are already used in this manner in the form of testimonials from program adopters.

The link between the reasons for adoption and fidelity, a variable of great concern to the proponents of the RD&D model, must go unexplored at the present time. This does not mean that the reasons for adoption are not important in explaining how close the adoption resembles the original model program. The reasons for adoption could provide a measure of the adopting site's initial motivation to replicate the program. In other words, adopters with certain reasons for adoption might be more likely to implement and run a program that closely resembles the

original program. To the extent that this is found to be true, and to the extent that developers want high fidelity replications, such empirically derived "reasons for adoption" could be used by developers to insure close adherence to the model.

Limitations of the Study

The present study has a number of limitations that should be noted. First, neither innovations nor adopting organizations were chosen randomly. Not choosing innovations randomly is probably not of great concern since the results of the study were not intended to generalize to all innovations. The limits of the study are defined by the reference and content domains of the innovations chosen for study (Bigoness & Perreault, 1981). In the present study, the reference and content domains are those organizations that have adopted NDN programs or LEAA exemplary projects that are organizational in nature. The fact that organizations were not chosen randomly is also of little concern. In all the analyses discussed above, adopters and randomly chosen unaware non-adopters did not differ on variables of interest.

Second, what the programs actually did was not of concern in the present study. Even though one of the four rationally and empirically derived scales concerned ease of implementation, the question of the implementation of what was not specifically addressed. In order to get at questions concerning the content of the program and what effects this might have on adoption, it is neccessary to first define what the program actually is and what it requires. This was never done in the present study.

Even given the limitations discussed above, this study has contributed to knowledge concerning why organizations adopt programs. This study, although imperfect, has empirically demonstrated the differences that exist among programs. The investigation of these differences and the reasons why different programs are adopted for different reasons would seem to be the logical next step for research in this area.

APPENDIX A:

Coding Form for the Adoption Decision Questionnaire

ADOPTION DECISION QUESTIONNAIRE

1-2. Interviewer identification number

1-Craig
2-Dave R
3-Rand
4-Jeana
5-Dave T
6-Jeff
7-Theresa

3. Innovation identification number

1-HOSTS
2-ECOS
3-EBCE
4-FOCUS
5-
6-ODOT
7-CAP
8-CCPP
9-MC-PRC
0=

4-6. Organization identification number
numbered consecutively (chronologically) within innovation

7. Organization type- recorded longhand in Call Log - to be categorized and coded at a later date (eg. jr high, city or precinct police dept, district court, etc.)

8. SO type- recorded in Call Log; also to be coded at later date

9. Respondent's job position (R) at time of Adoption Decision: recorded in Call Log and coded later

10 Current program status:
1- adopter (never implemented)
2- adopter (used less than two years)
3- adopter (used greater than or equal to two years)
4- terminator (implemented less than two years)
5- terminator (implemented greater than or equal to two years)
6- aware non-adopter
7- unaware non-adopter

11.
1- creator (never implemented)
2- creator (less than two years)
3- creator (greater than or equal to two years)
4- creator & terminated (used less than two years)
5- creator & terminated (used greater than or equal to two years)

12. Validity check
0- if this specific organization is not an interrespondent validity check
1- if O is a randomly selected validity check and this is the primary R
2- if O is a randomly selected validity check and this is the secondary R

13. Code 1 if this is a reliability check

14. Coded 1 (record number for computer purposes)

15-17. Length of time O has been using P
first two digits refer to years implemented
third digit refers to months
eg. five years and nine months would be coded 059 in columns 13-15
five years and ten months would be coded 060

18. Was R involved with P before adoption decision?
    1- yes
    2- no

19. Degree of R's involvement in adoption decision (Use YOUR JUDGEMENT; Involvement DOES NOT equal decision-making power)
    0- no involvement
    1- lo involvement
    2- medium involvement
    3- hi involvement

20. Where in O is(was) P being used?
    0- in no O units
    1- in only one O unit
    2- in some O units
    3- in all O units or all O units that could implement P

21. Where in Administrative SO is(was) P being used?
    0- in no O units (e.g. non-adopters or "adopters but not yet implementing")
    1- in only one O within the SO
    2- in more than one O but not all O's
    3- in all O's or all O's that could implement P
    BLANK IF NO SO

22. To what extent was O required by SO to adopt P?
    0- this was not a factor in this case
    1- low or moderate
    2- high

23. Was O considering alternative P's at the time of the adoption decision?
    0- no alternative
    1- one alternative
    2- more than one alternative

24. Did the evaluation (validation) of P have an impact on the decision-making?
    1- yes
    2- no

IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	LESS IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	not mentioned OR unimportant	LESS IMPORTANT reason to adopt	IMPORTANT reason to adopt
1	2	3	4	5

AT THE TIME OF THE ADOPTION DECISION, THE FOLLOWING WERE THOUGHT BY O MEMBERS TO BE REASONS FOR, OR FACTORS INVOLVED IN, THE ADOPTION DECISION:

PROGRAM CHARACTERISTICS

25. P was considered to be a "flexible" program
26. P was considered to be not flexible
In this item, flexibility is NOT synonymous with "susceptibility to modification" (item # 27) i.e., a program can be flexible, but adopted with high fidelity, i.e. with no modifications from original site. In that case, it would be coded only here, and not in item # 27.

27. P would be susceptible to modification (broadly interpreted; pre and expected post)
28. P would not be susceptible to modification
Pre and expected post. The issue is: would the program be susceptible to modification at the point of implementation once the decision was made; and/or would the program be easily modified as needs arose in the future (following implementation). Either 25 or 26 could be coded for reasons for the decision.

29. The major P outcomes were desirable in O
30. The major P outcomes were not desirable in O
The interviewer should be aware of the major outcomes evaluated at the demonstration site. This item refers to those specific outcomes only, not issues the R perceived as desirable. In this item, inherent within the notion of "desirable" could be that the P would be effective in O. i.e. A statement that "the P was effective" is equivalent to "the P was desirable" for our purposes.
NOTE: Outcomes must be relevant to O's situation.

IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	LESS IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	not mentioned OR unimportant	LESS IMPORTANT reason to adopt	IMPORTANT reason to adopt
1	2	3	4	5

AT THE TIME OF THE ADOPTION DECISION, THE FOLLOWING WERE THOUGHT BY O MEMBERS TO BE REASONS FOR, OR FACTORS INVOLVED IN, THE ADOPTION DECISION:

31. P would not be effective in attaining major outcomes in O. Again, if the R predicted the P would be "effective" in O that's typically redundant, and hard to distinguish from desirable (e.g. #27. Therefore, code it there). This item would be coded if the major outcomes were desirable (and coded as such), but the P was not implemented because R did not think it would be effective in their O. Code the extent this was a factor in the decision.

32. The fact that the major outcomes were validated was a factor in the adoption decision.
Item refers specifically to the fact that the P was evaluated and this influenced the decision.

33. Other P outcomes were desirable in O
34. Other P outcomes were not desirable in O
Any outcomes not validated at developer/demonstration site would be included under other outcomes. This could include non-validated outcomes the R perceived as major, etc.
Remember: Outcomes must be relevant to O's situation.

35. P would not be effective in attaining other outcomes in O.// If the R perceived the P as likely to be effective in O, that's redundant and hard to distinguish from desirable so it would be coded in #31. If R saw the other outcomes as desirable but felt the P was not likely to be effective in attaining these outcomes in O, the extent that this influenced the adoption decision is coded here. NOTE: it is possible that the R felt several other outcomes were desirable but not likely to be effective in this O but this still may not be influential in the decision (e.g. it's possible only the major outcomes were influential factors.)

IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	LESS IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	not mentioned OR unimportant	LESS IMPORTANT reason to adopt	IMPORTANT reason to adopt
1	2	3	4	5

AT THE TIME OF THE ADOPTION DECISION, THE FOLLOWING WERE THOUGHT BY O MEMBERS TO BE REASONS FOR, OR FACTORS INVOLVED IN, THE ADOPTION DECISION:

36. No program/practices/methods sufficiently like P in O.

37. A similar program existed in O but this specific P had advantages over existing program

38. There was a program similar or identical to P in O
Must be mentioned by R during interview as reason for AD. e.g. If a small scale, new management system is introduced that does not involve a large change in practice, it might be coded in 34. New P might be addition, expansion, modification, etc.
"Similar" means "they're similar enough so that they wouldn't have both programs in O at the same time."

39. P would be likely to function smoothly in O (WORKABLE; O member-O, i.e. ADMINISTRATIVE)

40. P would not be likely to function smoothly in O
"Workable" is a subset of "efficiency", frequently associated with innovation adoption. The likelihood that P could be easily implemented and the influence of that likelihood on the adoption decision is what is important for this item, not how well P would "work" in terms of outcomes. Also, this item pair refers specifically to interactions between O members and the O itself. (e.g. interactions between teachers and the administration, etc.)

41. P would be likely to function smoothly in O (WORKABLE; O member - client i.e. SERVICE/PROCESS

42. P would not be likely to function smoothly in O
This item pair refers specifically to interactions between O members and the O's clients. (e.g. interactions between teachers and students, corrections officers and inmates, etc.
This might also be administrative. e.g., for MOB, "improvements in processing of cases".

IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	LESS IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	not mentioned OR unimportant	LESS IMPORTANT reason to adopt	IMPORTANT reason to adopt
1	2	3	4	5

AT THE TIME OF THE ADOPTION DECISION, THE FOLLOWING WERE THOUGHT BY O MEMBERS TO BE REASONS FOR, OR FACTORS INVOLVED IN, THE ADOPTION DECISION:

43. P would increase the efficiency of O (broadly interpreted)
44. $\overline{P}$ would decrease the efficiency of $\overline{O}$
Any reasonable interpretation of efficiency (e.g. increases speed of processing clients through O, cost benefit ratio is improved, etc.)

45. P would not take a lot of staff time to execute
46. $\overline{P}$ would take a lot of staff time to execute
Refers to total time P requires to execute, or the additional amount of time P requires over and above previous procedures, i.e. incremental time. Code degree of influence, if this is a REASON. NOTE: refers to existing staff, not potential additional staff.

47. P would not require considerable contractual type commitment
48. $\overline{P}$ would require considerable contractual type commitment from $\overline{O}$
Does not refer to financial type commitment only. Allows for discussion of financial commitment, but also looking for other contractual type commitments. (e.g. In NDN, schools are required to commit a certain number of O members to a site visit; or schools would have to implement a certain type of training procedure in order to qualify as a program adopter.)

49. P matched the goals of the O
50. $\overline{P}$ did not match the goals of the $\overline{O}$
This is a difficult item to code, because it's easy to think that any adopted P "suits O goals". So: "GOALS" means the "PHILOSOPHY", or "Purpose" of O, on a fairly ABSTRACT level, e.g., "our philosophy is to favor individualized instruction here". Don't confuse "GOALS" with "desired outcomes", which are less abstract things, like reading achievement.

IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	LESS IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	not mentioned OR unimportant	LESS IMPORTANT reason to adopt	IMPORTANT reason to adopt
1	2	3	4	5

AT THE TIME OF THE ADOPTION DECISION, THE FOLLOWING WERE THOUGHT BY O MEMBERS TO BE REASONS FOR, OR FACTORS INVOLVED IN, THE ADOPTION DECISION:

51. P would not involve large change in O clients' roles or role behaviors
52. P would involve large change in O clients roles or role behaviors
NOTE: There are some precise distinctions among items 51-60, so be careful. Remember, ANY ONE of these items, OR PRACTICALLY ANY COMBINATION of these items, might be coded, depending on the response.
Clients refers to people that are processed by the O, i.e. O's "target population", e.g. students, felons, jurors, etc. does not refer to how respondent uses the term client.
Note distinction between 51 and 53. "The way people are processed" may relate to roles (e.g. Community Arbitration)

53. P would not involve large change in O members roles or role behaviors
54. P would require a large change in O members roles or role behavior
Not clients but O members.
e.g. HIT: if students' roles are changed that's relevant to item 51, not 53; note the tutors are students and therefore clients too.

if teachers roles are changed that is coded in 48. Also, see 55-60.
Refers to EXISTING O members, NOT potential new O members.

55. P would involve a large change in the role relationships (interaction) between any O actors
56. P would not involve a large change in the role relationships between any O actors
Coding this item usually assumes coding 51 and/or 53. This item refers to a role relationship change as a function of change in the role behavior of one or more O members or clients; this change is thought by R to modify the interaction between the actors.
e.g. HIT: R could state reason to adopt was change in tutors roles (O client coded in 51) and/or change in teacher roles (O members, coded in 53) and/or change in role relationships (teacher/tutor and/or teacher/tutee and/or tutor/tutee and coded HERE in 55).

IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	LESS IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	not mentioned OR unimportant	LESS IMPORTANT reason to adopt	IMPORTANT reason to adopt
1	2	3	4	5

AT THE TIME OF THE ADOPTION DECISION, THE FOLLOWING WERE THOUGHT BY O MEMBERS TO BE REASONS FOR, OR FACTORS INVOLVED IN, THE ADOPTION DECISION:

57. P would not require a large change in O practices/methods
58. P would require a large change in O practices/methods

Does not refer to role change coded in 53. Typically if there is a coded change in O practices there will also be a change in the roles of clients or members. e.g.: If, in MOB, all prosecuting attorneys in a court jurisdiction (prior to adoption) were spending some of their time making initial contacts with some cases at the police precinct house, spending time in the library researching others, and prosecuting still other cases in court, the change to vertical prosecution would involve a change in O practices but not in O member role behaviors. On the other hand, if the attorneys had been more specialized prior to the adoption decision (as is typically the case) and just focusing on prosecution or just doing the research, then change in role behaviors would occur as well. Again, the critical decision is whether these are REASONS for the decision.

59. P would improve the interpersonal relationships in O
60. P would worsen the interpersonal relationships in O

This item refers to aspects of interpersonal relationships other than role relationships; e.g. feelings, attitudes, etc. Could be a reason to adopt if some change in O actors attitudes toward each other was desirable and therefore a reason to adopt the P. Could be interpersonal relationships between clients and members, and/or clients and clients, and/or members and members. NOT EXCLUSIVE OF ROLE CHANGE ITEMS 51-58; remember, you can code any combination of 51-58.

61. P would be visible in O
62. P would not be very visible in O

Be sensitive to antagonism or political issues. Is P observable either inside or outside of O? Was this a reason for the decision?

IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	LESS IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	not mentioned OR unimportant	LESS IMPORTANT reason to adopt	IMPORTANT reason to adopt
1	2	3	4	5

AT THE TIME OF THE ADOPTION DECISION, THE FOLLOWING WERE THOUGHT BY O MEMBERS TO BE REASONS FOR, OR FACTORS INVOLVED IN, THE ADOPTION DECISION:

63. P would be very trialable in O
64. $\overline{P}$ would not be very trialable in O
    Does not refer to financial commitment. One aspect of "trialable" is "reversable" (once an O starts P they can stop). Or, it might be that the P does not require full implementation. i.e. P could be tried on a limited basis in a small part of O or SO for a short period of time, etc. DOES NOT INCLUDE O CHARACTERISTICS PER SE, E.G. RED TAPE IN O.

65. P would be easily communicable to O members
66. $\overline{P}$ would not be easily communicable to O members
    This is a primary attribute of P that doesn't vary from O to O. This item means "whether they can speak about P to others easily".

67. P would be relatively inexpensive for O
68. $\overline{P}$ would be relatively inexpensive for O due to grant support brought in by P
69. P would be relatively expensive for O
    Relative expense refers to O's interpretation of the cost factor as it pertained to the adoption decision.

SUPPORT/ANTAGONISM

NOTE: Remember, SUPPORT does not equal INFLUENCE. These items are clues for OP coding, but you must use "influence probes" to do an accurate job on the OP. ALSO: Antagonism may mean actual conflict OR just lack of support!!

IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	LESS IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	not mentioned OR unimportant	LESS IMPORTANT reason to adopt	IMPORTANT reason to adopt
1	2	3	4	5

AT THE TIME OF THE ADOPTION DECISION, THE FOLLOWING WERE THOUGHT BY O MEMBERS TO BE REASONS FOR, OR FACTORS INVOLVED IN, THE ADOPTION DECISION:

70. Members of policy SO were supportive of P
71. Members of policy SO were antagonistic toward P
Policy SO sets the policies that O must follow. For Ed, only code school boards of ed. as Policy SO's NOT other advisory councils, such as "Title I Advisory Councils", "Community Councils", etc. For CJ, there is more variability; code whatever's relevant. That might include a community council, if it makes policy decisions that govern the operations of O. Coded only if support/antagonism was reason for adoption.

72. Members of administrative SO were supportive of P
73. Members of administrative SO were antagonistic toward P
Administrative SO coordinates operations of (usually) more than one O; hires, writes the budget, supervises operations, etc. In ED, Administrative SO is ALWAYS the school district. In CJ, it might be a state court, district court, etc., depending on an adopting unit.
Administrative or executive SO is involved with day to day procedural activities that are relevant to the O. Coded only if REASON for adoption decision.

74. Administrators in O were supportive of P
75. Administrators in O were antagonistic toward P
Administrators include principals, VP's, office managers, dean of students, etc.

IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	LESS IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	not mentioned OR unimportant	LESS IMPORTANT reason to adopt	IMPORTANT reason to adopt
1	2	3	4	5

AT THE TIME OF THE ADOPTION DECISION, THE FOLLOWING WERE THOUGHT BY O MEMBERS TO BE REASONS FOR, OR FACTORS INVOLVED IN, THE ADOPTION DECISION:

76. Specialized SO staff were supportive of P. (Might or might not be directly involved).
77. Specialized SO staff were antagonistic toward P.
e.g., District reading personnel that only spend part-time in O.

78. Specialized O staff directly involved with P implementation were supportive of P.
79. Specialized O staff directly involved with P were antagonistic toward P
e.g., full time reading teacher in O that would be directly involved with implementing P in the O.

80. Front line staff (potentially) directly involved with P's implementation were supportive.
81. Record Number 2.
82. Front line staff (potentially) directly involved with P's implementation were antagonistic.
"Potentially directly involved" distinguishes between staff that would be involved with the actual implementation of the P on a regular basis and those that would not be directly involved; i.e., they had a vested interest, e.g., lawyers in MOB, corrections officers in ODOT, teachers in HIT, etc.

83. Front line staff not directly involved with P were supportive.
84. Front line staff not directly involved with P were antagonistic toward P.
This item pertains to the extent that other staff influenced the adoption decision e.g., correctional intake officers in ODOT, since its a process P not an intake program, math teachers within O in HIT (a reading P, etc.

IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	LESS IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	not mentioned OR unimportant	LESS IMPORTANT reason to adopt	IMPORTANT reason to adopt
1	2	3	4	5

AT THE TIME OF THE ADOPTION DECISION, THE FOLLOWING WERE THOUGHT BY O MEMBERS TO BE REASONS FOR, OR FACTORS INVOLVED IN, THE ADOPTION DECISION:

85. Unions were supportive of P
86. Unions were antagonistic toward P
Unions should be conceived of broadly as any professional grouping that is relevant. Could be an "association" rather than a union per se.

87. Clients were supportive of P
88. Clients were antagonistic toward P
Recall clients are processed by the O, e.g. students, felons, etc. Record the extent that they influenced the adoption decision.

89. Clients' parents, relatives, and other "community" people were supportive of P
90. Clients' parents, relatives, and other "community" people were antagonistic toward P
Were parents of students supportive of educational P, did they push for it?
Note that clients' is possessive, their parents, not the clients themselves.

91. Other actors (not yet specified in ADQ) were supportive of P (Who?)

92. Other actors were antagonistic toward P (Who?)

[Record the O role of other actors on Call Log and code the influence here.]

IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	LESS IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	not mentioned OR unimportant	LESS IMPORTANT reason to adopt	IMPORTANT reason to adopt
1	2	3	4	5

AT THE TIME OF THE ADOPTION DECISION, THE FOLLOWING WERE THOUGHT BY O MEMBERS TO BE REASONS FOR, OR FACTORS INVOLVED IN, THE ADOPTION DECISION:

INNOVATION CHAMPION (Inside O)

93. Someone in O or SO was actively promoting P (existence of a champion)
94. No one in O or SO was actively promoting P

Someone blowing the trumpet, saying "let's implement this program". Typically this will be the respondent; therefore it might be difficult on some occasions to get info that suggests that it was in large part due to this respondent's actions that this P was ultimately adopted. PROBE.

95. Some quality of the champion contributed significantly to adoption decision. (What quality?) _____

[Record the quality on the Call Log and code the influence.]

Should be some quality of the champion, e.g. personality, charisma, etc. NOTE: could contribute positively OR negatively; code where appropriate.

If you are interviewing the champion you can infer qualities from things they say. (e.g. "I would have pushed this P no matter what".)

CHANGE AGENT (outside O)

96. State facilitator or someone (specific) within NDN, LEAA or HOST (not HOSTS) was promoting P
97. State facilitator or someone (specific) within NDN, LEAA or HOST was not promoting P

We're not looking for whether or not the agency was promoting the P, we are looking for some specific person that the O has had contact with from either NDN, LEAA, or HOST that has been pushing P.

IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	LESS IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	not mentioned OR unimportant	LESS IMPORTANT reason to adopt	IMPORTANT reason to adopt
1	2	3	4	5

AT THE TIME OF THE ADOPTION DECISION, THE FOLLOWING WERE THOUGHT BY O MEMBERS TO BE REASONS FOR, OR FACTORS INVOLVED IN, THE ADOPTION DECISION:

98. Other change agents were promoting P
99. Other change agents were not promoting P

Looking for other change agents NOT AFFILIATED WITH NDN, LEAA or HOST that were or were not promoting P and HAD AN INFLUENCE on the adoption decision. Record the individual's role in the Call Log and code the influence on the five point scale. e.g. someone from HOSTS corporation; consultant from FCOS institute, etc.

This item could be a reason not to adopt if, for example, some significant change agent that the O has had contact with in the past, is not promoting this P, so P "looks bad".

100. Some quality of the change agent contributed significantly to the adoption decision. (What quality?)_____

Record this source on the Call Log sheet and code the degree of influence. Could be reason for adoption or non-adoption. Note the champion is not a change agent. Champion is someone within the O, (or SO if SO is involved in adoption decision) The change agent is someone external to the O, (or to the SO if SO is involved in adoption decision).

SITE VISIT OR OTHER PRE-ADOPTION CONTACT

101. Site visit(s) was useful
102. Site visit(s) was not useful

Site visit refers to a visit by some O or SO member to the site of the innovation prior to the adoption or implementation. It is crucial to note that the site visit was prior to the implementation and figured in the decision. In other words, it might have "simply cinched the decision". The notion in this item is that the information gathered from the site visit resulted in a positive influence on the ultimate decision even if it was just of a confirmatory nature because O was likely to adopt the P anyway. Similarly, if the O had already "decided to adopt" the

IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	LESS IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	not mentioned OR unimportant	LESS IMPORTANT reason to adopt	IMPORTANT reason to adopt
1	2	3	4	5

AT THE TIME OF THE ADOPTION DECISION, THE FOLLOWING WERE THOUGHT BY O MEMBERS TO BE REASONS FOR, OR FACTORS INVOLVED IN, THE ADOPTION DECISION:

P THEN went on a site visit, had a negative experience and changed their mind, that would be coded in 101. It should also be noted that the visit does not have to be to the original development site. It could have been a site visit to a second generation adopter.

103. Visit by consultant to O was useful
104. Visit by consultant to $\bar{O}$ was not useful
The consultant might be the change agent or the developer or someone who was directly affiliated with getting the program started at other site. Consultant = someone who visits O to advise on adoption.

105. Other contact(s) with P was (were) useful
106. Other contact(s) with $\bar{P}$ was (were) not useful
Refers to mail, telephone contacts, info gathered through other channels (e.g. word of mouth). Only code if any of these were a REASON for adoption decision. Includes initial contacts if they were mentioned.

IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	LESS IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	not mentioned OR unimportant	LESS IMPORTANT reason to adopt	IMPORTANT reason to adopt
1	2	3	4	5

AT THE TIME OF THE ADOPTION DECISION, THE FOLLOWING WERE THOUGHT BY O MEMBERS TO BE REASONS FOR, OR FACTORS INVOLVED IN, THE ADOPTION DECISION:

RESOURCES

materials

107. Appropriate materials for P were available before adoption
108. Appropriate materials for P were not available before adoption
e.g. test materials, texts, etc. were available, and this was a REASON for adoption decision

109. Materials desired by O would be obtained if P was adopted
110. Materials desired by O would not be obtained if P was adopted (would not result from adoption)
Note difference between this and the preceeding item.

facilities

111. Appropriate facilities were available for P before adoption
112. Appropriate facilities were not available for P before adoption
e.g. reading or math lab, filing system, computer, etc.

113. Facilities desired by O would be obtained if P was adopted
114. Facilities desired by O would not be obtained if P was adopted (would not result from adoption)
Note difference between this and the preceeding item.

IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	LESS IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	not mentioned OR unimportant	LESS IMPORTANT reason to adopt	IMPORTANT reason to adopt
1	2	3	4	5

AT THE TIME OF THE ADOPTION DECISION, THE FOLLOWING WERE THOUGHT BY O MEMBERS TO BE REASONS FOR, OR FACTORS INVOLVED IN, THE ADOPTION DECISION:

financial support (FS)

NOTE: FOR THE FOLLOWING ITEMS DEALING WITH FINANCIAL SUPPORT: The appropriate level of government is defined by the locus of the specific funding allocation decision. e.g. CETA money starts in Washington, but allocation decisions for CETA funds are made by state and local agencies. Also note that some of these items refer to availability of funds, while others refer to funds resulting from adoption. e.g.. federal funding was available for starting the program ("seed money") and O was expecting the local government to pick up funding after federal money was terminated. "Availability" AND/OR "resulting from adoption" might be REASONS for adoption. Also, note that O predictions concerning likelihood of P funding being picked up are always somewhat uncertain, so don't expect them to be stated in certain terms. ALSO: Note the SLACK RESOURCES item (# 131).

115. Federal financial support was available
116. Federal financial support was not available

117. Post-implementation Federal FS would result from adoption
118. Post-implementation Federal FS would not result from adoption
Refers to another grant, NOT grant which is (or could be) supporting P's adoption.

119. State FS was available
120. State FS was not available

IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	LESS IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	not mentioned OR unimportant	LESS IMPORTANT reason to adopt	IMPORTANT reason to adopt
1	2	3	4	5

AT THE TIME OF THE ADOPTION DECISION, THE FOLLOWING WERE THOUGHT BY O MEMBERS TO BE REASONS FOR, OR FACTORS INVOLVED IN, THE ADOPTION DECISION:

121. Post-implementation State FS would result from implementation
122. Post-implementation State FS would not result from implementation
Again, refers to O picking up support from ANOTHER grant, not one which is, or could be supporting P adoption.

123. Local FS was available
124. Local FS was not available

125. Post-implementation Local FS would result from adoption
126. Post-implementation Local FS would not result from adoption
Again, not adoption grant.

127. Private FS was available
128. Private FS was not available
"Private" FS refers to any non-governmental support, at any level. e.g. United Way, local American Legion chapter, etc.

129. Private FS would result from adoption
130. Private FS would not result from adoption
Again, NOT adoption grant.

131. O had money in its budget which it needed to spend
This refers to slack resources which actually motivate the adoption decision e.g., "we have some funds in our NSF budget we're not spending, so we're getting a computer terminal."

IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	LESS IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	not mentioned OR unimportant	LESS IMPORTANT reason to adopt	IMPORTANT reason to adopt
1	2	3	4	5

AT THE TIME OF THE ADOPTION DECISION, THE FOLLOWING WERE THOUGHT BY O MEMBERS TO BE REASONS FOR, OR FACTORS INVOLVED IN, THE ADOPTION DECISION:

STAFF

availability

NOTE: The following O job levels are different than those used elsewhere in ADO & OP. i.e., distinction is NOT made here between O and SO, and between "involved" and "not involved".

132. Administrative staff required for P were available (These could be in SO and/or in O)

133. Administrative staff required for P were not available
Code here ONLY if given as REASON. Administration = coordination, etc.

134. Specialized staff required for P were available

135. Specialized staff required for P were not available
Again, these could be in O or in SO; and, this MUST be given as REASON to be coded. "Specialist" must have some substantive function, rather than just coordination & administration.

136. Front-line staff required by P were available

137. Front-line staff required by P were not available
Here we don't need to distinguish between "directly involved" and others, since "required by P" implies "directly involved".

IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	LESS IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	not mentioned OR unimportant	LESS IMPORTANT reason to adopt	IMPORTANT reason to adopt
1	2	3	4	5

AT THE TIME OF THE ADOPTION DECISION, THE FOLLOWING WERE THOUGHT BY O MEMBERS TO BE REASONS FOR, OR FACTORS INVOLVED IN, THE ADOPTION DECISION:

138. Support staff required for P were available
139. Support staff required for $\bar{P}$ were not available
Examples of support staff would be secretaries, clerks, maintenance, etc. Note that "volunteers" might be front-line OR support depending on their primary function in P. e.g. a teacher's aide that was tutoring pupils would be front-line, while an aide whose primary role was xeroxing materials would be support. If both functions are mentioned, code in both items.

140. Staff desired by O would be obtained if P was adopted
141. Staff desired by $\bar{O}$ would not be obtained if P was adopted

training and skill range

142. Adequate training for staff was available
143. Adequate training for staff was not available
i.e., whether R felt that the availability of adequate training was a REASON for adoption decision

144. P was within the skill range of the staff
145. $\bar{P}$ was not within the skill range of the staff
i.e. "staff could run P without much additional training". Only code here if given as a REASON. e.g., don't make deductions such as for the MOB innovation, "MOB uses lawyers, O already has lawyers, so MOB is within staff's skill range, and that's a reason for adoption". Refers to EXISTING staff, not potential additional staff.

IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	LESS IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	not mentioned OR unimportant	LESS IMPORTANT reason to adopt	IMPORTANT reason to adopt
1	2	3	4	5

AT THE TIME OF THE ADOPTION DECISION, THE FOLLOWING WERE THOUGHT BY O MEMBERS TO BE REASONS FOR, OR FACTORS INVOLVED IN, THE ADOPTION DECISION:

O's ENVIRONMENT

immediate environment

146. Socio-economic level of O's community was changing
147. Socio-economic level of O's community was not changing
e.g. infusion of additional higher OR lower income people into community might be given as a REASON for adoption decision; stagnancy might be a reason for changing too.

148. There was a CLIENT need for P
149. There was No CLIENT need for P
Must be clear that it was a CLIENT need, not just O need. Remember, "clients" are the people processed by O, that is, O's targets.
e.g.'s: students needed a remedial reading P, youths needed an arbitration P, jurors needed a smoother system, etc.

150. Other factors in O's immediate environment (e.g, community) demanded or facilitated program change relevant to P. (What factors?) _____

151. Record Number 3.
152. Other factors in O's immediate environment (e.g, community) were obstacles to program change or did not demand program change relevant to P. (What factors?) _____
Record these in Call Log, and then code.

IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	LESS IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	not mentioned OR unimportant	LESS IMPORTANT reason to adopt	IMPORTANT reason to adopt
1	2	3	4	5

AT THE TIME OF THE ADOPTION DECISION, THE FOLLOWING WERE THOUGHT BY O MEMBERS TO BE REASONS FOR, OR FACTORS INVOLVED IN, THE ADOPTION DECISION:

wider environment

153. State or federal policies required or facilitated program change
154. State or federal policies did not require change or made change difficult
e.g., Policy supporting bi-lingual education initiated considerable change in education. NOTE: This item does NOT refer to availability of funds.

155. State or federal economy demanded or facilitated program change
156. State or federal economy was an obstacle to program change, made change difficult.
Michigan's present depression is a good example; however, remember that the item refers to THE TIME OF THE ADOPTION DECISION, NOT THE PRESENT.

157. Other factor(s) in O's wider environment demanded or facilitated P change
(What factors?)_____
158. Other factors in O's wider environment were obstacles to P change
(What factors?)_____
Again, record these in Call Log and then code. e.g.'s might be reading scores, SAT's, rising crime rate, trends towards community-based interventions, etc.

IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	LESS IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	not mentioned OR unimportant	LESS IMPORTANT reason to adopt	IMPORTANT reason to adopt
1	2	3	4	5

AT THE TIME OF THE ADOPTION DECISION, THE FOLLOWING WERE THOUGHT BY O MEMBERS TO BE REASONS FOR, OR FACTORS INVOLVED IN, THE ADOPTION DECISION:

INCENTIVES (O MECHANISMS FOR ENCOURAGING/DISCOURAGING, ADOPTION)

individual

159. Individual incentives for adopting or implementing P were available (What incentives?) _____

160. Individual incentives for adopting or implementing P were not available (What incentives?) _____

E.g. release time, travel to conferences, salary increases or bonuses, recognition in newsletters, awards, etc. Again, record what the incentive was on the Call Log and then code. If you get some of this info. from the OP, BE CERTAIN that it was an incentive that had influence on the adoption decision concerning THIS SPECIFIC P. Note: Individual incentives are organizational properties that are operative in terms of encouraging or discouraging the activities of individuals (as they related to this specific P).

organizational

161. Organizational incentives for adopting or implementing were available (What incentives?) _____

162. Organizational incentives for adopting or implementing were not available (What incentives?) _____

E.g. public relations for O, survival of O was enabled by adoption of P, etc.
Again, record what the incentive was on the contact sheet and then code the amount of influence it had on the decision. Note: organizational incentives are incentives for the entire O, i.e. incentives that will benefit O rather than just individuals within O.

IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	LESS IMPORTANT reason NOT to adopt	not mentioned OR unimportant	LESS IMPORTANT reason to adopt	IMPORTANT reason to adopt
1	2	3	4	5

AT THE TIME OF THE ADOPTION DECISION, THE FOLLOWING WERE THOUGHT BY O MEMBERS TO BE REASONS FOR, OR FACTORS INVOLVED IN, THE ADOPTION DECISION:

MANAGEMENT OF ADOPTION DECISION

163. Adoption was well planned, or adoption decision was well-managed. (e.g. good discussions, meetings, participation, information, etc.) Likely to be used as a "FACTOR" involved in AD; may not come up as a "REASON".

164. Adoption was not well planned, or adoption decision was not well managed (e.g. insufficient discussion, meetings, participation, information, etc.) Likely to come up as a reason for non-adoption; e.g., "the meetings bogged down a lot", "we didn't have enough background info. on P", "the right people weren't involved", etc.

APPENDIX B:

Coding Form for the Organization Profile

INFLUENCE ON DECISION-MAKING: PROGRAM-SPECIFIC

[Do NOT ask this question with UNAWARE non-adopters]

Note:
Code this item during the ASQ when you get relevant information, e.g., when R discusses support/antagonism.
REMEMBER: PROBE INFLUENCE. INFLUENCE & SUPPORT!
USE "RUBBER STAMP" PROBE.

AFTER R HAS DISCUSSED GROUPS/INDIVIDUALS, SAY:

Would you then say that [FIRST GROUP/INDIVIDUAL R MENTIONED] had a minimal, moderate, or great deal of influence on the decision?

ASK THIS QUESTION FOR EACH GROUP/INDIVIDUAL MENTIONED BY R.

CODE RESPONSES IN THE MATRIX BELOW.

No influence (or not mentioned)	Minimal influence	Moderate influence	A great deal of influence
0	1	2	3

SPECIFIC:	165.	0 1 2 3	SO (Policy/Budget)
	166.	0 1 2 3	SO Administrative, Executive)
	167.	0 1 2 3	O Administrator(s)
	168.	0 1 2 3	Specialized SO staff
	169.	0 1 2 3	Specialized O staff (Potentially Directly involved with P
	170.	0 1 2 3	O Front-line staff (Potentially Directly involved)
	171.	0 1 2 3	O Front-line staff (Not directly involved)
	172.	0 1 2 3	Union
	173.	0 1 2 3	Parents, relatives, "community" people (as individuals; code special community GROUPS below).
	174.	0 1 2 3	Clients
	175.	0 1 2 3	Special Community Groups _____
	176.	0 1 2 3	Other (WHO?) _____
	177-178.	_____	Total number of group/individual levels mentioned by R (1 = 01, 2 = 02)

INFLUENCE ON DECISION-MAKING, GENERAL

We're [also interested in] what influence different groups have on decisions related to starting new programs, aside from this particular program. In other words, what groups or individuals would you say IN GENERAL had the most influence on program change in your O at the time of the AD?

[If R is reluctant to answer because of differentiating dimensions, find out which dimension/level characterizes most programs which are started by O, and fill out matrix accordingly.]

(differentiating dimensions)

179. WERE DIFFERENTIATING DIMENSIONS MENTIONED BY R? ___yes(1) __no(2)

WHAT WERE THEY? _____

AFTER R HAS LISTED GROUPS/INDIVIDUALS, SAY:

-Would you then say that [FIRST GROUP/INDIVIDUAL R MENTIONED] had a minimal, moderate, or great deal of influence on the decision?

ASK THIS QUESTION FOR EACH GROUP/INDIVIDUAL MENTIONED BY R

CODE RESPONSES IN THE MATRIX BELOW.

No influence (or not mentioned)	Minimal influence	Moderate influence	A great deal of influence
0	1	2	3

GENERAL:

180.	0	1	2	3	SO (Policy/Budget)
181.	0	1	2	3	SO (Administrative, Executive)
182.	0	1	2	3	O Administrator(s)
183.	0	1	2	3	Specialized SO staff
184.	0	1	2	3	Specialized O staff (Potentially Directly involved)
185.	0	1	2	3	O Front-line staff (Directly involved)
186.	0	1	2	3	O Front-line staff (Not Directly involved)
187.	0	1	2	3	Parents, relatives, "community" people (as individuals; code special community GROUPS below)
188.	0	1	2	3	Clients
189.	0	1	2	3	Special Community Groups _____
190.	0	1	2	3	Other (WHO?) _____
191-192.					Total number of group/individual levels mentioned

ENCOURAGE — Could you tell me what kinds of things do you think ENCOURAGE people in your O to adopt new programs?

DISCOURAGE — How about things which discourage people from adopting new programs or from deciding to adopt new programs?

Now I'd like to ask you a few more structured questions about your organization, the way it was AT THE TIME THE AD WAS MADE.

Demographic Info. [code w/out if don't ask unless you haven't gotten info. yet]

NAME — Name of O [write in Call Log] _____

Name of SO [write in Call Log] _____

SETTING 193. 1= Urban 2= Suburban 3= Rural

AGE 194. Age of O (in years)
1= 0-2yrs 2= 3-7yrs 3= 8-15yrs 4= more than 15yrs

SIZE: clients

195-200. Number of (CLIENTS) in O at the time of decision to use/not use P _____

201-206. Number of (CLIENTS) in SO at the time of decision to use/not use P _____

207. For 195 AND 201, at time of decision to use/not use P _____

1=Increasing 2=Decreasing 3=Stable (ASK ALL THREE!)

administrators

208-210. Number of administrative staff in O at the time of decision to use/not use P _____

211-213. Number of administrative staff in SO, NOT COUNTING "in-O" personnel (SUCH AS, e.g.,, at the time of decision to use/not use P _____

214. For 208 AND 211, at the time of decision to use/not use P _____

1=Increasing 2=Decreasing 3=Stable (ASK ALL THREE!)

215-216. Blank

217. Contact Source. 1. Developer 2. Other (eg. HOST, NIE, NDN)

front-line staff

218-220. Number of (FRONT LINE) staff in O at the time of decision to use/not use P _____

221. Record Number 4

222-225. Number of (FRONT LINE) staff in NO at the time of decision to use/not use P _____

226. For 218 and 222 at the time of decision to use not use P

1=Increasing 2=Decreasing 3=Stable (ASK FOR ALL THREE!)

ADOPTED ANY OTHER PROGRAMS

227. Has your O adopted any other programs in the last 3 years?

1 = yes 2 = no

HEARD OF OUR PROJECTS

228-229. Have you ever heard of, or do you know if anyone else in your organization, has ever heard of any of the following programs:

OTHER P's

Code			
1.	Help One Student to Succeed (HOSTS)		
2.	Focus Dissemination Project		
3.	Experience Based Career Education		
4.	ECOS Curriculum Management System		
5.	1 & 2	10.	3 & 4
6.	1 & 3	11.	1, 2, 3
7.	1 & 4	12.	1, 2, 4
8.	2 & 3	13.	2, 3, 4
9.	2 & 4	14.	1, 2, 3, 4
		15.	1,3,4

EXTENT OF CONTACT WITH CHANGE AGENCIES

230. To what extent would you say your O has had contact with (EDUCATION: The National Diffusion Network/ CRIMINAL JUSTICE: The Exemplary Projects Program of LEAA) ?

0=No contact 1=minimal contact 2=moderate contact 3=A great deal of contact

REMINDER: For adopters & terminators, set up the possibility of future phone and/or mail contact. DO NOT mention Phase III site visits. Make sure you have a SUMMER phone # & address!

APPENDIX C:

Interview Guide

BEFORE STARTING:

1) When's the last time you read the ADS?

2) What are the validated outcomes for this P?

INTRO. (YOUR NAME). . . Center for Innovation Research . . .

We're interested in how new programs get started in organizations,

And we're talking to quite a few organizations about a large number

of new programs. One of the many programs we're looking at is

(NAME OF P). Do you have a few minutes to talk now?

PROGRAM STATUS
- Have you ever heard of P?
- Are you currently using P?
- IF YES: When did you start using P?

(DESCRIBE P IF NECESSARY).

IF O IS UNAWARE NON-ADOPTER, GO RIGHT TO O.P.

GENERAL INFO. ABOUT US

MENTION THIS INFO. AT ANY POINT IN THE INTERVIEW IF IT IS NECESSARY, BUT DON'T BOTHER UNLESS R SEEMS NERVOUS, IS CURIOUS, ETC.

REASSURE re. "EVALUATION ANXIETY"

We are not evaluating your O or P; we're interested in how new programs get started in organizations, and we're looking into a large number of programs and organizations in this study.

REASSURE re. CONFIDENTIALITY

Let me make it clear that all reports of our project will refer only to groups of organizations; the names of organizations and of respondents will NOT be used.

CONVEY TO R THAT THEIR RESPONSES ARE VERY IMPORTANT TO OUR PROJECT.

FIRST CONTACT

How did your O first learn about P?

P INVOLVEMENT WITH P

When did you first become involved with P?

To what extent were you involved with the original decisions involving P?

What was your job position at the time?

What is your present job position?

DECISION LOCUS

As far as the decision to USE/NOT USE P was concerned, what individual or group would you say had the final decision? (Use "Rubber Stamp" probe if SO is mentioned here; i.e. "Do they pretty much approve all of the programs they review")

O -- SO DETERMINATION

ASK WHATEVER QUESTIONS ARE NECESSARY TO DETERMINE IF THERE IS A RELATIVE SO FOR THIS O. IF YOU'RE NOT SURE, E.G.:

I'm trying to get a picture of how your organization fits in with other organizations . . . Is there another organization that your organization is responsible to for decisions, an organization that's a "level above" your organization, like a district-level organization, that kind of thing . . . .

If it's not clear by now don't forget to ask the following:

LOCUS OF USE

Where in O is P being used? Where in SO?

IF YOU ARE TALKING TO SO:

What O (in SO) adopted P 1st.? Which was the most involved in AD?

REASONS FOR ADOPTION DECISION

Now, going back to the time the decision to [USE/NOT USE] P was made, I'd like to know some of the reasons that influenced that decision. What were your reasons for [USING/NOT USING] P?

AFTER FIRST RESPONSE: Were there any other reasons?

MAKE SURE YOU UNDERSTAND REASONS SO THAT YOU CAN CODE THEM.

PROBES

USE ALL PROBES WHICH R HAS NOT ALREADY MENTIONED:

Was there anything about _____ which had an impact in your decision making?

- Characteristics of P
- Support from any groups or individuals
- Conflict from any group or individuals
- Someone inside or outside your O promoting P

Code in OP. REMEMBER:

1) Support is NOT the same as influence. PROBE influence.
2) Just because R mentions support doesn't mean that's a REASON. PROBE. (or FACTOR)
3) Use "Rubber Stamp" probe for SO, if SO is mentioned here but not previously.

- Site Visits/Other Contacts (not "Did you do them", b "Did they PLAY A ROLE IN YOUR DECISION"?)

- Resources (If R is unclear: "e.g., what kinds of things did you need to start P, AND was HAVING THEM OR NOT HAVING THEM a factor in your decision? (Remember: If R mentions GRANT SUPPORT, FIND OUT:
  1) Where was the allocation decision made (Fed., State, Local?)
     AND
  2) Would they have adopted P WITHOUT the grant support?
- Staff
- Incentives (O mechanisms encouraging change)
- Things going on outside your O (in the community, in the state or country)
- Planning of Adoption [as FACTOR] (e.g., "How about the way the planning for adoption was done: was that a factor at all in whether or not you decided to use the P?")

"CONS" Was there anything that made you hesitate in that decision, any "cons" that you matched up with "pros," that kind of thing?

ACCURACY CHECK Let me see if I've summarized your reasons accurately in my notes-- Please let me know if I've misunderstood anything you've said, or if you change your mind about anything, if you have anything to add or change, things like that. READ BACK ALL REASONS GIVEN! REVISE IF NECESSARY.

MOST IMPORTANT REASONS Going back over these reasons, then, which would you say were the most important reasons for your O's decision to [USE/NOT USE] P?

COMPARISON WITH OTHER PROGRAMS (If you have NOT obtained info on this yet, ask:) At the time of your decision to USE/NOT USE P, was your O considering any other similar programs that you were comparing P with?

VALIDATION (If you have NOT obtained info on this yet, ask:)

At the time of your decision to USE/NOT USE P, were you aware of any evaluation or validation of P?

IF YES: Did this have an impact in your decision-making

TERMINATOR If you're interviewing a TERMINATOR, ask: Now could you BRIEFLY tell me what were the factors which influenced your decision to STOP USING P?

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