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THE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION AT MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY AS AN ORGANIZATION: A SURVEY OF THE PERCEPTIONS OF IT'S STUDENTS, FACULTY, AND ADMINISTRATORS

Вy

Joseph Edward Bechard

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ABSTRACT

THE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION AT MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY AS AN ORGANIZATION: A SURVEY OF THE PERCEPTIONS OF IT'S STUDENTS, FACULTY, AND ADMINISTRATORS.

by Joseph Edward Bechard

This study was designed to assess significant agreements and/or disagreements in perceptions of the organizational climate of the College of Education at Michigan State University. A total of 133 individuals participated in the study. These individuals were randomly selected from five populations in the College; 1) Administrators, 2) Graduate Faculty, 3) Undergraduate Faculty, 4) Graduate Students, and 5) Undergraduate Students.

Likert's Profile of Organizational Characteristics
questionnaires, as developed for colleges, were used to
measure the organizational climate. These instruments delineate six organizational variables common to all organizations,
along an <u>authoritarian-participative</u> continuum. The variables tested were: 1) Leadership Process, 2) Character of
Motivational Forces, 3) Character of Communication Process,
4) Interaction-Influence Process, 5) Character of Decisionmaking Process, and 6) Character of Goal-Setting Process.

The participants were asked to rank the College on each variable along the continuum. Individual scores were

calculated for each variable and from that data, mean acores for each group on each variable were computed.

The analysis of the data was done in three steps:

- (1) Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance technique found strong agreement within each group about the organizational climate of the College.
- (2) A three-way analysis of variance for repeated measures technique found significant differences between groups across all variables tested.
- (3) A Scheffe post hoc comparison technique was applied to various combinations of groups to identify specific differences.

Pindings

In the perceptions of the state of the organization of the College:

- (1) There is substantial agreement within each of the five groups.
- (2) There is substantial disagreement between the Administrators and each of the other groups.
- (3) There is substantial disagreement between Faculty Groups and Student Groups.
- (4) There is substantial agreement between Graduate Faculty and the Undergraduate Faculty.
- (5) There is substantial agreement between the Graduate Students and the Undergraduate Students.

In ranking the organizational climate of the College on a continuum from authoritarian to participative, the results show:

- (1) There is a strong hierarchical flavor to the manner in which each group ranked the College.
- (2) Administrators, Faculty, and Students, form three distinct levels of evaluation.

Conclusions

The following conclusions were drawn from the results of this study:

- (1) The findings reveal the bureaucratic nature of the College.
- (2) The extent of participation in organizational life, as viewed by the Students is at a low level.
- (3) The Faculty's relative position on the continuum is closer to the Student point of view than to the Administrator
- (4) Differences in perception between the Administrators and all other groups suggest that the Administrative group is out of touch with the organizational life of the College.
- (5) Differences in perception between the Faculty and the Students re-emphasizes the lack of participation in the organizational life of the College.

Recommendations

The recommendations are:

- 1. The College should implement a "Model College Plan," based upon Organizational Development (OD) Principles. The basic component of the Model would be pilot groups consisting of a mixture of Administrators, Faculty, and Students to investigate all aspects of the organizational life in the College -- technology, systems and structure, methods, interpersonal and personal factors, and strategies of change.
- 2. The College should encourage all of its Education classes to be in contact with these pilot groups to insure a constant source of feedback to the system.
- 3. The College should encourage teams of doctoral students, interested in organizations, to write dissertations on the Model Plan, and other innovative organizational plans.

 This will increase the amount of empirical findings available for educational organizations.
- 4. The College should hold regular workshops in organizational diagnosis for people in the field of Education. The workshops would be for individuals and/or specific school units.
- 5. The College should establish a group made up of Administrators, Faculty, and Students specifically from the Administration and Educational Psychology Departments to study the effect of organization on learning environments.

The objectives of this plan would be:

- 1. To create an open problem solving climate throughout the College.
- 2. Locate decision-making and problem-solving responsibilities as close to the information sources as possible.
- 3. Maximize collaborative efforts among individuals and between groups.
- 4. Increase the sense of "ownership" of College objectives throughout the membership.

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Many people have provided helpful assistance and kindness in the completion of this study. Specifically, the writer would like to express his sincere gratitude to the following people:

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

In reviewing the sociological literature on education, few, if any, attempts have been made to view educational institutions as formal and informal organizations. At a point in history when increasing pressures and demands are being made upon educational institutions to serve the needs of an ever expanding society, it is important that educators use all of the knowledge and skill available to them to more efficiently utilize the potential of their human resource.

Business and industrial organizations have been successful in borrowing from the behavioral sciences in attempts to increase productivity through more effective diagnosis of organizational structure. Educational organizations, by and large, have not attempted to develop such models of internal examination. As a result, educators have had to rely upon empirical research that was not explicitly directed to the uniqueness of the field of education.

Most educational organizations have defined in general terms by means of statements included in their philosophical objectives, their goals, expectations, and acceptable behaviors. As in business and industry, it is important to analyze the organizational framework of educational organizations to discover the degree of consonance that exists between the desired outcomes and the ability of the organizational structure to contribute to the achievement of the desired results.

To understand what educational institutions are like as organizations, in broad terms, means to understand their characteristic structure, processes, and functional problems. This study will focus primarily on determining the characteristic processes of the College of Education at Michigan State University as perceived by its administration, faculty, and students and based on data concerned with leadership processes, motivational forces, communication processes, influence-interaction, decision-making, and goal-setting.

Theory

Several scholars like Likert, McGregor, 2

¹ Likert, R., New Patterns of Management, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961) and The Human Organization, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967).

²McGregor, D., <u>The Human Side of Enterprise</u>, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960).

Shepard, Bennis, Blake and Mouton, Burns and Stalker, Barnes, Litwak, and Argyris, who conduct research in organizations have developed theoretical models of effective and ineffective organizations. To efficiently categorize his data, each scholar has developed two polar models. Each places one model at each end of a continuum, based upon varying criteria. Each identifies the extremities of his continuum in different terms, but the characteristics of the polar models are similar. For example, Likert refers to authoritative-participation, Bennis to habit-problem-solving, Barnes to closed and open

Shepard, H., "Organic and Mechanistic Models of Organization," presented at the Esso Laboratories, Thayer Hotel, Summer, 1959.

²Bennis, W., "Leadership Theory and Administrative Behavior," <u>Administrative Science Quarterly</u>, Vol. 4, No. 3 (December, 1959).

³Blake, R., and Mouton, J., <u>The Managerial Grid</u> (Houston, Texas: Gulf, 1964).

⁴Burns, T., and Stalker, G.M., <u>The Management of Innovation</u>, (London: Tavistock Publications, 1961).

⁵Barnes, L., <u>Organizational Systems and Engineering</u> <u>Groups</u>, Graduate School of Business, Harvard Review, 1960.

⁶Litwak, E., "Models of Bureaucracy which Permit Conflict," <u>Journal of Sociology</u>, LXVII, (September, 1961).

Argyris, C., <u>Integrating the Individual and the Organization</u>, (New York: Wiley and Sons, 1964).

systems, Litwak to <u>bureaucratic-human-relations</u>, and McGregor to <u>Theory X and Theory Y</u> organizations. For simplification, Shepard, Burns and Stalker, and Argyris have vertically grouped these separate theories under the headings of <u>mechanistic organizations</u> (authoritarian, habit, closed system, bureaucratic, and Theory X), and <u>organic organizations</u> (participative, problem-solving, open system, human relations, and Theory Y).

Shepard contrasts the two approaches in the five following respects:

- 1. Wide participation in decision-making rather than centralized decision-making.
- The face-to-face group rather than the individual as the basic unit of organization.
- 3. Mutual confidence rather than authority as the integrative force in organization.
- 4. The administrator as the agent for maintaining intragroup and intergroup communication rather than the agent of higher authority.
- 5. Growth of members of the organization to greater responsibility rather than external control of the members' performance of their tasks.

Summarizing the major findings of these scholars, the mechanistic organization is characterized by:

¹Shepard, H., "Superiors and Subordinates in Research," Journal of Business, 29 (1956), 261-267.

- Decision-making and control exercised by the top levels of the organization.
- 2. An emphasis on unilateral management action, based upon dependency and passive conformity.
- 3. The specialization of tasks so that concern for the whole organization is lost in greater concern for the parts.
- 4. The centralization of information, rewards and penalties, and membership.
- 5. The top level of management being responsible for developing and maintaining the loyalty, commitment and responsibility of all participants on as high a level as possible.
- 6. An emphasis on social status, intergroup and individual competition, and rivalry.

At the other end of the continuum, organic organizations are characterized by:

- Decision-making widely done throughout the organization.
- 2. An emphasis on mutual dependence and cooperation based on trust, confidence, and high technical or professional competence.

- A constant pressure to enlarge tasks and interrelate them so that concern for the whole organization is emphasized.
- 4. The decentralization of responsibility for, and use of information, rewards and penalties, and membership.
- 5. Participants at all levels being responsible for developing and maintaining loyalty and commitment at as high a level as possible.
- 6. An emphasis on status through contribution to the whole, and intergroup and individual cooperation.

Perhaps the most comprehensive differentiation of types of organizations has been done by Likert, who has divided the two broad categories into four. He differentiates between the <u>authoritarian</u> and <u>participative</u> systems. Authoritarian systems may be further conceptualized as <u>exploitative</u>, <u>benevolent</u>, and <u>consultative</u>. The participative system is conceptualized as the <u>participative group</u>. Initially, these systems were devised to illustrate comparative differences among management systems and have since been adapted to measure the nature of the organization and are labeled System 1, 2, 3, and 4. These systems are placed on a continuum representing degree of organizational control.

System 1 has the most unilateral control, whereas System 4 has more mutual shared control. Likert's model does not consider the laissez faire organization.

For the dimensions that he considers, Likert has developed a detailed table which describes the organizational and performance characteristics of each system. Although Likert is aware that such tables tend to oversimplify the situation, for example, they do not depict how each system blends with the others, he feels that there are important values to be gained.

The value of these tables, Likert suggests, lies in the observable fact that the many operating procedures and the performance characteristics of the different systems form an orderly pattern along every horizontal and vertical dimension. A more important value of the table, according to Likert, is to draw from it the nature of a new form of organization, which has not been fully developed in practice, namely, the participative group form of organization. This new form will tend to be characterized as an integrated, internally consistent system. The overlapping group form of organization will be its primary structure. In addition to the necessary technical and administrative skills, administration will also hold a basic philosophy of leadership that places emphasis on effective group functioning, a supportive, ego-building climate,

and cooperative relationships.

Related findings by these and other behavioral scientists, as reviewed in part in Chapter II, account for differences in organizational flexibility, effectiveness in problem solving, and the ability of an organization to adapt, change, and respond to its environment as contingent with organizational structure. These findings also seem to support the view that the psychological energies of the participants of an organization, such as individual self-actualization, self-expression, self-awareness, self-esteem, and other indices of psychological success are to a significant degree influenced by organizational characteristics.

This study assumes that these dimensions as identified by Likert can be applied to any type of organization. Much of the theory and empirical data on which they are based was generated in industrial organizations. We need, however, to determine the special properties of educational systems which pre-dispose them to particular types of dysfunctions. It is also necessary to examine whether the technologies of organization improvement which have proved successful industrially need adaptation in certain directions before they are likely to be effective in schools.

It is essential, then, that we accept the possibility

as such share certain properties with all other organizations.

These assumptions have been instrumental in allowing Likert to develop the dimensions of educational organizations used in this study.

Purpose of the Study

The general purpose of this study, which is exploratory in nature, and not designed to test hypotheses, is to determine the prevailing attitudes of administration, faculty, and students in the College of Education at Michigan State University regarding the organizational system of the said college. The focus of the study will be on the characteristic processes of the organization and will to this extent be descriptive in nature.

More specifically, the purpose of this study shall be to:

- 1. Survey the perceptions of a randomly selected group of administrators of the College of Education regarding the present state of the organization in terms of their experience.
- 2. Survey the perceptions of two randomly selected groups of faculty of the College of Education regarding the present state of the organization in terms of their experience.

One group will be composed of faculty members who devote the greater part of their professional time to graduate studies. The other group will be composed of faculty members who devote the greater part of their professional time to undergraduate studies.

- 3. Survey the perceptions of a randomly selected group of graduate students in the College of Education at Michigan State University regarding the present state of the organization in terms of their experience.
- 4. Survey the perceptions of a randomly selected group of undergraduate students majoring in Education at Michigan State University regarding the present state of the organization in terms of their experience.
- 5. Determine the areas of shared perceptions of the present state of the organization of the College of Education at Michigan State University by graduate faculty and undergraduate faculty, graduate and under-graduate students.
- 6. Determine areas of perceptual dissonance about the present state of the organization as identified by the administration, graduate faculty and undergraduate faculty, graduate and undergraduate students.
- 7. Seek answers to a series of questions which are stated elsewhere under "Questions to be Answered, " relevant

to the data gathered.

General Questions to be Answered

Questions answered by this study will include:

- 1. Is there a substantial agreement and/or disagreement among administrators of the College of Education as to their perceptions of the state of the organization of the College?
- 2. Is there a substantial agreement and/or disagreement among the graduate faculty members and among the undergraduate faculty members of the College of Education as to their perceptions of the state of the organization of the College?
- 3. Is there a substantial agreement and/or disagreement among the graduate students as to their perceptions of the state of the organization of the College of Education?
- 4. Is there a substantial agreement and/or disagreement among the undergraduate students majoring in Education about their perceptions of the state of the organization of the College of Education?

Then, depending upon finding within group agreement:

5. Are there substantial agreements and/or disagreements between administrators and the graduate faculty, and between administrators and the undergraduate faculty in the perceptions of each group, as they view the state of the organization of the College of Education?

- 6. Are there substantial agreements and/or disagreements between administrators and graduate students in the perceptions of each group, as they view the state of the organization of the College of Education?
- 7. Are there substantial agreements and/or disagreements between administrators and undergraduate students in the perceptions of each group, as they view the state of the organization of the College of Education?
- 8. Are there substantial agreements and/or disagreements between the graduate faculty and the undergraduate faculty in the perceptions of each group, as they view the state of the organization of the College of Education?
- 9. Are there substantial agreements and/or disagreements between the graduate faculty and the graduate students in the perceptions of each group, as they view the state of the organization of the College of Education?
- 10. Are there substantial agreements and/or disagreements between the undergraduate faculty and undergraduate students in the perceptions of each group, as they view the state of the organization of the College of Education?
- 11. Are there substantial agreements and/or disagreements between the graduate students and the undergraduate students in the perceptions of each group as they view the state of the

organization of the College of Education?

Significance of the Study

The implications of this study are far reaching. In diagnosing its problems, every organization faces the similar problem of understanding the nature of its system, the way in which its systems function, and the manner in which it responds to its environment. The initial significance of this study is that it will diagnose an educational organization in a systematic manner. Educational organizations, like all organizations, are in a constant state of change. Pressures on educational institutions to change have greatly increased. These pressures are both external and internal and require decisions which guide change. The quality of these decisions will depend upon the kind of information received and the accurate analysis of that information.

This study may prove useful as a model for diagnosing educational organizations in other settings. High schools and elementary schools are in need of ways to diagnose the impact of their organizations on their clients and staff.

Hopefully, this study will serve as a springboard for further research. Perhaps educators have been laboring long under the assumption that the manner in which schools are

organized creates the best learning climate for the students.

As a result of this study and resultant studies, the existing organizational patterns for educational purpose may prove ineffective.

Assumptions underlying this Study

A study effort is, in essence, an argument. The participants in the argument are the writer and the readers. All arguments are conducted on the basis of underlying assumptions that, by agreement, cannot be challenged by those engaged in the argumentative discussion. The following assumptions are essential to this study:

- 1. Educational institutions are organizations with organizational characteristics that can be identified.
- 2. Certain kinds of organizational structures are more conducive to achieving certain goals and objectives than other kinds of organizational structure.
- 3. Different organizational structures will produce different psychological and sociological climates for the participants.
- 4. The perceptions of individuals within an organization, about that organization will have a significant influence upon their adaptive behavior.

5. Effective and ineffective organizations may be identified in behavioral terms.

Definitions of Key Terms

An Organization -- A social system made up of a plurality of parts, maintaining themselves through their interrelatedness to achieve specific objectives.

State of an Organization -- The current situation of an organization with respect to such items as leadership behavior, the motivations of its members, its communications and decision-making processes, its productivity, and other internal forces that influence the whole.

Characteristics of an Organization -- The sum total of the organizational processes that would serve to categorize the organization, i.e., place it on a continuum as being an open system or a closed system.

Superior -- For the purpose of this study, an assumption of the existence of hierarchal levels in the College of Education. Refers to members of the organization who occupy a higher position on the hierarchal ladder than the respondent. For purposes of this study, the order is assumed to be from highest to lowest, the Dean of the College of Education, administrators, faculty, and students. No distinction is

drawn between undergraduates or graduate students, nor faculty primarily concerned with graduate studies or faculty primarily concerned with undergraduate studies.

Subordinate -- For the purposes of this study, an assumption of the existence of hierarchal levels in the College of Education. Refers to members of the organization who occupy a lower position on the hierarchal ladder than the respondent, or to members of the same position as the respondent. See Superior for definition of the order of levels assumed in this study.

Academic matters -- Includes course content, instructional plans, teaching methods, textbook selection, and instructional policies.

Non-academic matters -- Includes student behavior, discipline, student activities, administrative problems, and personal problems.

Leadership Process -- The extent to which the leaders of the organization are able to create a climate of trust and confidence in relationships with subordinates, the degree to which they exhibit supportive behavior, and the degree to which they obtain ideas and opinions of subordinates in problemsolving activities. This includes the extent to which subordinates feel free to discuss important matters about their jobs

with their immediate superiors, and the degree to which subordinates have confidence and trust in superiors.

Motivational Forces -- Physical, economical, psychological, or sociological pressures present within the organization that influence participants in task performance. This includes the amount of responsibility felt by each member of the organization for achieving organization goals, the kinds of attitudes developed toward the organization and toward other members of the organization, and the extent to which underlying motives such as physical security, economic needs, status, ego motives, affiliation, and achievement are utilized.

Communication processes -- The character, amount, and direction of interaction employed by an organization in determining the flow of information. This includes accuracy of communications, willingness to share information, accuracy of perceptions of problems and accuracy of perceptions of other members of the organization, adequacy of upward, downward, and lateral communications, and the extent to which communications are accepted by others in the organization.

Interaction-influence processes -- The amount and character of interaction present, and the extent to which participants in the organization can influence the goals, methods, and activities of the organization. This includes

the extent to which interaction is free from fear and distrust, amount of cooperative teamwork present, and the extent to which an effective structure exists enabling one part of the organization to exert influence upon other parts.

Decision-making Process -- The procedures used by an organization in setting priorities, analyzing alternatives and selecting courses of action. This includes levels of the organization at which decisions are made, the extent to which decision-makers are aware of the problems, particularly at the lower levels of the organization, the extent to which subordinates are involved in decision-making, the adequacy and accuracy of information available for decision-making at the levels where decisions are made, and the extent to which the pattern of decision-making encourages teamwork.

Goal Setting Process -- The procedures employed by an organization in establishing its purposes and objectives. This includes the extent to which goals are established by means of group participation as opposed to orders issued, the extent to which different hierarchal levels tend to strive for high performance goals, and the extent to which there exist forces that resist, accept, or reject goals.

<u>Characteristic element</u> -- A specific attribute that contributes to the over-all definition of an organizational

variable.

Overview

The nature of the problem and supporting theories have been identified in Chapter I. In Chapter II a review of relevant and related literature will be presented. Chapter III is a presentation of the research design, instrumentation, and techniques used in the study. A presentation of the findings is included in Chapter IV. A summary of the findings, with implications and recommendations are found in the concluding Chapter V.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Increasingly, students of educational administration are concerned with the relevance of organization to the nature of education students receive. Abbott states, "it seems obvious that the structure of the organization has important implications for the way in which the organization will function." \textstyle{1}

Unfortunately, the empirical literature that views educational institutions as organizations is fragmentary and discontinuous. Generally, the data educators have had to rely
upon are either extrapolations from other fields of study or
research narrowly focused on some sub system, process, or
activity without being concerned with a more comprehensive
conception of schools as organizations.

The study of human behavior, as a result of organizational structure also has important implications for the educator. Most members of society have or will inhabit schools at one time or

Abbott, M.G., and Lovell, J.T., eds., Change Perspectives in Educational Administration, (Auburn, Ala.: Auburn University, School of Education, 1965), pp. 40.

another. Understandably, the manner in which individuals respond to organizational climate will be an important factor in determining the success or failure of the institution's mission.

Pugh defines "organizational theory" as the study of the structure and the functioning of organizations and the behavior of groups and individuals within them. Pursuant to these ends, the central purpose of this chapter will be to order the existing literature to set a framework for inquiry into the study of educational institutions. The literature relevant to this study is divided into three general areas: (1) Current organizational theories, (2) Organizational effect on Individuals, and (3) Perceptions and their effect on Behavior.

I. Current Organizational Theory

Most students of organizations agree that schools are bureaucratic in nature. Etzioni implies it when he says, "Modern society is to a large degree a bureaucratic society; that is, many of its functional requirements -- such as allocation of means and social integration -- are carried out and controlled by complex organizations. But not only does modern

Pugh, D.S. "Modern Organizational Theory: A Psychological and Sociological Study." <u>Psychological Bulletin</u>, 66, 1966, 235-251.

society as a whole tend to be bureaucratic, the most powerful social units which make up modern societies are bureaucracies."

Bidwell, Blau and Scott, and Corwin and others specifically mention schools and education as having bureaucratic characteristics.

The classical analysis of the bureaucratic organization by Max Weber is still the most important general statement on formal organization.

According to Weber, bureaucracy has the following characteristics:

1. Organization tasks are distributed among the various positions as official duties. Implied is a clear cut division of labor among positions which makes possible a high degree of specialization. Specialization, in turn, promotes expertness among the staff, both directly and by enabling the organization to hire employees on the basis of their technical qualifications.

¹Etzioni, A. <u>Complex Organizations</u>. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961), 257.

²Bidwell, C.E., "The School as a Formal Organization," Handbook of Organization, (Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co., 1965), 972-1022.

Blau, P.M., and Scott, W.R., Formal Organizations: A Comparative Study, (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1960), 27-45.

⁴Corwin, R.G., <u>A Sociology of Education</u>, (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts Publishing Co., 1965) 35-54.

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

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

Other social scientists have attempted to develop theoretical frameworks from which formal organizations could be studied. Simon conceives of administrative organizations as primarily decision-making structures. He writes: "What is a scientifically relevant description of an organization? It is a description that, so far as possible, designates for each person in the organization what decisions that person makes, and the influence to which he is subjected in making each of these decisions." Rational decision-making requires selecting the best decision from a series of alternatives. The function of organization is, then, to limit the scope of the

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

²Simon, H.A., <u>Administrative Behavior</u> (2nd ed.), (New York: MacMillan, 1957), 126-127.

decisions each member must make by defining the responsibilities of each official and supplying him with goals to guide his decisions. Mechanisms such as formal rules, information channels, and training programs are employed to narrow the range of alternatives the official must consider before making his decisions.

Simon views rational behavior as a series of means--ends chains. Given certain ends, appropriate means are selected for their attainment, but once reached, the ends often become means for the attainment of other means. The ends of every member of the organization are defined by directives of his superior, and his responsibility is primarily to decide on the best means for attaining these ends. Summarily, each official in the hierarchy has his value premises supplied by his superior; besides, his search for alternative means is narrowed by procedural regulations.

of formal organization. According to Parsons all social systems must solve four basic problems: (1) adaptation -- the reality demands of the environment coupled with the active transformation of the external situation, (2) goal achievement:

libid., XXIV.

²Parsons, Talcott, <u>Structure and Process in Modern Societies</u>, (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1960), 16-96.

the defining of objectives and the mobilization of resources to maintain them; (3) integration -- establishing and organizing a set of relations among the member units of the system to coordinate and unify them into a single entity; and (4) latency -- the maintenance over time of the system's motivational and cultural patterns. Parsons' theory includes organizations as social systems and views all organizations as having to face these fair problems. The particular structures devised to meet them will vary with the type of organization under consideration.

Three hierarchal levels in formal organizations are distinguished by Parsons. First, the technical level where the actual "product" of the organization is manufactured or dispensed whose chief concerns are adaptation and goal-attainment. Above that level is the managerial level whose function is to mediate between various parts of the organization and coordinate their efforts. This level's chief concern is with integration. Finally, the institutional level of the organization connects it with the wider social system functioning to oversee the operations of the organization in light of its position in

Parsons, Talcott et al., Working Papers in the Theory of Action, (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1953), 183-186.

the larger society. Latency problems are this level's primary concern.

Having thus defined the hierarchal lines of authority,
Parsons suggests there are clear-cut breaks between the three
levels. Only within a level can the superior supervise the
work of subordinates and assume responsibility for it, since
the differences in function between levels are too great to
make supervision of the lower by the higher possible. 1

In viewing the many elements that combine to make up the bureaucratic organization, Thompson finds two to be of particular importance. These are the social process of specialization and the cultural institution of hierarchy.

Modern bureaucracy attempts to accommodate specialization within a hierarchal framework. He further identifies a hierarchy as a system of roles, which as cultural items are learned and refer to the patterns of behavior that become appropriate for a given social position. Thus, according to Thompson, current conceptions of organization are clearly based upon charismatic assumptions concerning these roles. Merton,

¹Parsons, Talcott, "Pattern Variables Revisited," American Sociological Review, 25, 1960, 481-482.

²Thompson, V.A., "Hierarchy, Specialization and Organizational Conflict," <u>Administrative Science Quarterly</u>, 5, 1961, 485-521.

Selznick, and Gouldner, while not denying Weber's essential proposition that bureaucracies are more efficient than are alternative forms of organizations, have suggested important dysfunctional consequences of bureaucratic organization.

Merton's 2 system of propositions begins with a "demand for control" made on the organization by the top hierarchy. This emphasizes rules as a response to the demand for control, and results in a need for accountability and the predictability of behavior enforced by standard operating procedures. reduction of personalized relationships, the increased internalization of rules, and the decreased search for alternatives inherent in the bureaucratic organization combine to make the behaviors of members of the organization highly predictable, i.e., they result in an increase in the rigidity of behavior of the participants. At the same time, the reduction in personalized relationships facilitates the development of an esprit de corps, i.e., increases the extent to which goals are perceived as shared among members of the group. Such a sense of commoness of purpose, interests, and character increases the propensity of organization members to defend

John Wi March Sons, Inc., 1958), 36-46.

²Merton, R.K., "The Unanticipated Consequences of Purposive Social Action," <u>American Sociological Review</u>, 1, 1936, 894-904.

each other against outside pressures. This, in turn, solidifies the tendency toward rigid behavior.

Like Merton, Selznick¹ wishes to show how the use of a control technique brings about a series of unanticipated consequences. Selznick's model starts with the demand for control made by the top hierarchy that results in an increased delegation of authority.

Delegation, however, has several immediate consequences. As intended, it increases the amount of training in specialized competencies. Restriction of attention to a relatively small number of problems increases experiences within these limited areas and improves the employee's ability to deal with these problems. At the same time, delegation results in departmentalization on an increase in the diversity of interests among sub-units in the organization. This diversification leads to conflict between sub-units. This struggle for internal control not only affects directly the content of decisions, but also causes greater elaboration of sub-unit ideologies. Each sub-unit seeks success by fitting its policy into official doctrine to legitimize its demands.

Selznick, P., <u>TVA and the Grass Roots</u> (Berkley: University of California Press, 1949).

In Gouldner's system, the use of general and impersonal rules regulating work procedures is part of the response to the demand for control from the top hierarchy. The consequences of such work rules decrease the visibility of power relations and decreases interpersonal tensions within the group but also increase knowledge about minimum accepted behavior. Minimum level performance, viewed as unacceptable by the hierarchy, results in closer supervision over the work group. Which, in turn increases the visibility of power relations within the organization, raises the tension level in the work group, and thereby upsets the equilibrium originally based on the institution of rules. Thus, the intensity of supervision is a function of the authoritarianism of supervisors and a function of the punitivity of supervisory role perception.

Contrasting the broad groupings of organizational theory variously labeled bureaucratic, traditional, classical, mechanistic, autocratic, or theory X, is another body of organizational theory categorized as modern, human relations, democratic, participative, organismic, or theory Y.

The main thrust of the "human relations" movement over

¹Gouldner, A.W., <u>Patterns of Industrial Bureaucracy</u>, (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1954).

the past twenty years has been toward what Harold Leavitt has called "power equalization," that is toward a reduction in power and status differential between supervisors and subordinates. Strauss summarizes the movement as, "....a continuing reaction against the emphasis of programmed work, rigid hierarchal control, and high degree of specialization which were characteristic of Taylorism and traditional theory. Its goal is to cut back excessive hierarchal control and to encourage spontaneity on the part of subordinates."

McGregor³ suggests a different theory of management and organization, "based upon more adequate assumptions of human nature and human motivation." He identifies management's task in a conventional view as consisting of three propositions that are labeled Theory X:

 Management is responsible for organizing the elements of productive enterprise -- money, materials, equipment, people -- in the interest of economic ends.

¹Leavitt, H., "Applied Organizational Change in Industry," Handbook of Organizations, ed. J.G. March, (Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co., 1965) 1153-1167.

²Strauss, G., "Some Notes on Power Equalization," <u>Read-ings in Organization Theory: A Behavioral Approach</u>, ed. W. A. Hill and D. Egan, (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1966), 374-402.

³McGregor, D.M., <u>The Human Side of Enterprise</u>, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960).

- With respect to people, this is a process of directing their efforts, motivating them, controlling their actions, modifying their behavior to fit the needs of the organization.
- 3. Without this active intervention by management, people would be passive -- even resistant to organizational needs. They must, therefore, be persuaded, rewarded, punished, controlled -- their activities must be directed. This is management's task. We often sum it up by saying that management consists of getting things done through other people.

McGregor further states that behind this conventional theory are additional beliefs and assumptions that are reflected in conventional organizational structures and managerial policies:

(1) The average man is by nature indolent -- he works as little as possible. (2) He lacks ambition, dislikes responsibility, prefers to be led. (3) He is inherently self-centered, indifferent to organizational needs. (4) He is by nature resistant to change. (5) He is gullible, not very bright, the ready dupe of the charlatan and the demagogue.

Theory Y, as developed by McGregor, clearly implies a shift from the all powerful superior relationship with

subordinates to a more balance of power. The dimensions of the theory are: (1) Management is responsible for organizing the elements of productive enterprise -- money, materials, equipment, people -- in the interest of economic ends. (2) People are not passive by nature or resistant to organizational needs. They have become so as a result of experience in organizations. (3) The motivation, the potential for development, the capacity for assuming responsibility, the readiness to direct behavior toward organizational goals are all present in people. Management does not put them there. It is a responsibility of management to make it possible for people to recognize and develop these human characteristics for themselves. (4) The essential task of management is to arrange organizational conditions and methods of operation so that people can achieve their own goals best by directing their own efforts toward organizational objectives.

Likert's development of his Interaction-Influence
Theory (1961) closely parallels McGregor's theory. Drawing
heavily upon data gathered at the U. of M. Survey Research
Center, Likert uses his "principle of supportive relationships" as an organizing theme. He defined the principle as

Likert, R., New Patterns in Management, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961).

follows: "The leadership and other processes of the organization must be such as to ensure maximum probability that in all interactions and all relationships with the organization each member will, in the light of his background, values, and expectations, view the experience as supportive and one which builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance." Likert defines organizational units as overlapping sets of groups rather than individuals. The highly effective work group is, consequently, an important component of the newer theory of management.

Argyris represents a third focus of power equalization theory. With an emphasis on relating human fulfillment to organizational efficiency, Argyris stresses, "authentic relationships." These are defined as, "those relationships in which an individual enhances his self-and other awareness and acceptance in such a way that others can do the same." Organizationally, greater authenticity results in improved decision-making and in performance of tasks.

Argyris² sets forth a theoretical model of essential organizational properties that he labels the "Mix Model."

Argyris, C., <u>Interpersonal Competance and Organiza-</u> tional Effectiveness, (Homewood, Ill.: Irwin, 1962).

²Argyris, C., <u>Integrating the Individual and the Organization</u>, (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1964).

Organizational effectiveness is determined to the degree that organizations move toward or away from these essential properties: (1) From a situation in which a part directs organizational activities to the point where core activities are influenced through interrelationships of parts; (2) from awareness of the organization as a plurality of parts to awareness of the organization as a pattern of parts; (3) from a state in which the objectives being achieved are related to the parts, to a state in which the objectives achieved are related to the whole; (4) from a state in which the organization is unable to influence its internally oriented activities, to a state in which it can influence these activities as the organization desires; (5) from a state in which the organization is unable to influence its externally oriented activities to a state in which it can influence these activities as the organization desires; and (6) from a state in which the nature of the core activities is largely determined by the present to a state in which the present core activities are continually influenced by considerations including the past history, the present and the anticipated future of the organization.

While power equalization positions can be treated as attempts to relate personal fulfillment to organizational problem solving and productivity, many scholars reject the

dichotomous approach. Blake and Mouton refer to "integrated management" that maximizes concern for people and task requirements. Blake argues that human-centered and task centered concerns are independent variables, and suggests that both can be maximized simultaneously. He thus speaks of "team management" as an organizational necessity.

Litwak² (1961) suggests that there are two kinds of events that organizations must consider, the "uniform" and the "non-uniform". Uniform events are those that stress traditional areas of knowledge and non-uniform events are those that stress social skills. He further identifies Weber's bureaucratic model as most efficient in coping with uniform events, and the human relations models as being most efficient in dealing with non-uniform events. His contribution is a third model, the "professional" model, that "combines the central and conflicting features from both types. Since they are conflicting, what characterizes this third model and distinguishes it from the other two is a need for 'mechanisms of segregation'. These permit mutually antagonistic social forms

Blake, R.R., and Mouton, J.S., The Managerial Grid. (Houston, Texas: Gulf, 1964).

²Litwak, E., "Models of Bureaucracy which Permit Conflict," American Journal of Sociology, 67, 1961, 177-184.

to exist side by side in the same organization without ruinous friction." The "mechanisms of segregation" suggest, (1) role separation by restricting primary group behavior and formal relations activities to distinct groups, (2) physical distance, such as between pure research activities (non-uniform events) and production (a uniform event), (3) a set of transferral occupations whose major function would be to switch from one uniform work area to non-uniform relationship areas without contaminating either, (4) evaluation procedures that allow the organization to determine when changes in either or both sub-systems are advisable.

II. Organizational Effects on Individuals

The strong people orientation of educational institutions lends critical importance to the understanding of the
effect of structure on human behavior. In this section, consideration will be given to some of the literature relating
the interdependence of three conceptually distinct levels of
analysis of behavior in organizations -- organizational structure and functioning, individual personality and behavior,
and interaction-influence. Haire (1954) traces the historical

Haire, M., "Industrial Social Psychology," <u>Handbook of Social Psychology</u>, ed. by G.Lindzey, (Cambridge: Addison-Wesley, 1954) 1104-1123.

development of realistic accounts of behavior in organizations back to the research begun in 1927 by the Mayo group in the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company and especially to the interpretation of this research by Roethelsberger and Dickson. Its emphasis on individual needs, informal groups, and social relationships was responsible for the development of a philosophy of management that stressed human relationships in organizations.

Sullivan's interpersonal theory of psychiatry² develops the premise that each person's personality is the result of his pattern of accommodation with people who are significant to him. How the individual accommodates is strongly influenced by the social setting in which the interpersonal relations occur. In this context social values and institutions play a powerful role. He argues that most behavior is the result of the individual's search for relief from tension induced from conforming to authority. Presthus, in his analysis

Roethelsberger, F.J., and Dickson, W.J., Management and the Worker, (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1939).

²Sullivan, H.S., "Tensions, Interpersonal and International," in <u>Tensions that Cause Wars</u>, ed. by H. Cantrel, (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1950) 95.

³Presthus, R., <u>The Organizational Society</u>, (New York: Random House, 1962).

of the organizational society draws heavily on Sullivan's theory. The big organization, Presthus says, induces anxieties in its members simply because of its fundamental characteristics. Specifically, (1) Size becomes a factor when an organization becomes so large that any given member does not have face-to-face contact with most other members. larger the organization, the lower morale drops as individuals tend to feel unimportant. (2) As organizations increase in size and complexity, members must begin to specialize. Such divisions of labor have both advantages and disadvantages, on the one hand, the technical quality of the work improves. On the other hand, interpersonal relationships deteriorate; so also does the sense of identification with the organization. (3) The main functioning of hierarchy is to assign and validate authority along a descending scale throughout the organization. The hierarchy is of vital importance, since the individual's participation in an organization is always affected by his place in the hierarchy. The weight attached to suggestions and the influence of each member is determined by one's hierarchal position. (4) The importance of status and status symbols is continually reinforced in the organization by the way it distributes rewards and punishments. (5) Most bureaucracies are run by a few people; thus they are oligarchies.

"few" are set off from the rest by their "preponderance of power." Their presence in an organization constantly reminds the members that there is a small group with more power than all the others combined. Their presence tends to accentuate the anxieties of the other members. Presthus states that members accommodate to the demands of the organization in three ways -- upward-mobility, indifference, and ambivalence. The upward-mobiles are persons who enjoy organization life and reap its rewards and benefits. The indifferents refuse to compete for organizational favors. "He sells his time for a certain number of hours and jealously guards the rest." The ambivalents find it difficult to get along with authority and cannot play the organizational game.

Argyris, supported by the empirical findings of Farris¹, and Porter, further illustrates a basic dilemma between the needs of individuals aspiring for psychological success and self-esteem and the demands of a pyramidal structure. Identifying the

¹Farris, G.F., "Congruency of Scientists' Motives with their Organizations Provisions for Satisfying them: Its Relationship to Motivation, Affective Job Experiences, Styles of Work, and Performance," Ann Arbor, University of Michigan, Department of Psychology, November, 1962. (Mimeographed).

²Porter, L.W., "Job Attitudes in Management: Perceived Deficiencies in Need Fulfillment as a Function of Job Level," <u>Journal of Applied Psychology</u>, Vol. 46 (December, 1962) 375-384.

basic needs to psychological success as those concerned with self-concept, a feeling of competance, self-awareness, self-esteem, and conformation, his position is stated in the form of several propositions: (1) There is a lack of congruence between the needs of individuals aspiring for success and the demands of the formal organization. Corollary: The disturbance will vary in proportion to the degree of incongruency between the needs of individuals and the requirements of the formal organization. (2) The resultants of this disturbance are frustration, failure, short-time perspective, and conflict and, (3) Under certain conditions the degree of frustration, failure and short-time perspective will tend to increase.

Porter's large study of 1916 persons, in five levels of management and across several types of organizations, supports Argyris' assumption that the probability to experience a sense of self-esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization tends to increase as one goes up the hierarchal ladder and tends to decrease as one goes down the line.

In other studies that relate behavior to organizational position, Gurin, Veroff, and Feld found that the higher up the organizational ladder and/or the greater the professionalism,

¹Gurin, G., Veroff, J., and Feld, S., Americans View their Mental Health, (New York: Basic Books, 1960) Chap.VI.

the higher the probability that people will report intrinsic work satisfaction. Kornhauser, 1 validates the dimensions for mental health as (1) an index of anxiety and emotional tension, (2) an index of hostility, (3) an index of social participation and friendly attitudes versus withdrawal, (4) an index of selfesteem, (5) an index of personal morale, and (6) an index of overall satisfaction with life. His findings report a consistent correlation with occupational hierarchy. The higher the level, the better the mental health. Kasl and French. 2 in a study of 6000 employees, found that the degree of stress, as determined by the number of dispensary visits, perceived monotony and dullness of one's job, and feelings of self-esteem, were also positively correlated to organizational status. Mann and Williams 3 report an interesting corollary, that while people generally respond favorably to increased responsibility in their work, more feelings of tension result. This suggests

¹Kornhauser, A., "Mental Health of Factory Workers: A Detroit Study," <u>Human Organization</u>, Vol. 21, No. I (Spring, 1962) 43-46.

²Kasl, S., and French, J.P., Jr., "The Effects of Occupational Status on Physical and Mental Health," <u>Journal of Social Issues</u>, Vol. XVIII, No. 3, (1962) Chap.III.

³Mann, F.C. and Williams, L.K., "Some Effects of the Changing Work Environment in the Office," in Sven Lundstedt (Ed.), Mental Health and the Work Environment, Foundation for Research on Human Behavior, (1962) 16-30. (Mimeographed).

that need-fulfillment and happiness are not necessarily related.

In professional organizations such as educational organizations, conflict between conventional bureaucratic authority and professional authority constitute a basic distinguishing feature. Two studies of public schools, one by Waller and the other by Gordon², point to the conflict teachers face between official procedures and the affective, personalistic components of teaching. Naegle and Wilson, 4 from a theoretical viewpoint, argue that since teaching is a form of socialization, the teacher must, in the nature of the process, interact affectively with students and develop particularistic relations with them. At the same time, his organizational and broader social obligation to produce competency, and the need for classroom order, impose on him the necessity to punish impartially and universally. The teacher is required to be both interested and disinterested, concerned and disengaged.

Waller, W., The Sociology of Teaching, (New York: Wiley, 1932).

²Gordon, C.W., <u>The Social System of the High School</u>, (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1957).

³Naegle, K.D., "Clergyman, Teachers, and Psychiatrists: A Study in Roles and Socialization," <u>Canadian Journal of Economics and Political Science</u>, 22, (1956) 46-62.

⁴Wilson, B.R., "The Teacher's Role: A Sociological Analysis," <u>British Journal of Sociology</u>, 13 (1962) 15-32.

The act of teaching is at once compatible and incompatible with the bureaucratic setting.

Corwin, 1 in a study of professional-employee tension in public schools, found that schools with higher professionalism rankings also had higher rates of conflict behavior existing between teachers and between teachers and administrators.

The findings of this study suggest that there is a consistent pattern of conflict between teachers and administrators over the control of work, and that professionalization is a militant process.

The interaction-influence system of an organization consists of those patterns of administrative behavior and dimensions of the administrative process which interacts with the dynamics of organization and people as the organization attempts to pursue its goals and influence its environment. Organizations in achieving goals are concerned with leadership behavior, group processes, and decision-making. These components are interdependent and permeate and stimulate the

¹Corwin, R., "Professional Persons in Public Organizations," <u>Educational Administration Quarterly</u>, 1 (1965) 1-22.

²Carter, F.D., and Sergiovanni, T.J. (ed), <u>Organizations and Human Behavior: Focus on Schools</u>, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1969) 283-284.

interchange which exists between individuals and organizations.

Halpin¹ and Gibb² present complimentary viewpoints of leadership behavior. Halpin identifies the two dimensions of leadership as concern for job (as measured by task effectiveness, goal achievement and concern for production) as contrasted to concern for people (as measured by interaction effectiveness, group maintenance, and concern for individuals). Through extensive use of his Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire, Halpin found that individuals who exhibited desirable leadership behavior achieved high scores on both task dimensions and person dimensions.

Gibb proposes leadership behavior is based upon the leader's concept of self. He argues that the prevalence of a given style orientation will depend largely upon the leader's feelings of openness and self-adequacy.

Fiedler suggests that effective leadership style depends upon the situation. He identifies three major dimensions that

Halpin, A.W. Theory and Research in Administration, (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966) 81-130.

²Gibb, J.R., "In Search of Leaders," American Association for Higher Education, (Washington, D.C.: N.E.A., 1967) 55-66.

³Fiedler, F.E., "Styles of Leadership," in <u>Current Perspectives in Social Psychology</u>, ed. E.Hollander and R.Hunt, (New York: Oxford University Press, 1967) 498-504.

determine the kind of leadership style called for by different situations as: the degree to which the group members like him and are willing to follow his guidance; the degree of structure present in the task; and the power associated with his position to hire, fire, promote, demote, tenure, etc. His research findings indicate that both the directive, managing, task-oriented leaders and the non-directive, human relations oriented leaders are successful under some conditions.

Generally, the more routinely the organization operates, the more directive the leadership, but when routines are no longer adequate, the task becomes ambiguous and unstructured, or planning and research are necessary, non-directive leadership is seen as superior.

The differences among the democratic, autocratic, and laissez faire climates as a function of style of leadership were specified in the famous experimental studies of White and Lippitt¹. Groups of boys in leisure-time activities were exposed to the three different group climates that were induced through the variable of leadership behavior. The democratic group climate produced more favorable responses on the part of the boys in terms of reduced aggression, more enjoyment

¹White, R.K., and Lippitt, R., <u>Autocracy and Democracy</u>, (New York: Harper, 1960).

the absence of scape-goating, and more imaginative productivity.

A study by Bowers and Seashore of seventy-eight sales offices, offers evidence that peer-leadership can make a substantial contribution to organizational success. They report that the total quantity of peer leadership is at least as great as the total quantity of supervisory leadership, and, with respect to the issue of relative potency, the peer leadership variables are at least as potent as supervisory leadership variables, and possibly more so, in predicting group achievement of goals. Very few studies are available that demonstrate peer-leadership effect (Coch and French, 1948).2 (Morse and Reimer, 1956), however, data gathered from companies employing the Scanlon plan (Lesieur, 1959), 4 strongly support its impact. Essentially, the Scanlon Plan is a unionmanagement cooperation plan of organization that operates on profit-sharing and a system of work improvement committees

Bowers, D.G., and Seashore, S.E., Peer Leadership within Work Groups. Paper read at International Congress of Applied Psychology, Ljubljana, Yugoslavia, August, 1964.

²Coch, L., and French, J.R., Jr., "Overcoming Resistance to Change," <u>Human Relations</u>, (1948) Vol. 1 (4), 512-532.

³Morse, N., and Reimer, E., "The Experimental Change of a Major Organizational Variable," <u>Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology</u>, Vol. 52 (1956) 120-129.

Lesieur, F., <u>The Scanlon Plan</u>, (Cambridge: Technology Press of M.I.T.).

that cross organizational levels. Where the plan has been introduced, its impact has often been very great, not only in efficiency, but on the nature of interpersonal relations between managers and workers and among workers themselves. In general, the direction of movement is toward greater responsibility by lower levels and greater sharing of responsibility by higher with lower groups in the hierarchy.

Leadership behavior has a regulatory effect on decision-making in an organization. Griffith's theoretically states, "The specific function of administration is to develop and regulate the decision-making process in the most effective manner. (An effective manner is one which results in the accomplishment of a stated objective)." Leadership styles will vary in the willingness to allow members to participate in decision making. For example, Parker reports that leadership varied with the needs of the group. Ross and Hendry also conclude that various leadership styles may be effective under different conditions. Directive leadership may lead to

¹Griffiths, D.E., <u>Administrative Theory</u>, (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1959) Chap. 5.

²Parker, T.C., "Relationships among Measures of Supervisory Behavior, Group Behavior, and Situational Characteristics," Personnel Psychology, Vol. 16 (1963) 319-344.

Ross, M.G., and Hendry, C., New Understandings of Leadership, (New York; Association Press, 1957) 47-72.

high productivity but low morale and poor commitment to work. Also larger groups seem to tolerate and use authoritarian leadership more effectively than small groups. French, Kay, and Meyer found that not all individuals will tend to react in the same manner to the various types of leadership. An increase in the degree of participation will tend to have favorable effects to the extent that, (a) the participants are high on the need for independence, and (b) they are low on a need for authoritarianism.

The key to types of organizational structure is an understanding of the decision-making processes. Griffiths? states, "A business organization does not differ primarily from a school organization in that one is a profit-making organization and the other is not; the difference resides in dissimilarities in the decision-making process." Livingston, using the term management as administration, concurs: "If we expend the concept of decision-making to include, on the one hand the process by which the decision is arrived at, and, on the other

Threat and Participation in an Industrial Performance Appraisal Program," <u>Behavioral Research Service Report</u>, General Electric Company (1962) 118-119.

²Griffiths, Administrative Theory, 78.

Rivingston, R.T., "The Theory of Organization and Management," Transactions of the A.S.M.E. (May, 1953) 659.

hand to include the process by which we implement or make the decision "work", and if we further recognize that this is a continuing, dynamic process rather than an occasional event, then decisioning means something quite different than heretofore, and becomes the basis of all managerial action." concept that organizations are built in terms of the way in which decisions are to be made is put to use by Dale in determining the degree of decentralization existing in an institution. "We may say that the degree of managerial decentralization in a company is greater: (1) The greater the number of decisions made lower down the management hierarchy. (2) The more important the decisions made lower down the management hierarchy. (3) The more functions affected by decisions made at lower levels. (4) The less checking required on the decision.

Many theorists are convinced that questions of commitment, involvement, consensus, unanimity, and motivation, the humanistic variables in decision-making, are best answered by increased participation across organizational lines. Leavitt²

¹Dale, E., <u>Planning and Developing the Company Organiza-tion Structure</u>, (New York: American Management Association, 1952) 107.

Leavitt, <u>Handbook of Organizations</u>, 1165.

summarizes this point of view: (a) Involvement in decisionmaking yields commitment to the decision, and since most decisions become meaningless in their execution unless they are
supported, commitment becomesanecessary condition for effective
decision-making. (b) It is useful to lower decision points
in an organization. (c) It is reasonable for groups to make
decisions; it is not necessary that decisions be made only by
individuals."

Much of the support for such a position are extrapolations from small group theory generalized to organizations.

Schneider calls "participation" one of the most prominent constructs in the group dynamics literature. Simon writes, significant changes in human behavior can be brought about rapidly only if the persons who are expected to change participate in deciding what the change shall be and how it shall be made. Studies by Radke and Klesurich with housewives have shown group decision-making to be more effective in changing

Schneider, L.A., "A Proposed Conceptual Integration of Group Dynamics and Group Therapy," <u>Journal of Social Psychology</u>, Vol. 42 (1955) 173-187.

²Simon, H.A., "Recent Advances in Organization Theory," in <u>Brookings Lectures</u>, Research Frontiers in Politics and Government (Washington, D.C.: Brookings, 1955) 28-29.

Radke, M.J., and Klesurich, D., "Experiments in Changing Food Habits," <u>Journal of American Diet Association</u>, Vol. 23 (1947) 403-409.

behavior and attitudes than such techniques as the use of lecture or individual instruction. A study by Hamblin, Miller, and Wiggins suggests the importance of the discussion leader in group decision-making. They noted that group decision-making led to high morale and this in turn was related positively to the "perceived competence" of the leader.

Golembiewski², in a plea for more research in the field, suggests two techniques, other than group decision-making as a means for increasing the degree of structural and style integration of small group with formal organization -- peer ratings and self-choice of work-team members. Based upon two studies of peer ratings Dugan (1953)³ and (Wherry and Fryer (1949) Golembiewski finds the rationale straight-forward: "the success of an individual as a supervisor in part will be determined by confidence his subordinates have in him; and organizational higher ups often are in a poor position to

Hamblin, R.S., Miller, K., and Wiggins, J.A., "Group Morale and Competence of the Leader." Sociometry, 24 (1961), 294-311.

²Golembiewski, R.T., "Small Groups and Large Organizations," <u>Handbook of Organizations</u>, ed. J. G. March (Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1965) 121-125.

³Dugan, R.D., "Comparison of Evaluation of B-29 Crews in Training and Combat," <u>Amer. Psychology</u>, 8 (1953) 343-444. (Abstract).

Wherry, R.J., and Fryer, D.H., "Buddy-ratings: Popularity Contest or Leadership Criteria?" Sociometry, 12,(1949)

judge. Consequently, other factors being equal, peer ratings prove more useful indicators of future success in an organization environment than choices of superiors." A limited study by VanZelst¹ of the sociometric choices of bricklayers as related to productivity, found that self-choice crews working on a housing project were happier, more productive, and resulted in a five per cent savings in total cost.

Homans views channels of communication inherent in the decision-making process. In the small group, communication flows naturally toward the leader, and he cannot do his job unless he is well informed in this way. Centralization implies lengthening the channels of communication in large organizations. Even in the small group the seeds of breakdown are latent in the emotional relation between leader and follower, and with every lengthening of channels of communication, the difficulties increase. Roethelsberger, building on Homans' view, points out that subordinates may filter the flow of information to superiors to protect their own position.

¹VanZelst, R.H., "Sociometrically Selected Work Teams Increase Productivity," <u>Personnel Psychology</u>, 5 (1952) 175-185.

²Homans, G.C., <u>The Human Group</u> (New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc., 1950) 461-462.

Roethelsberger, F.J., "The Foreman: Master and Victim of Double-talk," <u>Harvard Business Review</u>, XXIII (1945),283-498.

Consequently, it is not enough that good communication should exist between most neighboring positions in the communication lines. If only one link is weak, the flow of information from bottom to top will be impaired.

Communication characteristics, such as whether messages are formally prescribed or more informal in their origin may be related organizational characteristics, such as line and staff and level-in-hierarchy. A study by Zajonc and Wolfe found that "staff employees have wider formal communication contacts than line employees; within each function high hierarchal levels have wider formal communication contacts than low hierarchal levels."

Barnlund and Harland² in summarizing experimental work in small groups by a number of researchers state, "In general, the larger the status differential, the more restricted the channels of communication, the greater the tendency for information to flow from low to high status persons, and the more distorted the content of the messages."

¹Zajonc, R.B., and Wolfe, D.M., "Cognitive Consequences of a Person's Position in a Formal Organization." Tech. Report No. 23 (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, Institute for Social Research, Research Center for Group Dynamics, 1963).

²Barnlund, D.C. and Harland, C., "Propinquity and Prestige as Determinants of Communications Networks," <u>Sociometry</u>, 26 (1963) 467-479.

III. Perceptions and their Effects on Behavior.

Human interaction is one of the central themes of this In looking at phenomena of interaction, the processes study. of perception are of central importance. Perceptual psychologists have stated, as a basic axiom, that all behavior is a product of the perceptual field of the behaver at the moment of action. Perception, in turn depends upon the characteristics of the person himself and upon the information communicated to him, intentionally and unintentionally, in the situation. Tagiuri noted, a person's impressions of a situation including another person are a result of three major elements: situation, the other person, and the perceiver. other conditions of a less personalized nature that can and do mold interaction. They are inherent in the social system, its modal patterns of conduct, and in the general life style Specifically, these are concepts of status of the system. and role, and their relation to personality. All of these are considered in the review of the literature in this section.

In working toward a definition of perception, a study by Ittleson and Cantrel 2 lists the three major characteristics

¹Tagiuri, R., "Perceptual Sociometry: Introduction." In J.L. Moreno, et al. (eds.) <u>The Sociometry Reader</u> (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1960).

²Ittleson, W.H., and Cantrel, H., <u>Perception</u> (New York: Random House, 1954).

of human perception: (1) Perception can be studied only in terms of transactions, that is concrete individuals dealing with concrete situations. (2) Perception comes into the transaction from the unique personal behavioral center of the per-(3) Perception occurs as the perceiver creates his own psychological environment by identifying certain aspects of his own experience to an environment which he believes exists independent of his own experience. The term transaction carries a double implication, (1) that all parts of the situation enter into it as active participants, and (2) that they owe their very existence as encountered in the situation to this fact of active participation and do not appear as already existing entities merely interacting with each other without affecting their own identity. The concept of the personal behavior center has as its meaning the fact that the person enters into a transaction from his own unique position. study points out that each situation will be perceived differently by different individuals and that each individual will assume to be real that which he perceives. This supports Lewin's theory that personality and environment are not independent, since one defines the other one, environment is

Lewin, K., A Dynamic Theory of Personality (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1935) Chap. iii.

defined by the perception of the person.

Getzels, in his analysis of interpersonal relationships between subordinates and superordinates, differs from Lewin in that role and personality are treated as independent. Roles, as defined, is the environment defined in expectations of individuals in that role, and personality is defined by the role incumbents needs-disposition. He argues that the role expectations are the "givens" in the situation prior to any idiosyncratic role perceptions or role-behaviors of the actual role incumbents. Although the expectations may be misperceived or may serve only as points of departure for the actual role incumbents, the crucial significance of the expectations as "blueprints" for what should be done is not nullified.

That personality characteristics have an effect upon perception is stated by Murphy, "There is a rather bewildering mass of evidence, both clinical and experimental, relating to the ability to shut out of a clear awareness those stimuli which threaten us; some of these studies seem to indicate that,

¹ Getzels, J., "Administration as a Social Process," in The Planning of Change, Bennis, W., Benne, K.D., and Chin, R., eds. (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1961) 376-384.

²Murphy, G., "Knows and Unknowns in the Dynamics of Social Perception," in Sherif, M.A., and Wilson, M.O., eds., Group Relations at the Crossroads (New York: Harper, 1953) 148.

as vague awareness of a situation tends to become defined, we can arrest the process, so that sharp and explicit awareness does not follow; and perhaps that, after reaching this critical point and effecting this rejection, we actually demolish (repress?) what has begun to take place."

Research at the University of Kentucky points out that administrators who may perceive a problem and not be threatened have a personality structure which allows them to "accept their own worth and believe that other people are equally or more accepting of their worth." These confident administrators are contrasted to another type who constantly change or screen their perceptions. The personality structures of the latter are those who "accept themselves and believe that other people are less accepting of themselves."

Rogers, in his discussion of <u>selective perception</u> (the tendency for individuals to interpret a new idea in terms of their past experience and existing opinions) makes the important point that decisions are made by the individual on the basis of his perceptions, whether they are accurate or not.

¹Hopper, R.L., and Bills, R.E., "What's a Good Administrator Made Of?," <u>School Executive</u>, Vol. 74, No. 7 (March, 1955) 94.

²Rogers, E.M., <u>Diffusion of Innovations</u> (New York: The Free Press, 1962).

Kelley sees one of the most revealing facts about perception is that it is selective. Thus, he concludes that what the self takes in will suit individual purposes and fit into past experiences.

Combs² arranges perceptions in order of increasing meaning. He speaks of seeing, knowing; of understanding, belief, and conviction. The deeper, more personally significant the perception, the more likely it is to affect behavior. He further identifies four characteristics of the perceptual field which underlie behavior of adequate persons: (a) positive view of self, (b) identification with others, (c) openness to experience and acceptance, and (d) a rich and available perceptual field.

Contributions to the development of self and personality in terms of parts one plays in society were recognized by James in his distinction between the self as known (me) and the self as knower (I) and by Cooley in his notion of the

¹ Kelley, E.C., Education for What is Real, (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947).

²Combs, A.W., and Snygg, D., <u>Individual Behavior</u>: A <u>Perceptual Approach to Behavior</u>. Revised ed. (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1959).

³James, W., <u>Psychology: Briefer Course</u>. (New York: Henry Holt, 1892).

⁴Cooley, C.H., <u>Human Nature and Social Order</u>. (New York: Scribners', 1902 - Revised ed., 1922).

"looking glass self." Both realized that one's conceptions of self, derived, partly at least, from the ways others responded to him and that this in turn related to social expectancies. Cantril draws out the importance of "self" as a key to social relations in that it serves as an "anchor point" in perception. The self is important because what one "brings to the situation" is a primary basis for "what is out there."

With his strong educational background, Combs² sees learning as a function of meaning and that learning has not really occurred until some change has taken place in the learner's perceptual field. The fact that meanings lie inside the learner, they cannot be directly manipulated and controlled externally. This, he prescribes, is the basis of an educational philosophy in strong support of the school becoming a place where exploring and discovering meaning is the central activity.

If behavior of organization members is determined in part by their perceptions of the organizational environment,

Cantril, H., "Perception and Interpersonal Relations," American Journal of Psychiatry, 113 (1957) 119-127.

²Combs, A.W., "Personality Theory and Its Implication for Curriculum Development," in <u>Learning More About Learning</u>. (Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, a Department of the National Education Association, 1959) 5-20.

then behavior will be influenced by variations in the objects or events available to be perceived, that is, in stimuli. Arnoult describes a social stimulus as follows: (a) it may have motivational properties; (b) it is the occasion rather than the cause of a response; (c) it must frequently be defined in terms of the response it elicits; (d) it exists in the environment and not just in the receptors; (e) it can be a pattern or sequence of events; (f) its structure must often be inferred from the structure of the response which it elicits; and (g) it carries information about its source in the environment.

The emphasis of this section is on property (b) above and as such is concerned with organizational variations that bring about variation in the occasion of a response. Studies of interpersonal perception have indicated that social judgments are influenced by a number of properties of the perceived, including status, role, and visibility of the trait

¹Forehand, G., and Gilmer, B. von H., "Environmental Variation in Studies of Organizational Behavior, in <u>Readings</u> in Organization Theory: A Behavioral Approach, Hill and Egan, eds., (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1966) 621-623.

²Arnoult, M.D., "The Specification of a Social Stimulus," in <u>Stimulus Determinants of Behavior</u>, Sells, S.B., ed. (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1963).

to be judged.

There is evidence that perceptions are influenced by abilities, values, and personality traits of the perceiver and by his organizational role. March and Simon² found that individuals are expected to be differentially sensitive to organizational stimuli. They claim a positive relationship exists between success as an administrator and the ability to perceive subtle variations in standard operating procedures, sources of influence, and status, when this information is made available, informally, inaccurately, or not at all, rather than when disseminated systematically in bulletins and memos.

Other behavioral effects of variations are found in information transmission, and withholding information practices. Argyris³ found that regardless of the motivational and freedom of choice variables in a situation, some behaviors never occur because the stimuli that would elicit them are never presented.

Costello, T.W., and Zalkind, S.S., <u>Psychology in Administration</u>: A Research Orientation, (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963).

²March, J.G., and Simon, H.A., <u>Organizations</u> (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1959).

Argyris, C., <u>Interpersonal Competance and Organizational</u> <u>Effectiveness</u> (Homewood: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1962).

Summary

Section I of this review of the literature is concerned with theories and related analyses of contrasting organizational structures. Using Weber's classical analysis of a bureaucracy, as a point of departure other models are examined and characteristic elements noted. Organizations place themselves on a continuum based upon degree of control. There is general agreement that educational institutions are presently organized with highly bureaucratic tendencies. The literature supports the view that the structure of an organization will have important implications for the way in which the organization will function. Educational administrators should now be confronted with the task of formulating the type of organization most congruent to the attainment of educational goals and objectives.

Section II deals with the effect of organizational characteristics on the behavior of members of the organization. Elements such as size, specialization, authority, status, and power are viewed as to their psychological consequence. The literature suggests that self-actualization, awareness, self-esteem, and other endices of psychological success, are to a significant degree influenced by organizational characteristics.

Other conditions mentioned include the effects of leadership behavior, participative decision-making as opposed to authoritarianism, peer-group leadership and conflict.

Communication is reviewed in the context of its effect on decision-makers, and its relationship to status differential.

As in Section I, contrasting organizational structures are used as a reference for comparison. The literature implies that the organizational framework of educational institutions are in need of analyses to determine the degree of consonance that exists between the desired outcomes in terms of behaviors, and the ability of organizational structure to contribute to the achievement of desired results.

Section III presents a review of the literature of perception and its relationship to behavior. The literature supports the idea that what an individual will do on the basis of his own personal characteristics often lead to the conclusion that behavior depends upon the situation as perceived by that individual. Thus, if the behavior of organization members is determined in part by their perceptions of the organizational climate, variations will be influenced by variations in availability of events to be perceived.

The causal variables (structure, objectives, supervisory practices, etc.) interact with personality to produce

perceptions, and it is through perceptions that the relationship between causal and end-result variables are understood.

There is general agreement that the measurement of climate indirectly through the perception of the individuals involved is viable because such perceptions are based upon experience that is both more extensive and personal than those of outside observers.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Source of the Data.

The source of data for the study is composed of five randomly selected groups of individuals in the College of Education at Michigan State University. The five groups are:

- 1. 'iministrators of the College of Education, as operationally defined by the Office of the Provost of Michigan State University, that have been employed by the College as administrators for at least one calendar year prior to responding to the questionnaire.
- 2. Full time faculty members of the College of Education who devote over half of their professional time to graduate studies, and have been employed by the College for at least one calendar year prior to responding to the question-naire.
- 3. Full time faculty members of the College of Education who devote over half of their professional time to undergraduate studies, and have been employed by the College for at least one calendar year prior to responding to the questionnaire.

- 4. Graduate students enrolled in the College of Education, who have taken graduate courses for at least one year prior to the date of responding to the questionnaire.
- 5. Undergraduate students enrolled in the College for at least one year prior to the date of responding to the questionnaire and having achieved senior status.

The focus of this study is on the perceptions of these individuals as they view the organization of the College of Education. A requirement of one year's contact with the College of Education insures respondent's having sufficient background of information about the College of Education to respond to the questionnaire. Faculty members and students are identified by the amount of time spent devoted to undergraduate or graduate studies. Thus, their responses would be more clearly defined, and areas of mutual interest and mutual concern could be more easily identified.

The data for this study were gathered from three separate sets of questionnaires. The <u>faculty questionnaire</u> and the <u>student questionnaire</u> were developed by Dr. Rensis Likert, Director of the Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan. At the time of this study the administrator forms had not been completed. The <u>administrator questionnaire</u> was designed by the researcher from similar questionnaires

developed by Likert for analyses of public school administration.

Permission to use the questionnaires and to construct the third questionnaire was granted by Likert. The questionnaires have not been used prior to this study; therefore, statistical data of other studies are not available.

Samples of the Study

The five sample groups consist of administrators, graduate faculty, undergraduate faculty, graduate students, and undergraduate students. The participants of these groups were randomly selected from their respective populations which meet the criteria described earlier in <u>Source of the Data</u>. Nineteen administrators and thirty participants from each of the other four groups were in the original sample. Only six of the total sample did not participate for various reasons.

The administrators' sample was drawn from a population of twenty administrators. The faculty sample was drawn from the 306 full-time faculty members of the College of Education. Graduate students were selected from a population of about 4,000 graduate students enrolled in the College of Education during the winter term of 1970. Undergraduate students were

selected from a population of 500 students enrolled in Education 450 during the winter of 1970.

By randomly selecting the sample, it is possible to make statements about characteristics of interest generalized to the population of the College of Education. The limitations of time in contact with the College are set forth to insure sufficient background on the part of the respondents and add to the validity of the findings.

Additional demographic data for each of the sample groups is found in Table 3.1 through Table 3.7, which follow.

TABLE 3.1
Percentage of Participants Completing Questionnaire

No.Asked to complete Questionnaire	No. who completed the Questionnaire	Percentage
19	17	89
30	20	97
30	29	71
30	29	97
30	29	97
30		97
139	133	
	complete Questionnaire 19 30 30 30	complete Questionnaire completed the Questionnaire 19 17 30 29 30 29 30 29 30 29

Percentage of participants completing the questionnaire = 95.6.

TABLE 3.2

Participants of this Study Categorized by Major Department

	No.of Admin.	No.of Grad. Fac.	No.of Under- grad. Fac.	No.of Grad. Students	No.of Under- grad. Students	<u>Total</u>
1. Admini- stration & Higher Ed.	3	9	0	4	0	16
2. Counsel- ing, Person- nel Services and Educ.	,		1		0	16
Psychology 3. Elem. and	1	8	1	6	0	16
Spec. Educ. 4. Health,	0	1	11	11	9	32
Physical Ed. and Recrea- tion	1	0	7	0	1	9
5. Secondary Educ. and Curriculum	1	8	1	5	6	21
6. Faculty i Student Teaching		0	3	0	0	4
7. Faculty in Teacher Education	2	0	2	2	0	6
8. Institute for Inter- national Studies	1	0	0	0	0	1

TABLE 3.2 continued

	lo.of	No.of Grad. Fac.	No.of Under- grad. Fac.	No.of Grad. Students	No.of Under- grad. Students	Total
9. Science						
and Math						
Teaching	_	_	_	_		_
Center	0	2	0	1	4	7
10. Human						
Learning						
Research	^	•	0	0	^	•
Institute	0	0	0	0	0	0
11. Learning						
Systems Insti		_			_	
tute	0	1	0	0	0	1
12. Mott						
Institute for	•					
Community	_	_		_	_	_
Improvement	0	0	3	0	0	3
13. Social						
Science Teach						
ing Institute	: 1	0	0	0	6	7
14. Humanitie	8					
Teaching Inst	.1	0	0	0	2	3
15. Admini-						
strators of						
the College						
of Educ.	4	0	0	0	0	4
16. Not					· <u>·············</u>	
Specified	1	0	1	0	1	3
Totals	17	29	29	29	29	133

TABLE 3.3

Demographic Characteristics of Administrators
Participating in this Study

		Under 30	30-39	40-49	50-59	60+
a.	Age	0	2	7	3	5
		Male	Female_			
ь.	Sex	17	0			
		Instr.	Asst.Prof.	Assoc	.Prof.	Professor
c.	Rank	0	2	2		13
		Tenured Faculty	Not Tenure but Subject to Tenure Rules	Appoi	ntment no Rules of	ot Subject Tenure
d.	Tenure Status	16	1		0	
		Teaching	Research	Service	Admir	istration
gre of sio	Ares to ch the ster part profes-nal time devoted.	1	1	4		11
		B.A.	M.A.	Ph.D. o	r Ed.D.	
f.	Highest degree awarded	1	1	1:	5	

TABLE 3.3 continued

	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-2	0 21-2	5 25+	
g. No. of years since highest de-gree was awarded.	3	1	4	5	2	2	
	<u>0-5</u>	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	Not specifi	<u>ed</u>
h. No. of years employed by M.S.U.	4	2	5	2	3	1	
	On campus Off campus					divided	
i. Location of most work 13 load.		13	1		3		
	Do t	each	Do not t	each			
j. No. of administrators who also teach.		14	3				
Undergraduates Graduate					Equal	ly divided	
k. If yes to "j", group of students for which primarily responsible.		1		12		1	

75 **TABLE** 3.4

Demographic Characteristics of Faculty Members
Who Devote the Greater Part of Their
Professional Time to Graduate Studies
(Graduate Faculty) Participating
in this Study.

		Under 30	30-39	40-49	50-59	60+
a.	Age	2	7	12	5	3
		Male	Female			
b.	Sex	29	0			
		Instructo	or Asst.Prof.	Assoc.P	rof. Pro	fessor
c.	Rank	1	2	11		15
		Tenured Faculty	•		ment not Si les of Teni	
d.	Tenure Status	25	3		1	
		Teaching	Resear	ch	Service	2
gre of sic	Area to the eater par profes-onal time devoted.	t 22	3		4	
		B,A,	M.A.	Ph.D.	or Ed.D.	
f.	Highest degree awarded	1	0		28	

TABLE 3.4 continued

	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-24	25+	Specified
<pre>g. No. of years since highest de- gree was awarded.</pre>	8	4	8	4	1	1	3
	0-5	6-10	11-19	16-	20 2	1-25	Not Specified
h. No. of years em- ployed by M.S.U.	12	5	7		1	2	2
	On c	ampus		Off c	ampus	Eq	uælly divided
 Location of most work load. 		22		<u>.</u>	1		6

TABLE 3.5

Demographic Characteristics of Faculty Members Who Devote the Greater Part of Their Professional Time to Undergraduate Studies (Undergraduate Faculty) Participating in this Study.

		Under 30	30-39	40-49	50-59	60+	Not S	pecified
a.	Age	1	14	7	2	4		1
		Male_	Female					
ь.	Sex	22	7	<u> </u>				
		Instructo	or Ass	t.Prof.	Asso	c.Prof	F. P	rofessor
c.	Rank	9		10		5		5
		Tenured Faculty	Not Ten Subject Tenure	to		intmer Tenur		Subject es
d.	Tenure Status	13	8				8	
		Teaching		Resea	rch		Servi	ce
vot gre of	Area to ch is de- ed the ater part profes- nal time.	: 15		1	· *** ********************************		13	
	•••	B,A,	M.	۸.	Ph	.D. or	Ed.D	•
f.	Highest degree awarded	1	·	15		13) 	

TABLE 3.5 continued

	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-24	25+
<pre>g. No. of years since highest de- gree was awarded.</pre>	11	5	6	4	1	2
	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	26+
h. No. of years employed by M.S.U.	18	2	5	1	1	2
	On can	pus	Off cam	pus	Equally	Divided
i. Location of most work load.	22		5		2	

79 TABLE 3.6

Demographic Characteristics of Graduate Students Participating in this Study.

	Under 25	26-:	30	31-35	35+
a. Age	9	8		6	6
	Male	<u>Pemale</u>			
b. Sex	16	13			
	Full-time	Pa	ert-time		
c. No. of full-time students.	21		8		
	Employed	No	ot employ	<u>ed</u>	
d. No. of students employed by M.S.U.	11		18		
_	Graduate As	sistant	Instru	ctor	Fellowships
e. Type of Employment	8		2		1
f. Location	On campus	O:	ff campus		
of most course work taken on present pro-	26		3		
gram.			<u></u>		
	Masters	De	octoral		
		Do	octoral 15		

TABLE 3.6 continued

	1 yr.	2 yrs.	3 yrs.	4 yrs.	5 yrs.	6 yrs.
h. No. of years spent on current program.	6	12	8	2	0	1
	1970	1971	1972			
i. Year of anticipated completion of degree program.	18	9	2			

TABLE 3.7

Demographic Characteristics of Undergraduate Students Participating in this Study.

	Under 25	26-20	31-35	35+
a. Age	27	2	0	0
	Male	Female		
b. Sex	10	19		
a No of	Full-time	Part-time		
c. No. of full-time students.	28	1		
	Employed	Not employ	<u>ed</u>	
d. No. of students employed by M.S.U.	- 7	22		
	Graduate Assistant	Laboratory Assistant	Fellowships	Work not related to College
e. Type of Employment	1	1	0	5
f. Location	On campus	Off ca	mpus	
of most work on present program.	. 29 	0		
	Bachelor's	Degree Ma	ster's Degree	
g. Degree working toward.	29		0	

TABLE 3.7 continued

	1 yr.	2 yrs.	3 yrs.	4 yrs,	5 yrs.
h. No. of years spent on current program.	0	3	3	21	2
	1970	1971	1972		
 Year of anticipated completion of degree program. 	29				

Instrumentation

Each questionnaire is a graphic rating scale on which each respondent is asked to rate the College of Education at Michigan State University on each of six organizational variables. The variables are identified by Likert, and supported by other scholars in the field, as being essential processes present in all organizations. The organizational variables are:

(1) Leadership processes, (2) Character of motivational forces,

(3) Character of communication processes, (4) Character of interaction-influence processes, (5) Character of decision-making processes, and (6) Character of goal-setting processes.

(See definition of key terms pp.15-18).

Each set of questionnaires is identical to each of the other two sets in form (type of rating scale), but are not identical in the selection of items used. Likert, however, has identified characteristic elements in a definition of each variable. Items on each questionnaire were assigned to one or more of the characteristic elements and these elements, in turn were assigned to one or more of the six organizational variables.

A list of each organizational variable with the characteristic elements and items that contribute to that variable, are found elsewhere in this chapter.

The organizational variables used in this study, and the characteristic elements and items from the three sets of questionnaires assigned to each variable.

Listed below are the six organizational variables considered in this study, and the characteristic elements and items assigned to each variable. Scores on each variable for each of the five groups were computed as described in Treat-ment of the Data, found elsewhere in this chapter. See also Definition of key terms found in Chapter I, p. 15-18.

- Let A = item numbers selected from the <u>Administrator's</u>

 Questionnaire.
 - F = item numbers selected from the <u>Faculty Question</u>naire.
 - S = item numbers selected from the <u>Student Question</u>-naire.

Data Set I

Leadership Process Variable

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

A - 5

F - 3

S - --

Samples of the Questionnaires are found in the Appendix.

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

A - 34

F - 28, 29

S - 22, 23

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

A - 35

F - 42, 43

S - 24, 25

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

A - 6

F - 4

S - --

(e) extent to which superiors try to exhibit friendly and supportive behavior toward subordinates.

A - 3, 4

F - 2, 5, 8, 9, 10

S - --

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

A - 33

F - 26, 27

S - 1

(g) extent to which superiors perceive their behavior toward subordinates as warm and supportive.

A - 1, 2

F - 1

s - --

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

A - 39

F - --

S - 3, 4

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

A - 40

F - 10

S - 2

(j) extent to which superiors perceive that subordinates feel free to talk to them about academic matters.

A - 7

F - 6

S - --

(k) extent to which superiors perceive that subordinates feel free to talk to them about non-academic matters.

A - 8, 9

F - 7

S - --

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

A - 36

F - 51

S - 26

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

A - 37, 38

F - 51

S - 27

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

A - 10, 12, 41

F - 8, 30, 33, 38

S - 10, 14

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

A - 11, 13, 42, 43

F - 9, 31, 32, 34, 35, 39

s - 11, 15

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

A - --

F - 5, 40

S - 5, 7

Motivational Porces Variable

(a) extent to which superiors perceive that subordinates work cooperatively.

A - 27

F - 21

S - --

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

A - 49

F - 21, 50

S - 36

(c) extent to which superiors perceive subordinates as liking the College as a place to work or go to school.

A - 18

F - 14

S - --

(d) extent to which individuals like the College as a place to work or go to school.

A - 50

F - 41

S - 37

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

A - --

F - --

S - 6

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

A - 55

F - 57

S - 40

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

A - 30

F - 24

S - 35

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

A - 52

F - 53

S - 32

Communication Process Variable

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

A - 23

F - 19, 10

S - --

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

A - 47

F - 46, 45

S - 8, 9

(c) extent to which upward communication is accurate.

A - 22, 46

F - 15, 44

S - 28

(d) extent to which superiors see the direction of information as one-way or two about academic matters (down, up, or laterally).

A - 19, 44

F - --

S - --

(e) extent to which superiors see the direction of information as one way or two way about non-academic matters (down, up, or laterally).

A - 20, 44

F - --

S - --

(f) extent to which superiors see subordinates accepting communication from superiors (from suspiciously to accepted).

A - 21

F - 16, 17, 18

S - --

(g) extent to which subordinates accept communications from superiors (from suspiciously to accepted).

A - 45

F - 42, 43

S - 29, 30

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

A - --

F - 51

S - 38

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

A - 10, 12, 41

F - 8, 30, 33

s - 10, 14

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

A - 11, 13, 42, 43

F - 9, 31, 32, 34, 35

s - 11, 15

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

A - 53

F - 52

S - 32

Character of Interaction-Influence Process Variable

(a) extent of influence superiors felt that subordinates have in decisions related to their work.

A - --

F - 22

S - --

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

A - --

F - --

S - 33

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

A - 24, 25, 26, 48

F - 20, 47, 48, 49

S - 31

(d) extent of influence superiors feel that subordinates should have in making decisions related to their work.

A - --

F - 23

S - --

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

A - --

F - --

S - 34

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

A - 30

F - 24, 54

S - 35

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

A - 44, 36, 37, 38

F - 30, 33

s - 10, 14, 31, 32, 33, 26

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

A - 42, 43, 37, 38

F - 31, 32, 34, 35

S - 11, 15, 31, 32, 27

(i) extent to which members perceive cooperative teamwork present.

A - 49

F - 21, 50

S - 36

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

A - 52

F - 53

S - 32, 33

Character of Decision-Making Variable

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

A - 14, 16

F - 11

S - 12, 16

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

A - --

F - 36

S - 18, 20

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

A - 15, 17

F - 12

S - 13, 17

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

A - --

F - 37

S - 19, 21

(e) extent to which superiors see subordinates as being involved in major decisions related to their work.

A - 29

F - 13

S - --

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

A - 52

F - 53

S - 32, 33

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

A - 28, 51, 53

F - 52

S - 33, 32

(h) extent to which superiors feel that involving subordinates in decision-making contributes to higher performance.

A - 30

F - 25, 55

S - --

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

A - 47

F - 46, 45

S - 8, 9

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

A - 53

F - 52

S - 32

(k) extent to which upward communications are accurate.

A - 22, 46

F - 15, 44

S - 28

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

A - 10, 12, 41

F - 8, 30, 33

S - 10, 14

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

A - 11, 13, 42, 43

F - 9, 31, 32, 34, 35

s - 11, 15

Goal Setting Variable

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

A - 31, 54

F - 56

S - 39

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

A - 32, 55

F - 57

S - 40

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

A - 56

F - 58

S - 41

(d) extent of ordering in decision-making.

A - 53, 49

F - 52

Data Set 2

This Data Set contains the following characteristic elements that consist of items across all of the five groups as described for Data Set 1:

- Leadership Process Variable elements b, c, f, i, 1, m, n, and o.
- Motivational Forces Variable elements b, d, f, g, and h.
- Communication Process Variable elements b, c, g, i, j, and k.
- Interaction-Influence Variable elements c, f, g, h, i, and j.
- Decision-Making Variable elements a, c, f, g, i, j, k, l, and m.
- Goal Setting Variable elements a, b, and c.

Treatment of the Data

In order to answer the basic questions of this study in the section entitled, Questions to be Answered, the following approach was used:

Likert identifies four general types of organizations, each with identifiable characteristics, on a continuum of from <u>least effective (System 1) through most effective (System 4).</u>
Each questionnaire item is accompanied by a horizontal line divided into twenty segments by short vertical marks. Five segments are located directly under each of the above described systems, for a total of twenty segments in all.

By assigning a value of one through twenty to each segment, scores were computed for each of the participants on each item. Items were assigned to one or more characteristic elements.

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

The standard deviation of the mean element responses of the individuals were calculated to weight the contribution of each characteristic element to the core of the variable for each individual. The weighting was accomplished by dividing the individual's mean element score by the standard deviation of the element.

The individual's score on a variable was then the mean of these weighted means.

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

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

n = the number of items in element j.

N = the number of individuals.

m = the number of characteristic elements per variable.

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

 $\bar{x}_j = \frac{\sum x_i}{n}$

Calculate the mean of the element across all individuals: $\overline{X}_{i} = \overline{X}_{i}$

Calculate standard deviation of each element:

$$s_{\overline{x}_{j}} = \frac{\sum_{(\overline{X}_{j} - \overline{X}_{*})}^{2}}{N-1}$$

Then each individual's score on a variable =

$$\sum_{j} \frac{\overline{x}_{j}}{s (M)}$$

Missing data were treated in two distinct ways:

- (1) Only subjects with complete data were included in one analysis of the data.
- (2) Only variables with complete data were included in the other analysis of the data.

Missing data on variable scores and individuals occured only within variable six, the goal-setting variable. Data considered in all of the treatments where variable scores were incomplete, were calculated without the inclusion of this variable.

There were two sets of data that were treated. <u>Data Set I</u> included all of the characteristic elements on each variable whether or not they included contributing items across all five groups. <u>Data Set 2</u> included only those characteristic elements which contained items across all five groups. Both sets of data were analyzed separately. This was done because a number of items were not identical for all three questionnaires. The high degree of similarity in the findings of both Data Set 1 and Data Set 2 indicate that they are parallel, and increase the validity of the findings. Data Set 1 and Data Set 2 are further described in the <u>Instrumentation</u> section of this chapter.

Analysis of the data was done in three steps: First, Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance technique was applied to each of the five groups to determine the extent to which there was within group agreement. A significant value of the coefficient of concordance, W, is interpreted as meaning that the members of each group are applying the same standard in ranking the variables under study. A significant value of W does not mean that the ordering of the variables is correct, only the extent of agreement. A W value of 1.0 would be perfect agreement and a value of 0.0 would be perfect disagreement.

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

 $x^2 = k(N-1)W$ with d.f.=N-1 where,

k = the number of subjects within a group

N = the number of organizational variables

The implied null hypothesis is that the ratings by the subjects within each group are unrelated. The Kendall technique also yields a rank order consensus of each variable within each group. These results indicate the tendency of the group to agree on the value score on a variable, and does not represent a value judgment attached to the ranking. The findings suggested a high degree of agreement within all five

groups in both Data Set 1 and Data Set 2, using both methods of handling missing data described earlier in this section.

Second, this being the case, a three-way analysis of variance for repeated measures design was applied to individual scores so that inferences pertaining to the significance of differences between group means could be established.

Thirdly, since there were significant differences between groups, the Scheffe-type post hoc comparison technique was used to determine in which ways the groups differed.

In this way, a composite profile of the organization of the College of Education as perceived by the five groups based upon the defined variables was ascertained. By an analysis of the data, the findings of the study will serve as a source of information about the organizational climate of the College of Education. This information can be used by the College in determining whether or not the organizational climate is a desirable one or not, and if not, it will identify those areas in need of attention.

The results of the findings of this study are discussed in detail in Chapter IV.

Collection of the Data

During the month of February, 1970, each participant in the study was contacted personally by the researcher. After the purpose of the study was explained, each participant was given a copy of the instructions, (See Appendix) and a questionnaire to complete. The researcher collected the questionnaires within a period of two weeks.

The rights of anonymity of the respondents were respected and the names of the participants are known only to the researcher.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

The statistical analysis of all data for this study were done at the Computer Center at Michigan State University. Three separate techniques were used in analyzing the data;

1) the Kendall Coefficient of Concordance, 2) a three-way analysis of variance for repeated measures, and 3) a Scheffepost hoc comparison. The findings of each technique are presented in table form as each of the Questions to be Answered by this study is presented

I. Analysis of the Data

The first four questions in the Questions to be Answered section of Chapter I, focus upon finding the extent of agreement and/or disagreement within each of five groups; Administrators, Graduate Faculty, Undergraduate Faculty, Graduate Students, and Undergraduate Students, as to their perceptions of the state of the organization of the College of Education at Michigan State University.

Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance Technique was applied to each of the five groups for both Data Set 1 and Data Set 2, and two methods of treating missing data as described in Treat-ment of the Data in Chapter III. This technique was used to ascertain the extent of over-all agreement within each group across all the organizational variables tested.

As can be seen by examining Table 4.1 and Table 4.2, the implied null hypothesis the subject's ratings of the organizational variables within each group is unrelated, is rejected at the .001 level of significance. This is true regardless of the data set or missing data procedure tested. Thus, the conclusion is reached that there is a strong agreement of perception within each of the five groups about the organizational climate of the College of Education.

Since there was strong within group agreement, a three-way analysis of variance for repeated measures technique was applied to all data. The results of this technique as seen in Table 4.3 show differences existing between groups and across all variables at the .01 level of significance.

Table 4.4 is a graphic representation of the mean variable scores for each group, calculated for each of the four treatments. The graphs present a composite profile of the College, showing the relationship of each group on each variable.

This overview locates each group's perceptions of the organization of the college on a continuum from authoritarian to participative as defined by Likert in Chapter I. The higher the variable mean score for a group, the higher that group ranks the College as a participative organization.

A Scheffe post hoc comparison was then done to more specifically identify significant differences existing between various combinations of groups on each variable.

Table 6 in the Appendix represents the values of the difference in mean scores between specific groups as calculated for the $\hat{\mathbf{Y}}$ statistic of the Scheffe test. Levels of significance for each variable are also noted.

TABLE 4.1

KENDALL'S COEFFICIENT OF CONCORDANCE (All Subjects with Complete Data)

ADMINISTRATORS (N-17) (V-6)

Data Set I

	Leader- ship Process	Motiva- tional Forces	Communi- cation	Inter- action Influence	Decision Making	Goal Setting
Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6
Consensus of Rank	4	5	2	1	3	6
	W = 0.86	52	$x^2 = 73.54$	*	df = 5	
		Dat	a Set 2			
Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6
Consensus of Rank	4	5	2	1	33	6
	W = 0.87	42	$x^2 = 74.31$	*	df = 5	
	GRA	DUATE FAC	<u>ULTY</u> (N-29) (V = 6)		
		Dat	a Set 1			
Variable	1	2	3	44	5	6
Consensus of Rank	6	4	5	2	3	11
	W = 0.64	99	$X^2 = 94.24$	*	df = 5	
		Dat	a Set 2			
Variable	1	22	3	4	5	6
Consensus of Rank	6	4	3	5	11	2
	W = 0.37	64	$x^2 = 50.81$	*	df = 5	

^{*}Significant at the .001 level.

TABLE 4.1 (continued)

UNDERGRADUATE FACULTY (N = 29) (V = 6)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6
Consensus of Rank	5	6	1	3	2	4
	W = 0.4142		$x^2 = 60.06*$		df = 5	
		<u>Da</u>	ata Set 2			
Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6_
Consensus of Rank	1	6	3	4	2	5
	W = 0.6626		$x^2 = 96.08*$		df = 5	
	GRADUAT		DENTS (N = 24)	(V =	6)	
Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6
Consensus of Rank	1	2	4	3	5	_6_
	W = 0.3687		$x^2 = 44.24*$		df = 5	
		Da	ata Set 2			
Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6_
Consensus of Rank	2	4	5	3	1	6
	W = 0.4395		$x^2 = 54.94*$		df = 5	

^{*}Significant at the .001 level.

TABLE 4.1 (continued)

UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS (N = 25) (V = 6)

Variable	1	2	33	4	5	6
Consensus of Rank	1	3	2	4	5	6
	W = 0.5381		$x^2 = 67.26*$		df = 5	
		<u>D</u> .	ata Set 2			
Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6_
Consensus of Rank	2	4	3	5	1	6_
	W - 0.4496		$x^2 = 56.20*$		df = 5	

^{*}Significant at the .001 level.

TABLE 4.2

ALL SUBJECTS WITH COMPLETE VARIABLE SCORES

ADMINISTRATORS (N = 17) (V = 5)

	Leader ship Process	Motiva- tional Forces	Communi- cation	Inter- action Influence	Decision Making
Variable	1	2	3	4	5
Consensus of Rank	$\frac{4}{W = 0.8796}$	5	$\frac{2}{x^2 = 59.81*}$	1	<u>3</u>
Variable	1		Set 2 3	4	5
Consensus of Rank	4	5	2	11	3
	W = 0.8256 GRADUA	re faculi	$x^2 = 56.81*$ $\frac{CY}{A} = 29$ ($\frac{CY}{A} = \frac{1}{2}$		= 4
Variable	1	2	3	4	5
Consensus of Rank	$\frac{5}{W = 0.648}$	3	$\frac{4}{x^2 - 75.23*}$	1	2 = 4
	w - 0.048.	Data	Set 2		·
Variable		2	3	4	5
Consensus of Rank	5	3	2	4	11
	W = 0.445	7)	$x^2 = 51.70*$	df	= 4

^{*}Significant at the .001 level.

TABLE 4.2 (continued)

UNDERGRADUATE FACULTY (N = 29) (V = 5)

Variable	1		33	4	5
Consensus of Rank	4	5	1	3	22
	W = 0.4832		$x^2 = 56.05*$	df	= 4
		Data	Set 2		
Variable	1	2	3	4	5
Consensus of Rank	1.5	5	3	4	1.5
	W = 0.7851	-	$x^2 = 91.07$	df	= 4
		Data	Set 1		
Variable	1	2	3	4	5
Consensus of Rank	1	2	4	3	5
	W = 0.1945	•	$x^2 = 22.56*$	df	= 4
		Data	Set 2		
Variable	1	2	3	4	5
Consensus of Rank	2	4	5	3	1
	W = 0.3803		$x^2 = 44.11*$	df	= 4

^{*}significant at the .001 level.

TABLE 4.2 (continued)

UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS (N = 29) (V = 5)

Data Set 1

Variable	1	2	3	4	5
Consensus of Rank	1	3 _ 2		4	55
	W = 0.4423		$x^2 = 39.03*$		df = 4
		<u>Da</u>	ta Set 2		
Variable	11	2	3	4	5
Consensus of Rank	33	4	_ 2	5	1
	W = 0.3365		$x^2 = 39.03*$		df = 4

*Significant at the .001 level.

TABLE 4.3

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE (All Subjects with Complete Data)

Source	Sums of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F
Groups	1083.0909	4	270.7727	181.06*(4,119)**
S:G	177.9528	119	1,4954	
Repeated Measures	31.6766	5	6.3353	43,138*(4,119)**
RG	162.7472	_20	8.1374	55.410*(4,119)**
RS:G	87.3853	595	.1469_	
Total	1542.853	743	2.0765	

^{*}Significant at the .01 level.

^{**}Conservative estimates of d.f. not requiring the off diagonal elements of repeated measures by repeated measures intercorrelation matrix being equal.

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TABLE 4.3 (continued)

Data Set 2

Source	Sums of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	<u> </u>
Groups	937.8326	4	234.4581	117.50*(4,119)**
S:G	235.4411	119	1.9953	
Repeated Measures	83.3578	5	16.6716	90.94*(4,119)**
RG	120.1947	20	6.010	32.78*(4,119)**
RS:G	108.1576	590	.1833	
Total_	1484.9838	737	2.0149	

TABLE 4.4

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE (All Subjects with Complete Variable Scores)

Source	Sums of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	<u>F</u>
Groups	977.1036	4	244.2759	174.28*(4,128)**
S:G	179.4089	128	1.4016	
Repeated Measures	20.1778	4	5,0445	52,63*(4,512)**
RG	100.9271	16	6.3079	65.81*(16,512)**
RS:G	49.0775	512	.0959	
Total	1326,6950	664	1.9980	

^{*}Significant at the .01 level.

^{**}Conservative estimates of d.f. not requiring the off diagonal elements of repeated measures by repeated measures intercorrelation matrix being equal.

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TABLE 4.4 (continued)

Source	Sums of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F
Groups	785,0771	4	196.2693	108,56*(4,128)**
S:G	231.3993	128	1.8078	
Repeated Measures	41.3052	4	10.3263	97,69*(4,512)**
RG	74,4364	16	4.6523	44.01*(16,512)**
RS:G	54.1227	512	.1057	
Total	1186.3408	664	1.7867	

^{*}Significant at the .01 level.

^{**}Conservative estimates of d.f. not requiring the off diagonal elements of repeated measures by repeated measures intercorrelation matrix being equal.

ON MEANS FOR GROUPS ON EACH VARIABLE

KEY

Administrators

Graduate Faculty

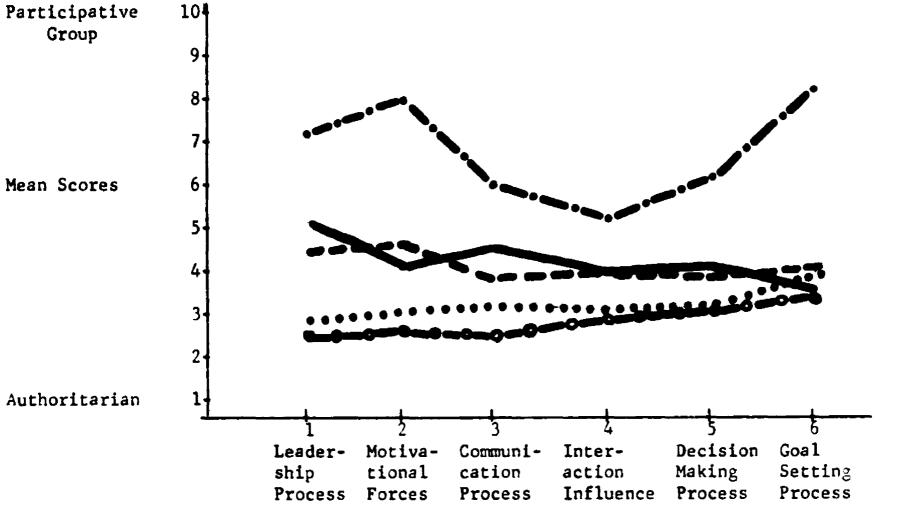
Undergraduate Faculty

Graduate Students

Undergraduate Students

TABLE 4.5

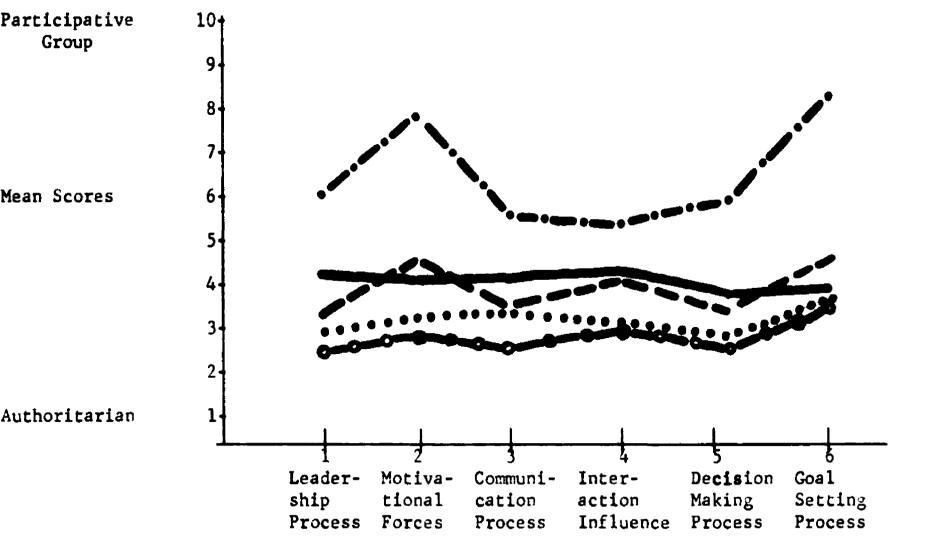
<u>Data Set 1</u>
(All Subjects with Complete Data)



Variables

TABLE 4.5 (continued)

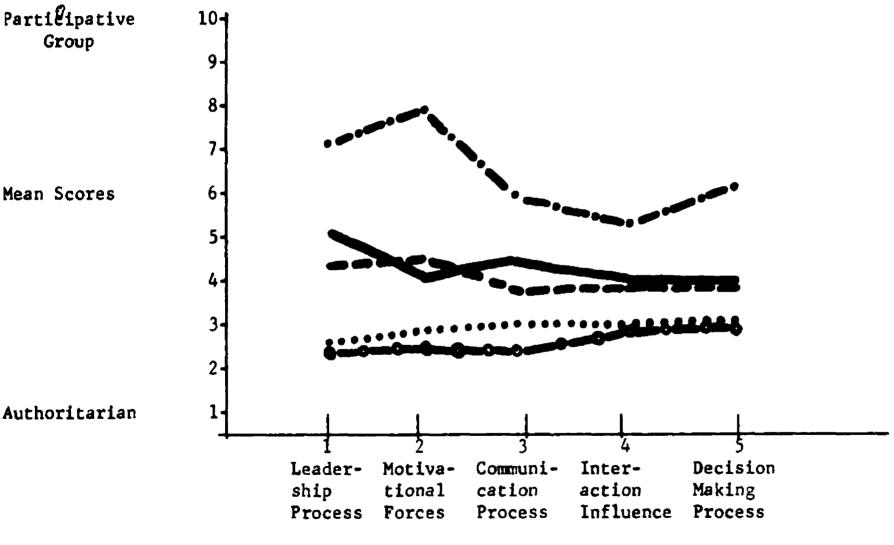
<u>Data Set 2</u>
(All Subjects with Complete Data)



Variables

TABLE 4.6

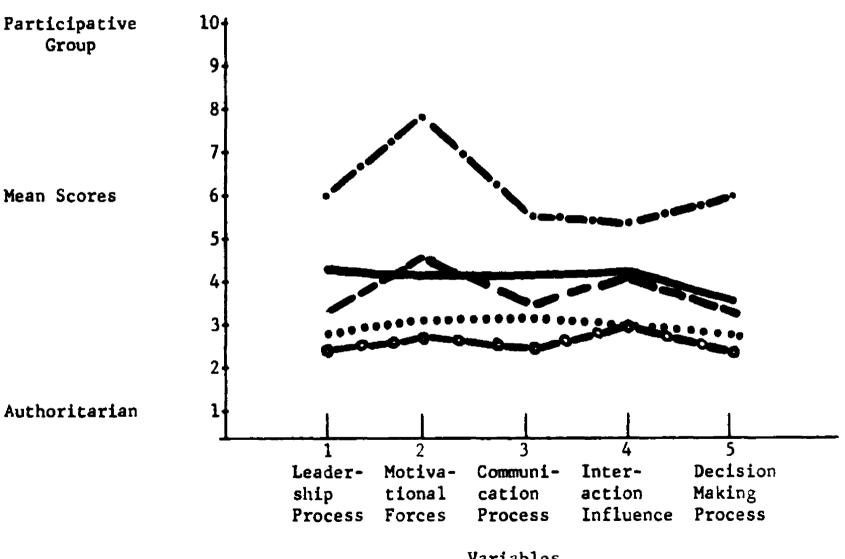
<u>Data Set 1</u>
(All Subjects with Complete Variable Scores)



Variables

TABLE 4.6 (continued)

Data Set 2 (All Subjects with Complete Variable Scores)



Variables

II. Interpretation of the Data

The literature on organizations supports the theory that individual accommodation is strongly influenced by the social setting in which interpersonal relations occur. In this context, it is not surprising to find that the Administrators show a higher degree of within-group agreement than any other group. Equally predictable are the findings that show less agreement within both Student Groups. Specifically, the size of populations from which each group was selected is a factor. Differences in the extent of agreement between the groups increase as opportunities for face-to-face contact decrease. A comparison on the W statistic is found in Table 4.7.

As a group, the Administrators are representative of the smallest population and have more opportunity to interact with each other. The possibility also exists that their appointments to administrative positions were based in part on the tendency to view the College of Education in a manner similar to those who made the appointments.

The Graduate Faculty and Undergraduate Faculty groups were next highest in agreement within their respective groups. These groups represent the second largest populations, with greater variations in academic interests, tenure, rank, and appointment procedures. Departmentalization and physical

TABLE 4.7

COMPARISON OF THE W STATISTIC

Adminis	trators	
	Data Set 1	<u>Data Set 2</u>
Subject with complete data	0.8652	0.8742
All subjects with complete		
variable scores	0.8796	0.8256
Graduate	Faculty	
	Data Set 1	Data Set 2
Subject with complete data	0.6499	0.3764
All subjects with complete		
variable scores	0.6485	0.4457
<u> </u>		
Undergradua	ate Faculty	
 	Data Set 1	<u>Data Set 2</u>
Subject with complete data	0.4142	0.6626
All subjects with complete		
variable scores	0.4832	0.7851
	a . •	
Graduate	Students	
	<u>Data Set 1</u>	<u>Data Set 2</u>
Subject with complete data	0.3687	0.4395
All subjects with complete		
variable scores	0.1954	0.3803
	<u> </u>	
<u>Undergradua</u>		
	Data Set 1	Data Set 2
Subject with complete data	0.5381	0.4496
All subjects with complete		<u> </u>
variable scores	0.4423	0.3365

location are also seen as contributing factors to a lower degree of agreement. The Graduate Faculty were in greater agreement than the Undergraduate Faculty on Data Set 1 and the reverse was true when Data Set 2 was considered. The Under-graduate Faculty tended to agree more when the Goal-Setting Variable was not used in the calculations. This indicates a disagreement over which levels of the organization feel most responsible for goal-setting, and the amount of resistance that exists in goal attainment.

Graduate Students and Undergraduate Students were in substantial agreement within their respective groups, but not to the degree to which agreement existed in the Administrator and Faculty Groups. The lowest "w" statistic for all groups was found for Graduate Students in Data Set 1. The extent of agreement nearly doubled for this group when the Goal-Setting Variable was included in the calculations. The relatively low mean score on this variable by the Graduate Students indicates high agreement on the low ranking.

These groups are representative of the largest populations considered in the study. The effect of fewer opportunities for inter-action because of population size, diversity of interests, departmentalization, physical location and other segratory factors are apparent in the lesser degree of

agreement with both groups.

The most striking result of this analysis shows that, while there is a hierarchy in degree of agreement between groups, within-group agreement is significantly high for all groups. This is so, despite the potential for disagreement inherent in large organizations. These findings lend strong support to the additional results of the analysis of the data. Each group's ranking of the College can now be viewed as clearly representative of the group's perceptions, and indicative of viewpoints generalized to the populations they represent.

Five major points are emphasized by Tables 4.3 and 4.4:

- 1. The degree to which each group perceives the College as a participative organization is related to that group's hierarchal level.
- 2. The greatest differences between groups occur between the Administrators and each of the other groups.
- 3. There is little difference between the Graduate Faculty and the Undergraduate Faculty in the perceptions of each group as it views the College.
- 4. There is little difference between the Graduate Students and Undergraduate Students in the perceptions of each group as it views the College.

5. There is a significant difference between each of the faculty groups and each of the student groups.

The results illustrated in Tables 4.5 and 4.6 suggest that this College of Education is bureaucratically organized. Research studies, that relate behavior to organizational position, indicate that the probability to experience a sense of self-esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization tend to increase as one goes up the hierarchal ladder and tend to decrease as one goes down the line. Other studies indicate that the degree of intrinsic work satisfaction will be related to the degree of professionalism and/or position on the organizational ladder.

The findings of this study support the results of other organizational research.

The Faculty Groups, by their relative position between the Student Groups and Administrators, illustrate the conflict between conventional bureaucratic authority and professional authority. From a theoretical viewpoint, if teaching is a form of socialization, the faculty must interact affectively with students. On the other hand, the organizational obligation to produce competency impose a need for impartiality and control.

Both Student Groups view the College in the least

favorable manner. There doesn't appear to be much difference in this viewpoint based upon Graduate or Undergraduate status. This is a disturbing finding because one of the primary responsibilities of an educational institution is toward its students. That such differences in perceptions exist between the Student Groups and the other groups, is a source of immediate concern.

The Scheffe post hoc comparison technique was applied to various combinations of groups to more specifically determine significant differences between groups on each variable.

Contrasts between pairs of groups are presented separately. Values for these comparisons and accompanying significance levels are found in Table 4.8.

Administrators and Graduate Faculty

There are significant differences between the Administrators and Graduate Faculty at the .01 level on all of the variables tested. The Administrators' variable mean scores are consistently higher than the variable mean scores recorded by the Graduate Faculty. The greatest differences between these two groups occur on the Goal-Setting Variable and the Motivational Forces Variable.

TABLE 4.8

VALUES OF DIFFERENCES IN VARIABLE MEAN SCORES AND LEVELS OF SIGNIFICANCE AS CALCULATED FOR THE STATISTIC OF THE SCHEFFE POST HOC COMPARISON

	Administrators and Graduate Faculty							
	Subjects	with completed	All sub	jects with				
		data	<u>complete</u>	variable scores.				
	Data Set 1	Data Set 2	Data Set	Data Set 2				
1	2.171*	1.700*	2.171*	1.702*				
2 3	3.773*	3.627*	3.773*	3.615*				
3	1.686*	1.533*	1.686*	1.536*				
4	1.339*	1.064*	1.339*	1.070*				
5	2.237*	2.281*	2.237*	2.269*				
6	4.603*	4.373*						
	Administrators and Undergraduate Faculty							
1	2.820*	2.724*	2.820*	2.724*				
	3.357*	3.216*	3.357*	3.216*				
2 3	5.473*	2.151*	2.257*	2.151*				
4	1.320*	1.153*	1.320*	1.153*				
5	2.264*	2.614*	2.264*	2.614*				
6	4.021*	3.862*						
	<u>Adr</u>	ninistrators and Gr	aduate Studen	<u>ts</u>				
1	4.390*	3 .151 *	4.519*	3.234*				
2	4.849*	4.579*	5.001*	4.714*				
3	2.878*	2.340*	3.050*	2.471*				
4	2.122*	2.140*	2.290*	2.272*				
5	2.961*	3.058*	3.105*	3.188*				
6	4.148*	4.413*						
	Administrators and Undergraduate Students							
1	5.277*	3.477*	4.821*	3.529*				
2	5.304*	5.021*	5.368*	5.110*				
3	3.550*	3.108*	3.622*	3.185*				
4	2.280*	2.223*	2.360*	2.314*				
5	3.113*	3.490*	3.213*	3.582*				
6	4.657*	4.766*						

^{*}Significant at the .01 level.

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TABLE 4.8(continued)

	Graduate Faculty and Undergraduate Faculty						
	Subjects wi	th completed	All subjects with				
	<u>data</u>		complete variable scores				
	Data Set 1	Data Set 2	Data Set 1	Data Set 2			
1	.649*	1.024*	.649*	1.022*			
2	.416	.411	.416	.399			
3	.571**	.618**	.571**	.615**			
4	.019	.089	.019	.083			
4 5	.027	.333	.027	.345			
6	.582*	.511					
Graduate Faculty and Graduate Students							
1	2.219*	1.451*	2.348*	1.532*			
2	1.076*	.952*	1.228*	1.099*			
3	1.192*	.807*	1.364*	.935*			
4	.783*	1.066*	.951*	1.202*			
5	.724*	.777*	.868*	.919*			
6	.455	.040					
Graduate Faculty and Undergraduate Students							
1	2.606*	1.777*	2.650*	1.827*			
	1.531*	1.394*	1.595*	1.495*			
2 3	1.864*	1.5 75 *	1.936*	1.649*			
4	.941*	1.159*	1.021*	1.244*			
5	.876*	1.209*	.976*	1.313*			
6	.054	.393					
Undergraduate Faculty and Graduate Students							
1	1.570*	.427	1.699*	.510			
1 2	1.492*	1.363*	1.644*	1.498*			
3	.621*	.189	.793*	.320			
4	.802*	.987*	.970*	1.119*			
5	.697*	.444	.841*	.574**			
6	.127	.551					
#Cionificant of 01 love1							

^{*}Significant at .01 level. **Significant at .05 level.

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TABLE 4.8 (continued)

	<u>Undergraduate Faculty and Undergraduate Students</u>						
	Subjects wit	Subjects with completed All subjects with					
	dat	.a		complete variable scores			
	Data Set 1	Data Set 2	Data Set 1	Data Set 2			
1	1.957*	.753*	2.001*	.805*			
2	1.947*	1.805*	2.011*	1.894*			
2 3 4	1.293*	.957*	1.365*	1.034*			
	.960*	1.070*	1.040*	1.161*			
5	.849*	.876*	.949*	.968*			
6	.636*	.904*					
Graduate Students and Undergraduate Students							
1	.387	.326	.302 .	.295			
2	.455	.442	.367	.396			
2 3	.672*	.768*	.572*	.714*			
4	.158	.83	.070	.042			
5	.152	.432	.108	.394			
6	.509	.353					
Administrators and Faculty							
1	2.821*	2.213*	2.496*	2.214*			
2 3	5.612*	3.422*	2.566*	3.416*			
3	1.972*	1.842*	1.972*	1.844*			
4 5	1.330*	1.109*	1.330*	1.112*			
5	2.251*	2.448*	2.251*	2.442*			
6	4.312*	4.118*					
Administrators and Students							
1	4.584*	3.315*	4.670*	3.382*			
2	5.077*	4.800*	5.185*	4.913*			
3	3.214*	2.725*	3.336*	2.828*			
4	2.201*	2.182*	2.325*	2.293*			
5	3.038*	3.275*	3.160*	3.386*			
6	4.403*	4.590*					

^{*}Significant at .01 level.

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TABLE 4.8(continued)

Faculty and Students

	Subjects with completed data		All subjects with complete variable scores	
	Data Set 1	Data Set 2	Data Set 1	Data Set 2
1	2.088*	1.101*	2.174*	1.168*
2	1.511*	1.378*	1.511*	1.497*
3	1.242*	.883*	1.364*	.984*
4	.871*	1.073*	.995*	1.181*
5	.787*	.827*	.909*	.944*
6	091	472		

Administrators and Undergraduate Faculty

The differences between these two groups is significant at the .01 level on all variables tested. The Administrators rank the College higher on all variables than do the Undergraduate Faculty. The greatest differences between these two groups were on the Communication Process Variable, the Motivational Forces Variable, and the Goal-Setting Variable. As with the Graduate Faculty, the Administrators come closest to agreement with the Undergraduate Faculty on the Interaction-Influence variable.

Administrators and Graduate Students

Significant differences between these two groups are recorded on all variables tested at the .01 level. Greater differences exist between the Administrators and the Graduate Students, than between the Administrators and either Faculty Group. The greater differences occur on the Motivational Forces Variable, the Leadership Process Variable, and the Goal-Setting Variable. The Administrators rank the College higher than the Graduate Students on all variables.

Administrators and Undergraduate Students

The differences in perceptions of the College between these two groups represent the greatest distance of any pair of groups in the Study. These differences are significant at

the .01 level on all variables tested. The Undergraduate Students rank the College lowest of all the groups on all variables and the Administrators rank the College highest on all variables. Largest differences occur on the Leadership Process Variable, the Motivational Forces Variable, and the Goal-Setting Variable.

Summarizing the comparison of Administrators and each of the other groups, the results show great differences in perception of the organizational climate on every variable. larger differences occur on the Goal-Setting Process Variable, the Motivational Forces Variable, and the Leadership Process Variable. The Goal-Setting Process had the highest ranking among the Administrators, with the Motivational Forces second, and Leadership Process, third. These findings indicate that the Administrators feel a high degree of satisfaction in the participative character of the organization of the College. The high rating of the Motivational Forces Variable indicate that the Administrators feel that the responsibility for achieving organizational goals is shared by all levels of the College. They view the College as a favorable place to work, and enjoy their relationships with colleagues and subordinates. A high ranking by the Administrators, of the Leadership Process indicate satisfaction with their ability to establish

a climate of trust and confidence in relationships with subordinates. This includes the degree to which they exhibit supportive behavior, obtain ideas and opinions of subordinates, and the degree to which subordinates feel free to discuss matters about their jobs.

On the other hand, examination of the data reveal that each group, when compared to the Administrators, report significantly lower degrees of satisfaction.

For a more complete definition of organizational variables refer to <u>Definitions of Key Terms</u> in Chapter I. Specific items from the questionnaire for each variable are listed in the <u>Instrumentation</u> section of Chapter II. Copies of the Questionnaire used in the Study are found in the Appendix.

Graduate Faculty and Undergraduate Faculty

The Graduate Faculty and the Undergraduate Faculty are in substantial agreement in locating the College on the continuum of organizational characteristics. These two groups differ significantly on only two variables, and their respective values of variable mean scores are similar. The Undergraduate Faculty rank the College significantly lower on the Leadership Process than does the Graduate Faculty at the .01 level. The Graduate Faculty rates the Communication Process

more favorably, with the difference significant at the .05 level.

Graduate Faculty and Graduate Students

The Graduate Faculty and the Graduate Students exhibit significant differences on all variables at the .01 level, with the exception of the Goal-Setting Process Variable. Generally, the Graduate Faculty view the College more favorably than do the Graduate Students. The greatest differences in perception occur on three variables -- Leadership Process, Motivational Forces, and Communication Process.

Graduate Faculty and Undergraduate Students

Larger differences exist between these two groups than between the Graduate Faculty and the Graduate Students. These differences are significant at the .01 level for all but the Goal-Setting Process Variable. Mean scores between groups on Goal-Setting show no significant differences. The Graduate Faculty rank the College more favorably than do the Undergraduate Students. Note the mean scores for these groups on the Goal-Setting Process. This is the only incidence in the study where the Students rated the College more favorably than did the Faculty.

Undergraduate Faculty and Graduate Students

Significant differences between the Undergraduate Faculty and the Graduate Students are not as sharply defined as

Students. Differences, as measured by Data Set 1 with both missing data procedures, are significant at the .01 level for all but the Goal-Setting Process Variable. Data Set 2 indicate significant differences on the Motivational Forces Variable and the Interaction-Influence Variable at the .01 level, and on the Decision-Making Process Variable at the .05 level. The greatest differences between these two groups are reported on two variables, Leadership Process and Motivational Forces.

Undergraduate Faculty and Undergraduate Students

Significant differences between these two groups are reported at the .01 level for all variables tested. The Undergraduate Faculty view the College more favorably than do the Undergraduate Students. The largest differences occur on three variables, Leadership Process, Motivational Forces, and Communication Process. The differences between these two groups are only slightly less than between the Graduate Faculty and the Graduate Students.

Graduate Students and Undergraduate Students

The two Student groups differ significantly at the .01 level on the Communication Process Variable. Otherwise, there were no significant differences on any variable between the groups. They were in substantial agreement in ranking the

College the least favorably of all groups. Undergraduate
Students recorded the lowest variable mean scores in the Study.

In reviewing this series of contrasts, the findings point up three distinct levels: Administrators, Faculty, and Students. The Administrators, who are in agreement within-group are significantly in disagreement when compared to each of the other groups. The Faculty, who agree within group, and report little significant differences between Faculty groups, are in significant disagreement with both the Administrators, and Student Groups. The Student Groups are not substantially different from each other, but are in significant disagreement with the Administrators and both Faculty Groups.

The following comparisons combine the Graduate Faculty and Undergraduate Faculty into a Faculty Group, and combine Graduate and Undergraduate Students into a Student Group. Comparisons are then made between Administrators and Faculty, Administrators and Students, and Faculty and Students.

Values listed for these three comparisons are also found in Table 4.8 and were calculated for the W statistic of the Scheffe test with levels of significance noted.

Administrators and Faculty

Significant differences at the .01 level on all variables

were reported between Administrators and Faculty. The

Faculty ranked the College lower than the Administrators on

all variables. The greatest differences between the two

groups existed on three variables, Motivational Forces, Goal
Setting Process, and Leadership Process. This represents

little change from separate comparisons of Administrators and

each of the Faculty Groups.

Administrators and Students

The Administrators and the Students differed significantly on all variables at the .01 level. The difference scores between these two groups represent the largest differences of rankings in this set of comparisons. The greatest differences occured on three variables, Leadership Process, Motivational Process, and the Goal-Setting Process. These findings represent little change in differences reported between Administrators and each of the Student Groups. The Administrators ranked the College substantially higher than did the Students.

Faculty and Students

The Faculty and Student Groups were significantly different in their perceptions of the organizational climate of the College. These differences were significant at the .01 level for all variables except the Goal-Setting Process

Variable. The Faculty viewed the College more favorably than did the Students, but the differences between the Faculty and the Students were not as great as the differences reported between the Faculty and the Administrators.

The greater differences between Faculty and Student Groups occur on three variables, Leadership Process, Motivational Forces, and Communication Process.

The results of these three comparisons are essentially the same as the comparisons made between the various pairs of groups discussed earlier. There are three levels of satisfaction about the effectiveness of the organization of the College. These levels are defined along hierarchal lines and there are clear-cut differences in perceptions between the levels.

The literature on organizations categorize organizations by the degree to which certain characteristic processes are present. That the College of Education has strong bureaucratic tendencies is evidenced by several findings of this study:

- 1. Differences of perception on the Leadership Process
 Variable point to a reduction of personalized relationships
 between groups down the line.
 - 2. Differences in perceptions about the character of

Motivational Forces employed indicate that the human fulfillment needs of people in the College are being met in relationship to hierarchal position.

- 3. Differences in perceptions on the character of the Communication Process Variable indicate a lack of sharing information between levels, and a feeling of a lack of sensitivity to problems existing at successive lower levels of the College.
- 4. Differences in the perceptions on the InteractionInfluence Process Variable point to an increasing sense of
 powerlessness to influence the goals, methods, and activities
 of the College as one goes down the hierarchal ladder.
- 5. Differences in the perceptions on the Decision-Making Process Variable indicate a reluctance on the part of higher levels to allow decisions to be made by lower levels of the College. Indications also point to disagreements as to the amount of participation in decision-making that should be sanctioned.
- 6. Differences in perceptions on the Goal-Setting
 Process Variable indicate a disagreement as to the extent of
 shared responsibility for goal setting as felt by the various
 levels of the College.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

In this chapter, central ideas and elements of this study are extracted from the preceding chapters and presented in a summary of the research design, findings, conclusions, and recommendations based upon the results of the Study.

Summary

This study was designed to assess significant agreements and/or disagreements in perceptions of the organizational climate of the College of Education at Michigan State University. A total of 133 individuals participated in the study. These individuals were randomly selected from five populations in the College; (1) Administrators, (2) Graduate Faculty, (3) Undergraduate Faculty, (4) Graduate Students, and (5) Undergraduate Students.

Likert's Profile of Organizational Characteristics
questionnaires as developed for colleges, were used for the
first time to measure the organizational climate. These

instruments delineate six organizational variables common to all organizations, along an <u>authoritarian-participative</u> continuum. The variables tested were: (1) Leadership Process, (2) Character of Motivational Forces, (3) Character of Communication Process, (4) Interaction-Influence Process, (5) Character of Decision-making Process, and (6) Character of Goal-Setting Process.

The participants were asked to rank the College on each variable along the continuum. Individual scores were calculated for each variable and from that data, mean scores for each group on each variable were computed. Because items on the three questionnaires were parallel but not identical, two sets of data were used in the analysis to substantiate the findings. Data Set 1 contains all of the items from all questionnaires. Data Set 2 contains only those items that occured across all groups. There was little difference in the results of each Data Set.

The analysis of data was done in three steps:

- (1) Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance technique found strong agreement within each group about the organizational climate of the College.
 - (2) A three-way analysis of variance for repeated

measures technique found significant differences between groups across all variables tested. Group mean scores on each variable, calculated from this technique, were used to chart the relative position of each group on the continuum to provide a profile of the College.

(3) A Scheffe post hoc comparison technique was applied to various combinations of groups to specifically identify significant differences between combinations of groups on each variable.

A review of the literature on organizational climate emphasized the following points:

- Most large organizations in American society, including schools, are bureaucracies.
- 2. Bureaucratic organizations are extremely efficient in handling uniform events, but are not effective in coping with non-uniform events.
- 3. Organizational structure will influence organizational climate, and organizational climate will, in turn, influence the behavior of the members of the organization.
- 4. An individual's perception of a situation will influence that individual's accommodation to that situation.

- 5. Alternative organizational structures to the bureaucratic model are possible and eminent.
- 6. The organizational structure should be such that it facilitates the achievement of stated goals and objectives, and maximizes the use of the human resource of its members.

Further review of the literature revealed that the degree of bureaucracy present in an organization will be dependent upon the extent to which the organization exhibits certain characteristics:

- 1. Impersonal orientation in contacts with people within the organization.
- 2. Social distance between hierarchal levels with the resultant emphasis on formality of relationships.
- 3. Demand for control at the top levels of management that result in increased delegation of authority, which increases departmentalization.
- 4. Increased departmentalization increases subunit loyalty and leads to conflict and struggle for
 internal control. This, in turn, affects the content
 of decision-making, in order for sub-groups to legitimize their demands.

- 5. The number and importance of decisions made at the upper levels of the organization. The number of functions affected by those decisions at the lower levels and the amount of checking required on decisions.
- 6. Large status differentials between levels that result in the lengthening and restricting of communication channels that increase distortion of messages.
- 7. Opportunity for members of the organization to share in goal-setting and influencing decisions that affect them.
- 8. Existence of an effective structure that enables one part of the organization to exert influence upon other parts.

The literature on behavior resulting from organizational structure and climate emphasizes:

- 1. The pyramidal structure of a hierarchy conflict with the needs for psychological success of the members of an organization.
- 2. The morale of members of an organization tends to decrease as the size of an organization increases because of reduced face-to-face contact, and as individuals begin to lose identity with the organization.
 - 3. The individual's participation in the organization

is always affected by his position in the hierarchy.

- 4. The probability to experience a sense of self-esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization tends to increase as one ascends the hierarchal ladder and tends to decrease as one descends.
- 5. The higher a person is on the organizational ladder, the greater the probability he will express intrinsic work satisfaction.
- 6. Increased responsibility generally results in increased tension.
- 7. In professional organizations, such as educational institutions, conflict exists between bureaucratic authority and professional authority.
- 8. In professional organizations, higher degrees of professionalism generally result in higher rates of conflict over control of work within professional groups and between such groups and the administration.
- 9. Leadership style will depend upon the leader's concept of self, the situation, and the leader's perception of the situation.
- 10. The more democratically an organization functions, the more favorable the responses of individuals will be in terms of reduced aggression, more enjoyment, and more

imaginative productivity.

11. Increased participation across organizational lines in decision-making will result in greater commitment, involvement, consensus, unanimity of purpose, and motivation.

A total of six variables of organizational climate were rated by five groups within the College of Education. The results of this assessment were analyzed to provide the data for the findings of this study.

<u>Findings</u>

The results of this study produced several interesting findings. In the perceptions of the state of the organization of the College:

1. There is substantial agreement within each of the five groups. This finding strengthens the study. Had there been no significant agreement within groups, accurate comparison between groups would not have been possible. It also added substance as each group ranked the College on the authoritarian-participative continuum. Within group agreement adds support to positioning on the continuum, and increases confidence that each group represents the viewpoints of the population they represent.

As with most of the study, a definite relationship

exists between hierarchal level and the findings. The Administrators report the highest rate of agreement, on down the line to Student groups, who report the lowest rate. Several factors contribute to the groups varying in degree of agreement. Each group represents differences in size, opportunity for within group interaction, psychological and sociological factors, and selection procedures. Physical proximity and other biographic differences are also potential causes for disagreement. In spite of these differences, within group agreement existed for all groups at a high level of significance.

- 2. There is substantial disagreement between the Administrators and each of the other groups on all six variables. The extent of disagreement increases the farther each group is down the organizational ladder.
- 3. There is substantial disagreement between the Faculty Groups and the Student Groups on five organizational variables. Comparisons of various combinations of each Faculty Group and each Student Group did not alter the findings.
- 4. There is substantial agreement between the Graduate Faculty and the Undergraduate Faculty. Significant differences between these two groups were recorded on the

Leadership Process and Communication Process Variables. The Graduate Faculty reported greater satisfaction. There is a relationship between the two variables. The amount and character of communication will influence the degree of confidence and trust, and the direction and flow of information will have a bearing on the number of ideas sought by superiors. From these findings it is suggested that the Graduate Faculty has greater access to the Administrators than does the Undergraduate Faculty.

5. There is substantial agreement between the Graduate Students and the Undergraduate Students. Generally, the Graduate Students view the College as slightly more participative than do the Undergraduate Students. A significant difference on the Communication Variable was the only disagreement between these groups. The fact that Graduate Students have more contact with Faculty, and have greater autonomy probably account for such a difference.

In ranking the organizational climate of the College on a continuum of from <u>authoritarian to participatory</u>, examination of Table 4.5 and Table 4.6 show:

1. There is a strong hierarchal flavor to the manner in which each group ranked the College. Administrators view

the organization of the College as a highly participative one.

This view decreases down the ladder to the Students who view the climate as more authoritarian.

2. Administrators, Faculty, and Students form three distinct levels of evaluation. The interesting finding connected with this result, is that significant differences occur between each of these levels on five variables.

Conclusions

The scholars in the field of organizational research agree that the nature of an organization will have an effect on the behaviors of its members. This study makes no comment on the identification of specific behaviors. The findings represent the perceptions of individuals about organizational climate and by implication identifies the existence of a certain type of organization. The researcher, with support from the literature, assumes resultant behavior characteristic of the type of organization. Within these limitations, the following conclusions seem warranted:

1. The findings reveal the bureaucratic nature of the College. Evidence, that as one descends the organizational ladder, the increase of impersonal relationships, lack of involvement in decision-making,

lengthening communication channels, inability to influence events, lack of a feeling of teamwork, and other characteristics of a bureaucratic organization are present to a significantly greater degree in the College.

- 2. The extent of participation in organizational life, as viewed by the Students is at a lower level. Implications from these findings are made that low commitment, low morale, decreased motivational level, and lower feelings of psychological success exist among these groups. Since Students are one of the principal reasons for the existence of any educational institution such negative factors may seriously affect their performance and consequently affect the quality of students produced by the College.
- 3. The Faculty represent a more moderate position than do the Students. Their relative position on the continuum is closer to the Student point of view than to the Administrators. The distance from the Administrators and from the Students is accounted for in the conflict mentioned in Chapter IV between professional authority and bureaucratic authority.
 - 4. The differences in perceptions between the

Administrators and all other groups suggests that this group is out of touch with the organizational life of the College. Their evaluation of the College as highly participative is not shared by the other groups. seems to be great discrepancies between the manner in which they perceive their behavior to others, and the way others perceive that behavior. Other disagreements in perceptions occur in the processes of organization. The administrators see others as highly involved in decisions, goal-setting, and communications. members who are supposed to be involved, do not see themselves involved to the same degree. Similar claims can be made between Faculty and Students, but the greatest differences in the study involve Administrators.

Recommendations

The findings of this study suggest the need for further investigation into the organizational processes of the College. The general nature of the definitions of each variable makes the identification of specific differences difficult. However, the overall results indicate that the College should review all of its organizational processes in order to maximize its human resource.

Recommendations, based on the findings, are made with a

College-wide emphasis on developing a strategy for organizational inquiry. One of the most promising approaches, Organizational Development or OD, has enjoyed considerable success in industry. The application of OD principles to educational organizations is relatively new, but the results from a limited number of programs give evidence of success. Such a program would provide: (1) an opportunity for all members to be involved in the organizational processes of the College, (2) valuable in-service training possibilities for students and faculty alike, (3) a "vehicle" for interaction between departments, and across levels of the college, (4) a model for educational institutions who are searching for effective diagnostic procedures, and (5) an opportunity to experiment with, plan, and evaluate alternative organizational models. The College, in undertaking an OD approach, would go through the following process: (1) Identification of problems, (2) Setting problem priorities, (3) Problem diagnosis, (4) Development and sharing of data concerning these problems, (5) Joint action planning, emphasizing alternatives, (6) Implementation and testing of selected alternatives, and (7) Periodic review and further action.

Operationally, the recommendations are:

1. The College should implement a "Model College Plan

This Plan to be organized using <u>Organizational Development</u> principles. Initially, using a college within a college format, the "Model College" would be a number of pilot groups, each consisting of a mixture of Administrators, Faculty, and Students. For the members of the groups, these OD activities would replace present responsibilities.

Students would receive Education credits in keeping with their regular programs. Administrators and Faculty would assume these activities as a part of their responsibility, sharing previous commitments with other staff members.

The curriculum would cover all aspects of organizational life in the Gollege: technology, systems and structure, methods, interpersonal and personal factors, and strategies of change. From these pilot groups would come suggestions and recommendations to be considered by the college at large. Eventually, as these procedures become more refined, a part of each member's obligation to the college would be the ongoing study and evaluation of the system.

2. The College allow time in all classes for contact with the pilot groups. Initially, this would increase the amount of input into the problem-solving nature of the Model. The long-range goal of such contact would be to supply the college with a constant flow of feedback

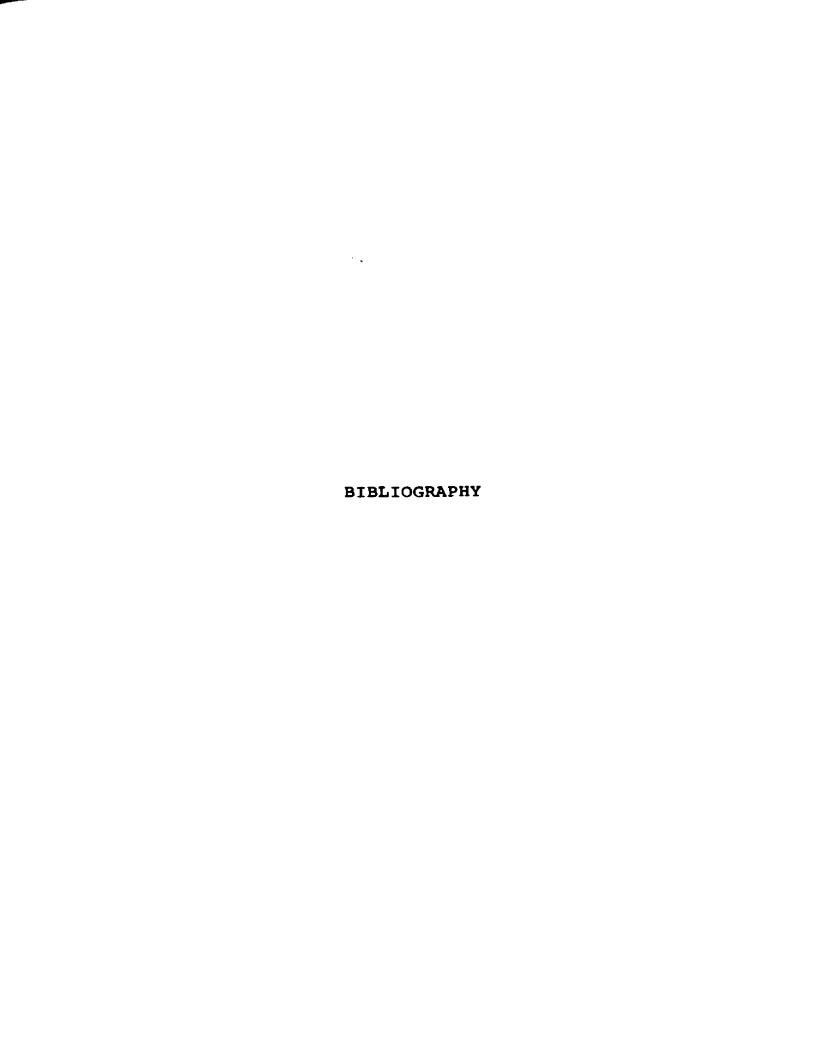
information. In this way, the communications network would be more adequate in sensing internal stress and insuring that enough information be available to make adequate diagnosis.

- 3. Teams of doctoral students, interested in organizations, be encouraged to assist in the evaluation of new procedures, thereby increasing the amount of empirical findings available. Dissertations could be based upon data gathered from the Model Plan, or from other innovative organizational plans. A second contribution from these teams could be to assist school systems, and/or individual school units in organizational analysis.
- 4. The College hold regular workshops in organizational diagnosis for people in the field of education. These workshops would be held both on and off-campus, for credit or not, and with specific school units, if requested. The consultants for the workshops would include as many members from all levels of the College as feasible.
- 5. The College establish a group made up of Administrators, Faculty, and Students specifically from the Administration and Educational Psychology Departments to study the effect of organization on learning environments. Much of the literature on organizational effect is drawn from industry, little, if any, empirical research is based on determining which organizational patterns produce optimum learning opportunities.

In summary, Likert's definition of "the principle of supportive relationships" warrants re-emphasis. "The leadership and other processes of the organization must be such as to ensure maximum probability that, in all interactions and in all relationships with the organization, each member will, in the light of his background, values, and expectations, view the experience as supportive, and one which builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance."

The recommendations made here are a beginning. The objectives of the Plan are based on the needs of the college as determined by this study:

- 1. Create an open, problem-solving climate, throughout the College.
- Locate decision-making and problem-solving responsibilities as close to the information sources as possible.
- 3. Maximize collaborative efforts among individuals and between groups.
- 4. Increase the sense of "ownership" of College objectives throughout the membership.



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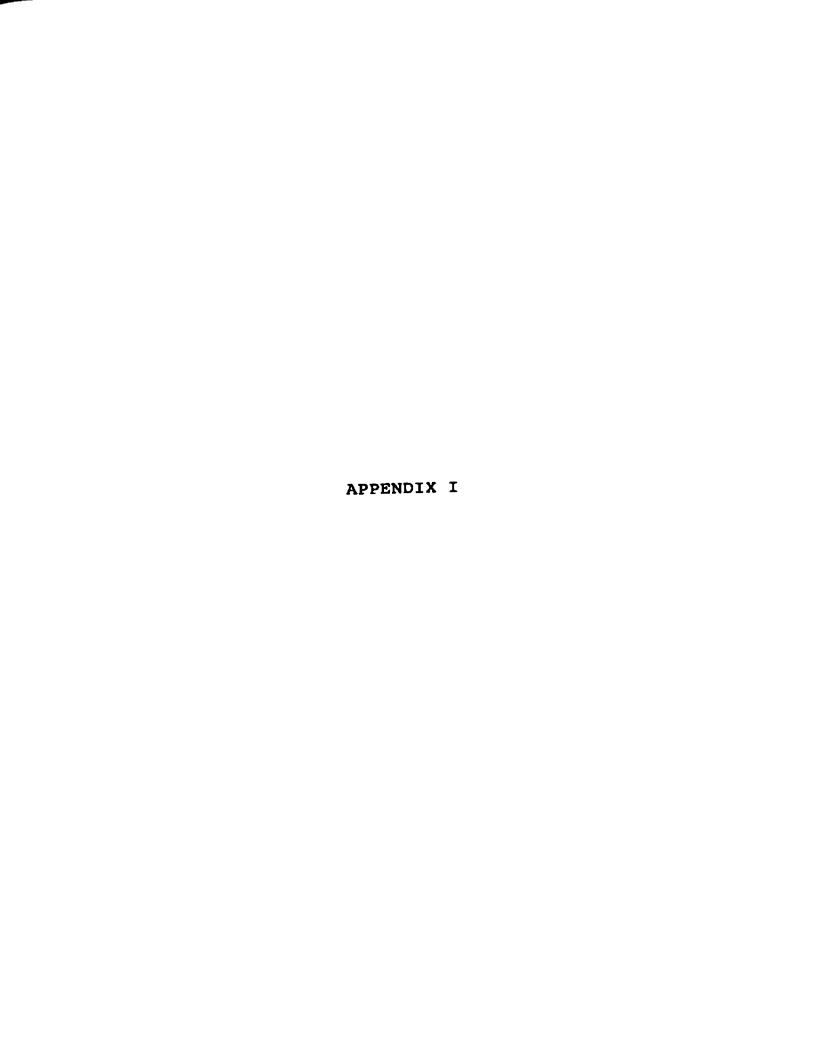
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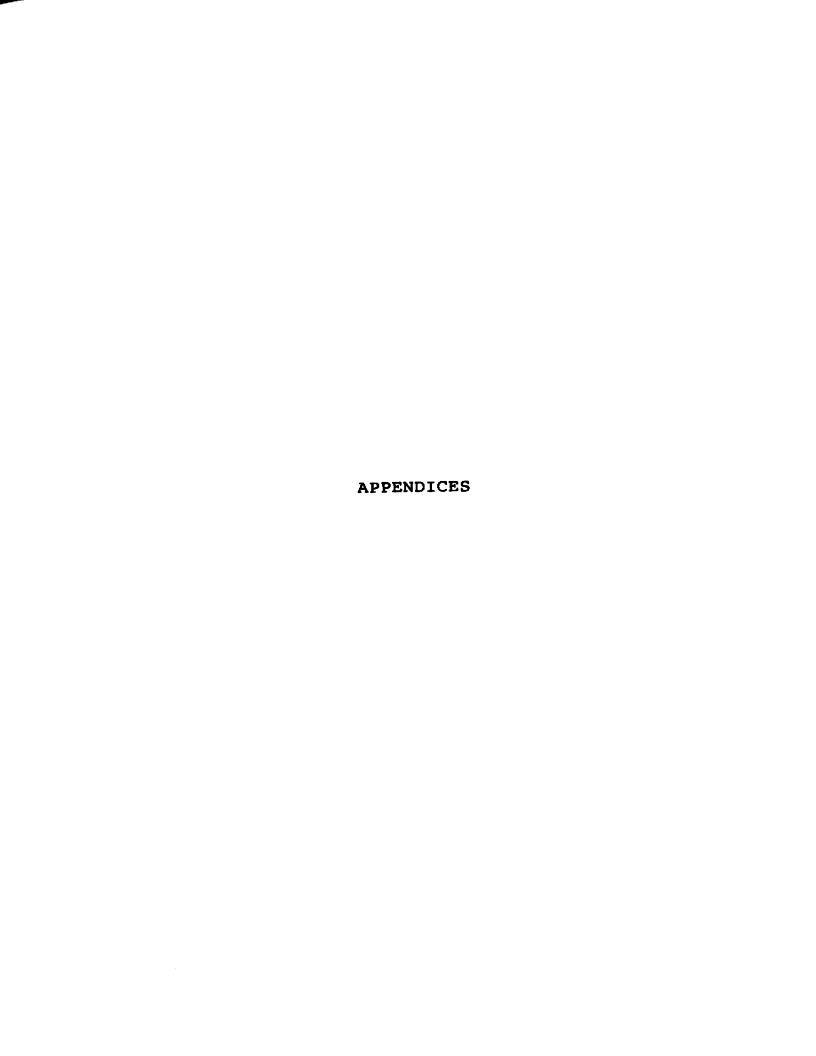
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APPENDIX I

TABLE 5

MEAN SCORES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR GROUPS ON EACH VARIABLE Communication Leadership Motivation Groups Data Set Data Set Data Set Data Set Data Set Data Set 2 2 2 1 7.777 6.046 5.643 Subjects with completed data 7.227 6.023 7.866 0.531 0.585 N = 17 V = 6dmin. 0.603 1.013 0.444 0.485 All subjects with complete N=17) 7.227 6.023 7.866 7.777 6.046 5.643 0.603 1.013 0.444 0.485 0.531 0.585 variable scores. № 17 V=5 4.110 Subjects with completed data 5.056 4.323 4.093 4.150 4.360 rad. 0.562 0.711 0.563 0.623 0.648 0.765 N = 29 V = 6All subjects with complete aculty 5.056 4.321 4.093 4.162 4.360 4.107 (N=29)0.562 0.692 0.563 0.635 0.648 0.739 variable scores. N=29 V=5 4.407 3.299 4.509 4.561 3.789 3.492 Subjects with completed data s 0.583 0.764 0.527 0.595 0.698 0.742 N = 29 V = 6Indergrad. 4.407 3.299 4.509 4.561 3.789 3.492 All subjects with complete Paculty (N=29)0.583 0.764 0.527 0.595 0.698 0.742 variable scores. N=29 V=5 Subjects with completed data 2.837 2.872 3.017 3.198 3.168 3.303 0.666 0.654 0.591 0.625 0.503 0.489 N = 25 V = 6Grad. 2.708 2.789 2.865 2.996 3.172 All subjects with complete 3.063 Students (№29) variable scores. №29 V=5 0.702 0.672 0.711 0.620 0.588 0.650 2.450 2.546 2.562 2.756 2.496 2.535 Subjects with completed data N = 25 V = 60.587 Undergrad. s 0.648 0.624 0.460 0.513 0.607 R 2.406 2.667 All subjects with complete Students 2.494 2.498 2.424 2.458 (N=29)s 0.663 0.650 0.479 0.543 0.641 0.623 variable scores. N=29 V=5

TABLE 5 (continued)

					,		
	Interacti	lon-Infl.	Decision	-making	Goal-Se	etting	
Groups	4	<u> </u>	5	<u> </u>	6)	
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Data Set	Data Set	Data Set	Data Set	Data Set	Data Set	
	1	2	11	2	1	2	
ž	5.252	5.252	6.192	5.949	8.055	8.164	Subjects with completed data
Admin. s	0.544	0.544	0.461	0.551	0.712	0.839	N = 17 V = 6
(N=17) 3	5.252	5.252	6.192	5.949			All subjects with complete
	0.544	0.544	0.461	0.551			variable scores. N=17 V=5
<u></u>	3.913	4.188	3.955	3.668	3.452	3.791	Subjects with completed data
Grad.	0.564	0.671	0.540	0.626	0.898	0.922	N = 29 V = 6
Faculty 3	3.913	4.182	3,955	3.680			All subjects with complete
(N=29) s	0.564	0.654	0.540	0.611			variable scores. N=29 V=5
<u></u>	3.932	4.099	3.928	3.335	4.034	4.302	Subjects with completed data
Undergrad. s	0.637	0.689	0.525	0.615	0.697	0.851	N = 29 V = 6
Faculty x	3.932	4.099	3.928	3.335			All subjects with complete
(N=29) s	0.637	0.689	0.525	0.615			variable scores. N=29 V=5
3	3.130	3.112	3.231	2.891	3.907	3.751	Subjects with completed data
Grad. s	0.726	0.767	0.494	0.517	0.816	1.117	N = 25 V = 6
Students 3	2.962	2.980	3.087	2.761			All subjects with complete
(N=29) s	0.795	0.820	0.569	0.604			variable scores. N=29 V=5
	2.972	3.029	3.079	2.459	3.398	3.398	Subjects with completed data
Undergrad. s	0.514	0.621	0.456	0.626	0.657	0.657	N = 25 V = 6
Students 8	2.892	2.938	2.979	2.367			All subjects with complete
(N=29) s	0.563	0.688	0.535	0.670	·		variable scores. N = 29 V=5

APPENDIX II

QUESTIONNAIRES

PROFILE OF THE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION AT MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY (Administrators' Form)

General information:

- 1. This questionnaire is being used to collect data for my dissertation, "The College of Education at Michigan State University as an Organization: A Survey of the Perceptions of its Students, Faculty, and Administrators."
- 2. You have been selected at random from a list of administrators of the College of Education at Michigan State University. Your cooperation is sincerely appreciated.
- 3. It is not necessary to sign the questionnaire. The names of the respondents will be known only to the researcher.
- 4. Copies of the study will be available upon request.
- 5. Please return the completed questionnaire as soon as possible, either to me (Room 409, Erickson Hall) or Mrs. Jacquelyn Fenn, secretary, located next to Room 410A. If possible, I would like to have them returned in three days.

Instructions:

- 1. On the lines below each item, please place an (n) at the point which, in your experience, describes the Michigan State University College of Education at the present time (n=now). Treat each horizontal line as a continuum from the extreme at one end to the extreme at the other, i.e., do not think of the vertical lines as barriers.
- 2. Since each faculty member and student differs one from the other, answer the questions as describing the average situation or reaction. The terms "faculty member," and "professor" are intended to include all persons who teach. "College administrators" as used here refers primarily to deans, department chairmen, and other academic administrators.

Instructions. -- Continued

- 3. In responding to items concerning students, use as your frame of reference, those students to which you are responsible for and come in contact with most frequently.
- 4. In completing the questionnaire, it is important that each individual answer each question as thoughtfully and frankly as possible. There are no right or wrong answers. The important thing is that you answer each question the way you see things or the way you feel about them.

16

FACULTY QUESTIONNAIRE

	Name (optional)
1.1	Age:under 3030-3940-4950-5960+
	MaleFemale
1.2	Department:
1.3	Rank:InstructorAsst.ProfessorAssoc.Professor
	Professor
1.4	Tenure:Tenured faculty
	Not tenure, but subject to tenure rules
	Appointment not subject to rules of tenure
1.5	To which area do you devote the greater part of your professional time?
	TeachingResearchServiceOther (specify)
1.6	Do you give the greater part of your professional time to:
	Undergraduate StudiesGraduate StudiesEqual time
1.7	Your highest degree
1.8	Year degree awarded
1.9	Years employed by Michigan State University
1.10	Is most of your work loadon campusoff campus
	equally divided.
1.11	If you are an administrator, do you also teach?yesno
	If yes, which group of students are you primarily responsible for?
	undergraduatesgraduate studentsboth equally

Very free

How often is your behavior seen as friendly and supportive by:

- a. faculty?
- b. students?

How often do you seek to be friendly and supportive to:

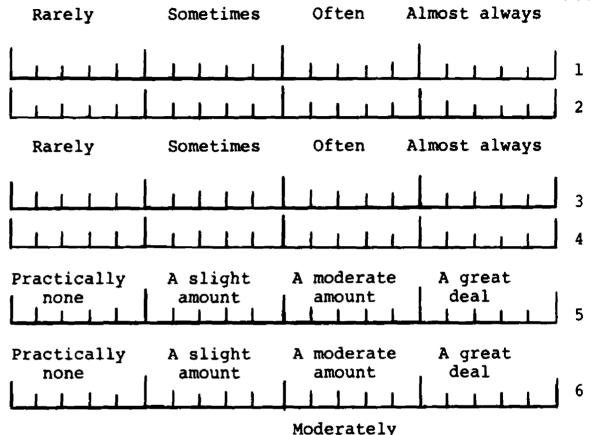
- a. faculty?
- b. students?

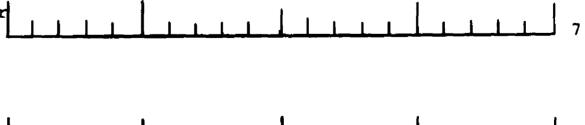
How much confidence and trust do you have in your faculty?

How much confidence and trust does your faculty have in you?

How free does your faculty feel to talk to you about:

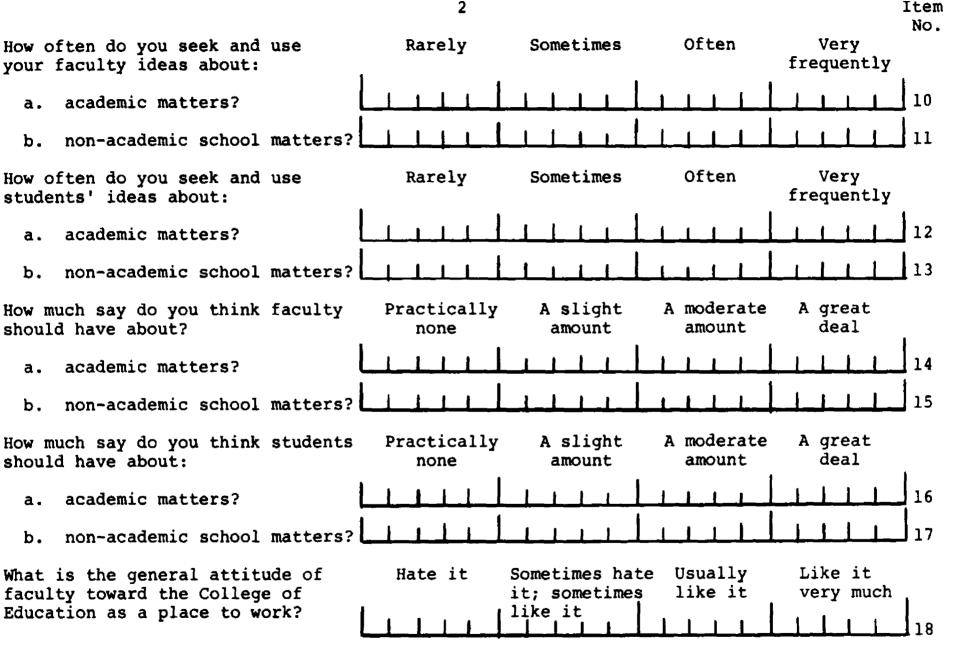
- a. academic matters, such as course content, instructional plans, teaching methods, their work, etc.?
- b. non-academic school matters, such as student behavior, emotional problems of students, discipline, student activities, etc.
- c. their personal problems?





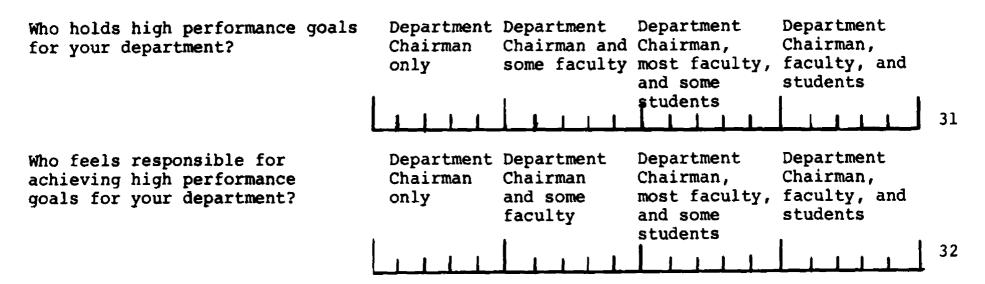
free

Not very free Slightly free



Item

		4		No.
In your department is it "every man for him-self" or does the department chairman, faculty, and students	"Every man for him- self"	Relatively little coop- erative team-work	A moderate amount of cooperative team-work	A very sub- stantial amount of co- operative team-work
work as a team?		<u> </u>		27
At what level are decisions made about educational matters, such as course content, instructional plans, teaching methods, student activities, etc.?		Policy at top; specific decisions by faculty, but usually checked by administrators before action.	sions at lower	Throughout College of Educ., administrators, faculty, and students participating in decisions affecting them.
	<u></u>	l., -l., -l.,-l.,-l. ,-		
To what extent are the faculty involved in major decisions related to their work?	Not at all	Never in- volved in de- cisions re- lated to their work;occasion- ally consulted.	Usually consulted but ordinarily not involved in decisions related to their work.	Fully involved in decisions related to their work.
In general, what does the decision-making process contribute to the desire of faculty and students to do a	Not very much, often weakens it.	Relatively little	Some contribution.	Substantial contribution
good job?				30



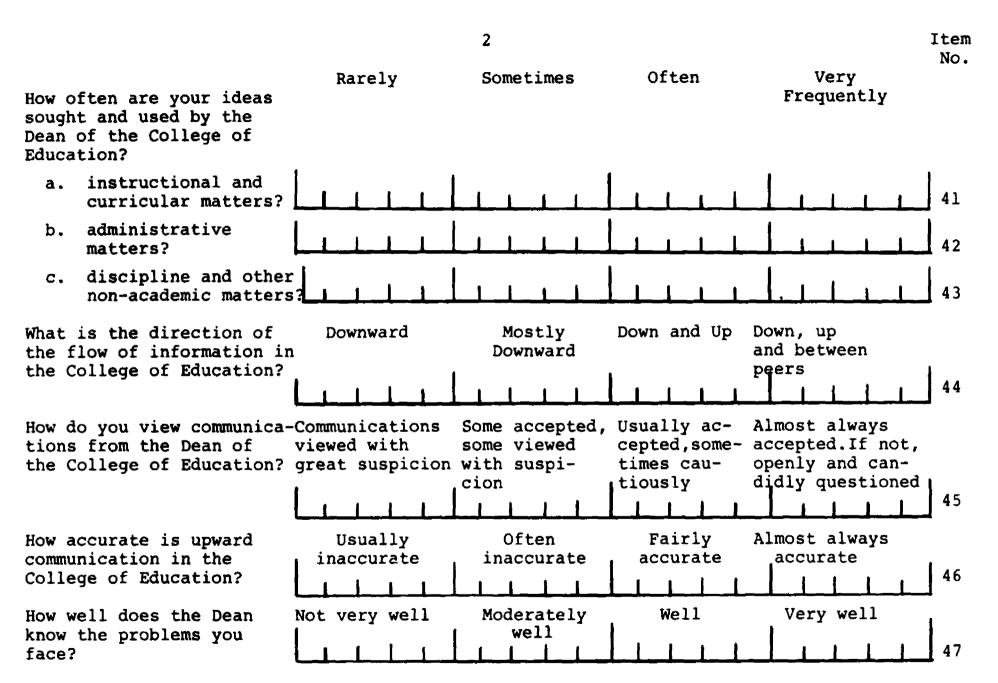
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174

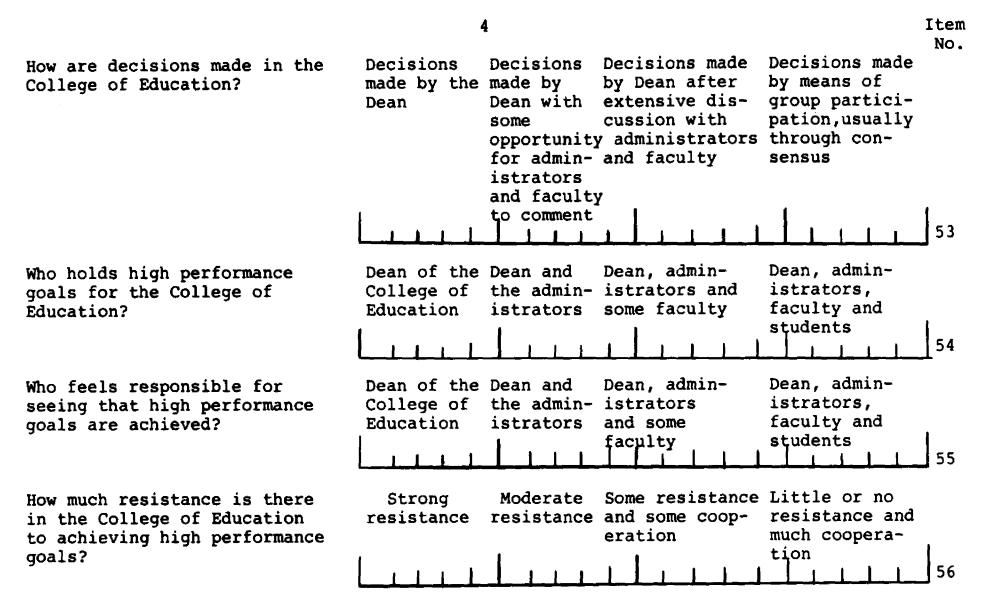
Item

PROFILE OF THE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION AT MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY (Form for Administrators) Part II

No. Often Almost always How often do you see the Rarely Sometimes behavior of the Dean of the College of Education as friendly and supportive? How much confidence and trust Practically A slight A moderate A great does the Dean of the College amount amount deal none of Education have in you? 34 How much confidence and trust Practically A slight A moderate A great deal do you have in the Dean of amount amount none the College of Education? 35 How free do you feel to talk Not very free Slightly free Moderately free Very free to the Dean about: instructional matters, such as textbook selection: instructional policies? administrative matters such as budget, hiring 37 of faculty? 38 your personal problems? Almost always Sometimes Often Rarely How often do you try to be friendly and supportive to: a. your Dean of the College of Education? b. Other administrators in the College of Education?



What is the character and amount of interaction among administrators in the College of Education?	action;usually with fear and distrust	Little inter- action. Dean, administrators usually main- tain distance from one another	Moderate in- teraction; often with fair amount of con- fidence and trust	Extensive, friendly inter- action with high degree of confi- dence and trust	No.
In the College of Education is "every man for himself" or does the Dean, administrators, and faculty work as a	"Every man for him- self"	Relatively little coop- erative team- work	A moderate amount of coop- erative team- work	A very sub- stantial a- mount of coop- erative team- work	
team?					49
What is your general attitude toward the College of Education	Hate it	Sometimes hate it; sometimes like it	Usually like it	Like it very much	
as a place to work?		1	1	1 1	50
What is the character of the decision-making process in the College of Education?	Decisions made by top admin- istrators. Orders issued	Decisions made by top admin- istrators with some chance for reactions by lower levels	Decisions made at top after consultation with appropri- ate lower levels	Lower levels involved in decisions affect- ing them. Decisions usually made through con- sensus	
					51
To what extent are you involved in major decisions related to your work?	Not at all	Never involved in decisions related to my work; occasionally consulted	Usually consulted but ordinarily not involved in decisions related to my work	Fully involved in decisions related to my work	
					52



PROFILE OF THE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION AT MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY (Faculty Form) Part I

General Information:

- 1. This questionnaire is being used to collect data for my dissertation, "The College of Education at Michigan State University as an Organization: A Survey of the Perceptions of its Students, Faculty, and Administrators."
- 2. You have been selected at random from the faculty at the College of Education, and your anticipated cooperation is sincerely appreciated.
- 3. It is not necessary to sign the questionnaire. The names of the respondents will be known only to the researcher.
- 4. Copies of the study will be available upon request.
- 5. Please return the completed questionnaire as soon as possible, either to me (Room 409, Erickson Hall) or Mrs. Jacquelyn Fenn, secretary, located next to Room 410A. If possible, I would like to have them returned in three days.

Instructions:

- 1. On the lines below each item, please place an (n) at the point which, in your experience, describes the College of Education at Michigan State University at the present time. (n=now). Treat each horizontal line as a continuum from the extreme at one end to the extreme at the other, i.e., do not think of the vertical lines as barriers.
- 2. Since each faculty member and student differs one from the other, answer the questions as describing the average situation or reaction. The term "faculty member" is intended to include all persons who teach.
- 3. In responding to items concerning students, use as your frame of reference, either graduate or undergraduate student, depending upon which group you devote the greater part of your professional time.

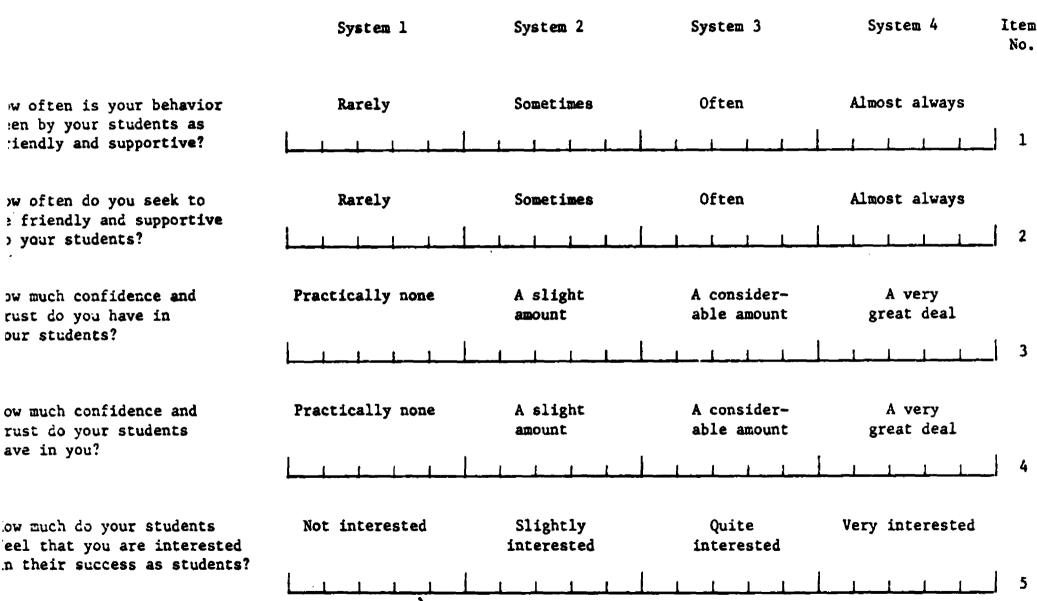
Instructions. -- Continued

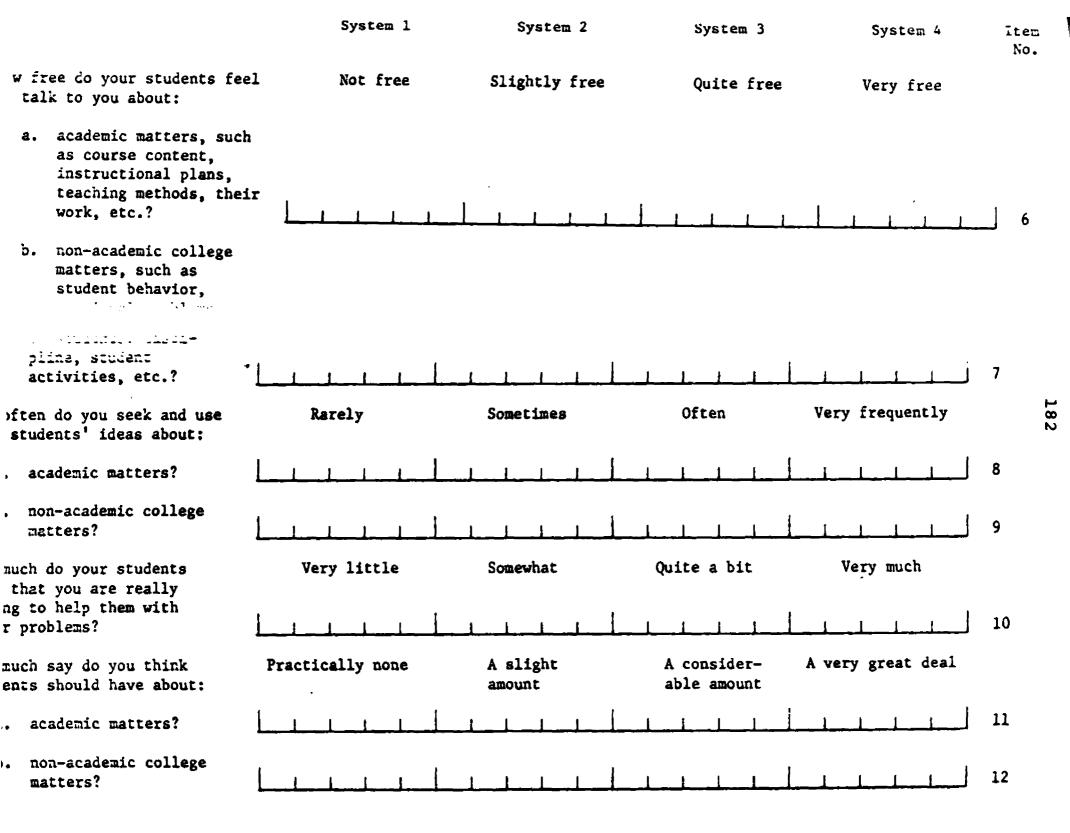
4. In completing the questionnaire it is important that each individual answer each question as thoughtfully and frankly as possible. There are no right or wrong answers. The important thing is that you answer each question the way you see things or the way you feel about them.

FACULTY QUESTIONNAIRE

	Name (optional)
1.1	Age:under 3030-3940-4950-5960+
	MaleFemale
1.2	Department:
1.3	Rank:InstructorAsst. ProfessorAssoc. Professo
	Professor
1.4	Tenure:Tenured faculty
	Not tenure, but subject to tenure rules
	Appointment not subject to rules of tenure
1.5	To which area do you devote the greater part of your professional time?
	TeachingResearchServiceOther (specify)
1.6	Do you give the greater part of your professional time to:
	Undergraduate Studies Graduate Studies Equal time
1.7	
1.8	Year degree awarded
1.9	
1.10	Is most of your work loadon campusoff campus
	equally divided
1.11	If you are an administrator, do you also teach?yesno
	If yes, which group of students are you primarily responsible for?
	undergraduates graduate students both equally



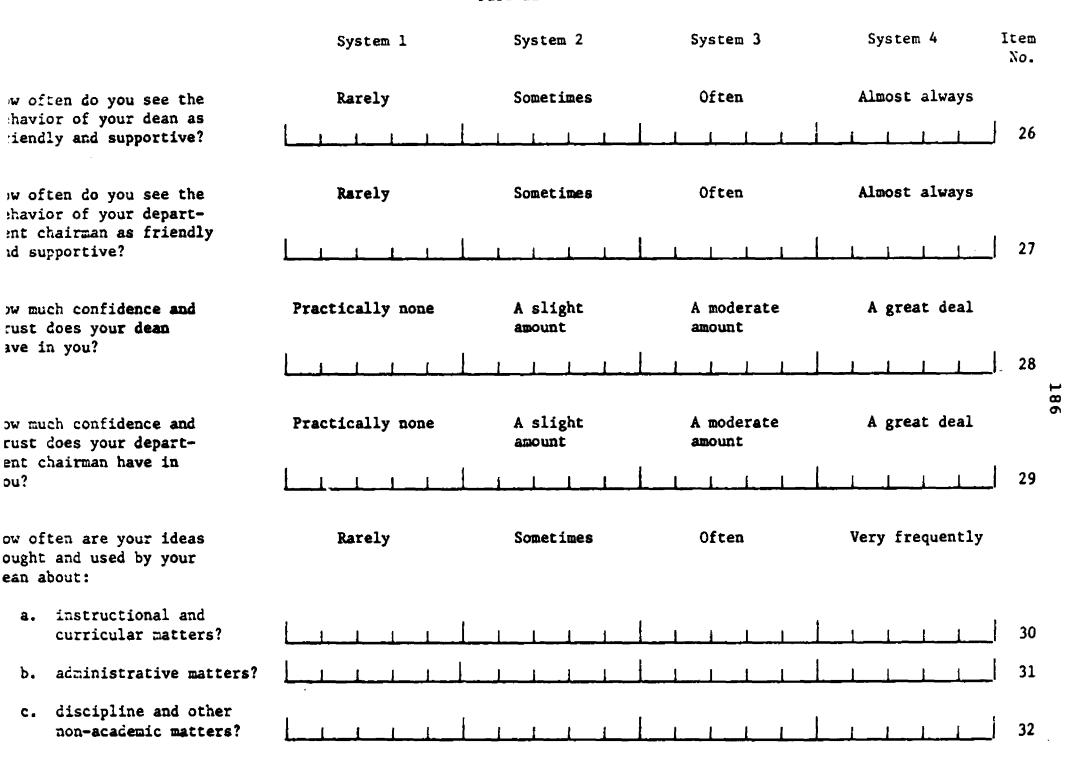


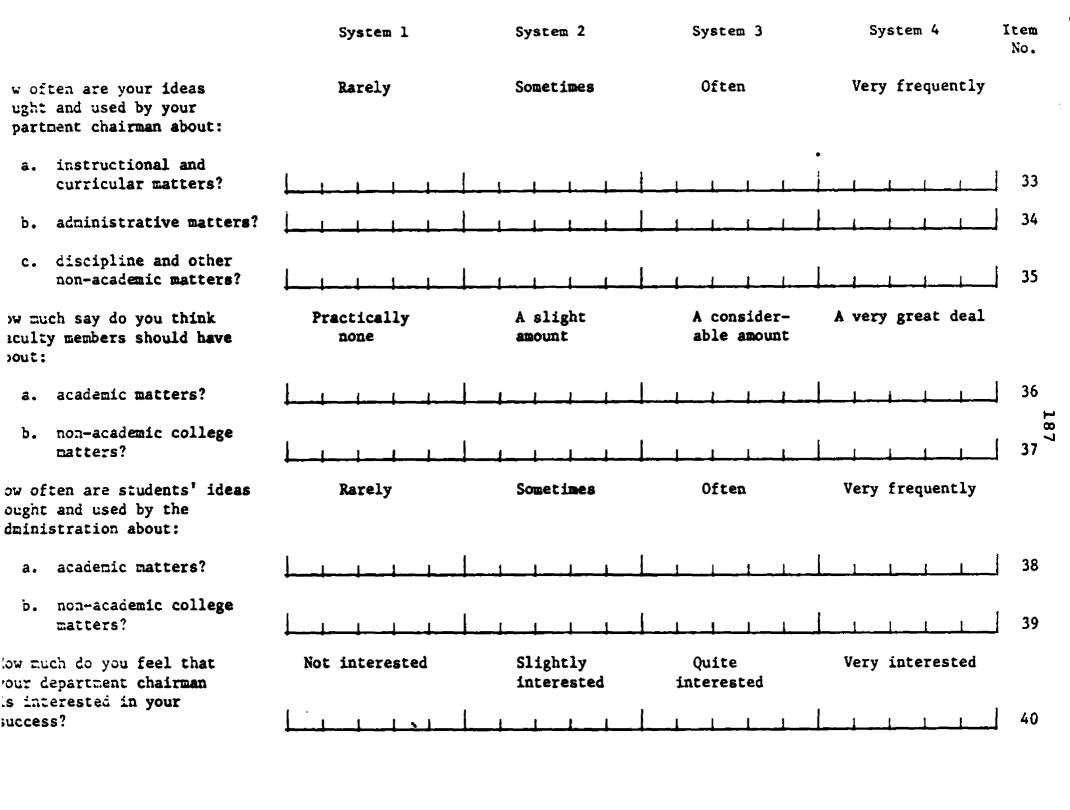


	System 1	System 2	System 3		em io.
o what extent are tudents involved in ajor decisions of them?	Not at all	Never involved in decisions affecting them; occasionally consulted	Usually con- sulted, but ordinarily not involved in decisions affecting them	Fully involved in decisions affecting them	
					13
That is the general attitude of students toward your college?	Dislike it	Sometimes dis- like it, some- times like it	Usually like it	Like it very much	
					14
How accurate is information given to you by your students concerning class, college, or	Usually inaccurate	Often inaccurate	Fairly accurate	Almost always accurate	, ,
personal matters?					15
How do students view communi- cations from:	Communications viewed with great suspicion	Some accepted, some viewed with suspicion	Usually accepted, sometimes cautiously	Almost always accepted. If not, openly and candidly questioned	
a. you?					16
<pre>b. the department chairman?</pre>		<u> </u>	<u> </u>		17
c. the administration?			1 1 1 1		18
How well do you know the problems faced by your students in their college	Not well	Somewhat	Quite well	Very well	
work?					19

	System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4	Item No.
at is the character id amount of inter- ition in your classes?	Very little interaction, usually with fear and distrust	Little inter- action, teacher usually main- tains distance from students	Moderate inter- action, often with fair amount of confidence and trust	Extensive friendly interaction with high degree of confidence and trust	
				<u> </u>	
n your classes, is it every man for himself" r do students work coperatively as a team?	"Every man for himself"	Relatively little cooperative teamwork	A moderate amount of cooperative teamwork	Very sub- stantial amount of cooperative teamwork	
					<u> </u>
ow much influence do tudents have in deci- ions concerning the	Practically none	A slight amount	A consider- able amount	A very great deal	
ubject matter of their ourses?				<u>. </u>	22
iow much influence do you hink students should have in decisions concern-	Practically none	A slight amount	A consider- able amount	A very great deal	
ing the subject matter of their courses?					
lo what extent does having influence on decisions concerning the subject catter of their courses cake students want to	Practically none	A slight amount	A consider- able amount	A very great deal	
work harder?					24

	System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4 Item No.
How much does the class decision-making process con-	Not very much; often weakens it	Relatively little	Some contribution	Substantial contribution
tribute to the desire of students to do a good job?				25

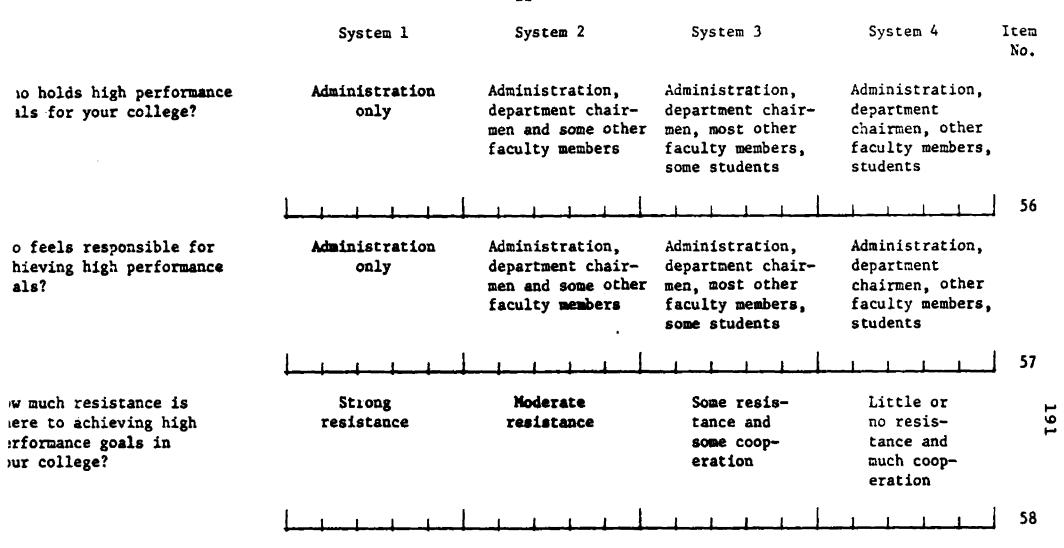




	System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4	Item No.
hat is the general attitude f faculty members toward your ollege as a place to work?	Dislike it	Sometimes dis- like it, some- times like it	Usually like it	Like it very much	
					41
low do you view communications rom:	Communications viewed with great suspicion	Some accepted, some viewed with suspicion	Usually accepted, sometimes cautiously	Almost always accepted. If not, openly and candidly questioned	
a. the administration?					42
b. your department chairman?				<u></u>	43
How accurate is upward communication?	Usually insccurate	Often inaccurate	Fairly accurate	Almost always accurate	
			1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1		44
How well does your dean know the problems you face?	Not very well	Moderately well	Well	Very well	1 ,=
					45
How well does your depart- ment chairman know the problems you face?	Not very well	Moderately well	Well	Very well	46

	System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4	Iten No.
nat is the character and nount of interaction n your college between ou and:	Very little interaction, usually with fear and distrust	Little inter- action, usually maintain dis- tance from one another	Moderate inter- action, often with fair amount of confidence and trust	Extensive, friendly interaction with high degree of confidence and trust	
a. the administration					47
b. your department chairman				 	48
hat is the character and mount of interaction in our college among faculty embers?	Very little interaction, usually with fear and distrust	Little inter- action,pro- fessors usually maintain dis- tance from one another	Moderate inter- action, often with fair amount of confidence and trust	Extensive, friendly interaction with high degree of confidence and trust	189
					49
In your college is it "every name for himself" or do department chairmen, other faculty nembers and students work as a team?	"Every man for himself"	Relatively little cooperative teamwork	A moderate amount of cooperative teamwork	A very sub- stantial amount of cooperative teamwork	
				<u> </u>	50
How much does your department chairman really try to help	Very little	Somewhat .	Quite a bit	Very much	
you with your problems?					51

ecisions made v dean Not at all	Decisions made by dean with some opportunity for department chairman and faculty to comment	Decisions made by dean after extensive discussion with department chair- man and faculty	Decisions made by means of group participation, usually through consensus	
Not at all			ا ا	
Not at all				52
	Never involved in decisions related to my work; ocasion-ally consulted	Usually con- sulted, but ordinarily not involved in decisions related to my work	Fully involved in decisions related to my work	
				53 9
ot very much, ften weakens	Relatively little	Some contribution	Substantial contribution	
				54
ot very much, ften weakens	Relatively little	Some contribution	Substantial contribution	
				55
	t very much,	ally consulted t very much, Relatively little ten weakens t very much, Relatively little ten weakens	ally consulted in decisions related to my work t very much, Relatively little Some contribution t very much, Relatively little Some contribution t very much, Relatively little Some contribution	ally consulted in decisions related to my work It very much, Relatively little Some Substantial contribution contribution It very much, Relatively little Some Substantial contribution It very much, Relatively little Some Substantial contribution contribution



If no one expects a high level of performance, place a check mark here $__$ and skip items 56, 57 and 58.

PROFILE OF THE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION AT MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY (College Student Form)

General Information:

- 1. This questionnaire is being used to collect data for my disseration, "The College of Education at Michigan State University as an Organization: A Survey of the Perceptions of its Students, Faculty, and Administrators."
- You have been selected at random from (undergraduate/graduate) list of students majoring in Education in the College of Education, and your cooperation is sincerely appreciated.
- 3. It is not necessary to sign the questionnaire. The names of the respondents will be known only to the researcher.
- 4. Copies of the study will be available upon request.
- 5. Please return the completed questionnaire as soon as possible, either to me (Room 409, Erickson Hall) or Mrs. Jacquelyn Fenn, secretary, located next to Room 410A. If possible, I would like to have them returned in three days.

Instructions:

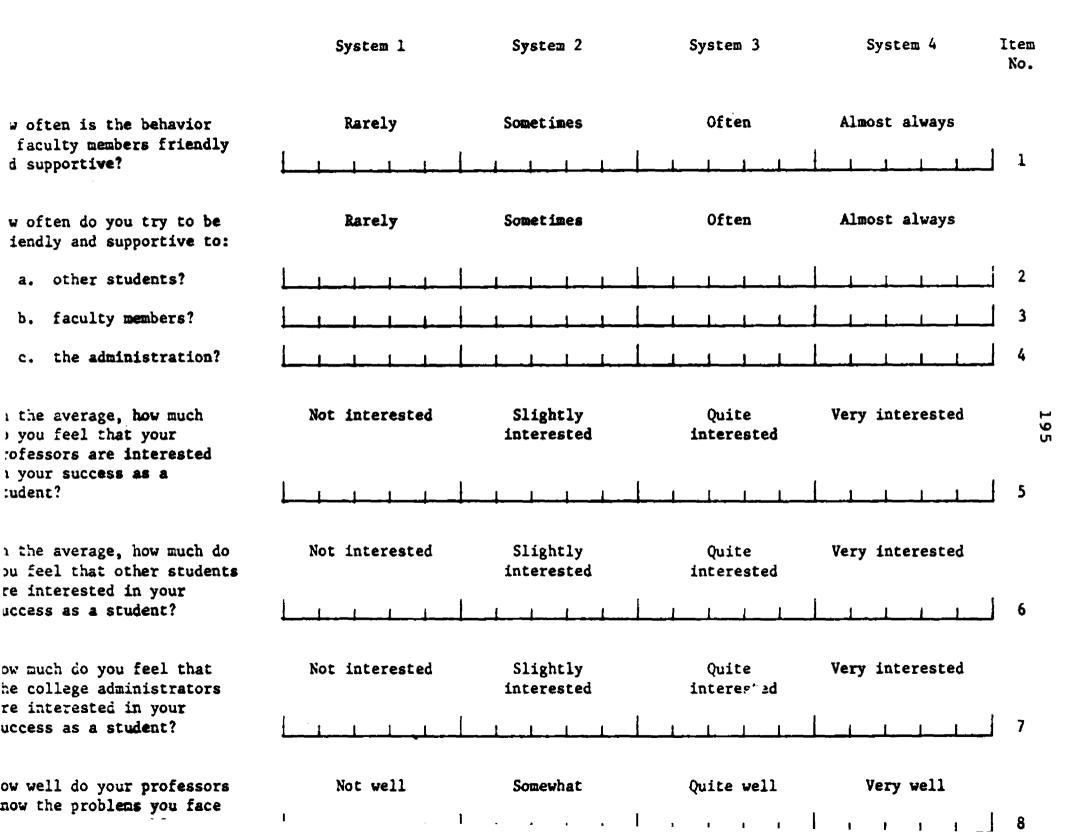
- 1. On the lines below each item, please place an (n) at the point which, in your experience, describes the College of Education at Michigan State University at the present time. (n=now). Treat each horizontal line as a continuum from the extreme at one end to the extreme at the other, i.e., do not think of the vertical lines as barriers.
- 2. Since each faculty member and student differs one from the other, answer the questions as describing the average situation or reaction. The terms "faculty member" and "professor" are intended to include all persons who teach; the term "college administrators" as used here refers primarily to deans, department chairmen, and other academic administrators.

Instructions. -- Continued

3. In completing the questionnaire it is important that each individual answer each question as thoughfully and frankly as possible. There are not right or wrong answers. The important thing is that you answer each question the way you see things or the way you feel about them.

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

	Name (optional)
1.1	Age:under 2526-3031-35over 35
1.2	Sex:MaleFemale
1.3	Graduate StudentUndergraduate Student
1.4	Major Department
1.5	Are you a full time student?yesno
1.6	Are you employed by Michigan State University?yesno
	If yes, in what capacity?
1.7	Where have you taken most of the course work on your present program?
	on campusoff campus
	Which degree are you presently working for?
1.8	In what year did you begin your program?
1.9	In what year do you hope to receive your degree?



	System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4	Item No.
low well do the college admin- istrators know the problems rou face in your course work?	Not well	Somewhat	Quite well	Very well	9
How often do your professors ask for and use your ideas about:	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very frequently	
a. academic matters, such as course content, subjects to be studied, books?			1. 1. 1. 1. 1.		10
b. non-academic school matters, such as discipline and student activities?				<u></u>] 11
How much say do the professors, on the average, think students should have in what goes on in your college as to:	Practically none	A slight amount	A consider- able amount	A very great deal	
a. academic matters?					12
b. non-academic college matters?					13

	S	yste	m 1			S	iys t	em 2				Sys	tem :	3		Sys	tem ·	4	•	Item No.
ow often does the administra- ion ask for and use your ideas bout:	R	arel	у			\$	Some	time	:s			0	ften		Ver	ry f	requ	ently	,	
a. academic matters?				1	1_										_1			L		14
b. non-academic college matters?		_1						_1_		_i_		1_			 	1.				15
ow much say does the admin- stration think students hould have in what goes on - n your college as to:	Practi	call.	y no	one		A a	slig	ht a	moun	t			onsid e amo		A ve	ery	grea	t dea	1	
a. academic matters		1	1.	1											_1					16 7 16 7
b. non-academic college matters?		1	_1	_1_	1	_1				1_				1_	 					17
low much say do students, on the average, think they should have in what goes on in your tollege as to:	Practi	call	.у во	one		A s	slig	ht a	moun	t			onside amo		A ve	ery	grea	t dea	a 1	
a. academic matters?		1		_1	1	<u> </u>	_L_		_1_		L		L		 1_	1				18
b. non-academic college matters?										1	1_				 L_	1_				19

	System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4	Item No.
How much say do you think student should have in what goes on in your college as to:	Practically none	A slight amount	A consider- able amount	A very great deal	
a. academic matters?				1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	20 ل
b. non-academic college matters?	<u></u>] 21
In general, how much confidence and trust do	Practically none	A slight amount	A consider- able amount	A very great deal	. 5
your professors have in you?					ي 22 ل و
How much confidence and trust do the college	Practically none	A slight amount	A consider- able amount	A very great deal	
administrators have in you?					23
How much confidence and trust do you have in	Practically none	A slight amount	A consider- able amount	A very great deal	
your professors?					24
How much confidence and trust do you have in the administration?	Practically mone	A slight amount	A consider- able amount	A very great deal	
Pur GAMTHTOFFEFTAN.					25 ل

	System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4 Item No.
Now free do you feel to alk to your professors about:	Not free	Slightly free	Quite free	Very free
a. problems associated with your work?	 			
b. non-academic college matters?	<u> </u>			27
How accurate is the infor- nation you give to your professors concerning class or college matters?	Usually inaccurate	Often inaccurate	Fairly accurate	Almost always accurate 28
How do you view communi- cations from:	Communications viewed with great suspicion	Some accepted; some viewed with suspicion	Usually accepted; sometimes cautiously	Almost always accepted. If not, openly and candidly questioned
a. the administration?b. your professors?				
How much discussion do you have with your professors about college and other matters?	Very little discussion; usually with fear and distrust	Little discu- sion; distance usually maintained	Moderate discu- sion; often with fair amount of confidence and trust	Extensive, friendly discussion with high degree of confidence and trust
	ı	1	1	1 1 1 31

	System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4	Item No.
o what extent are you nvolved in major deci- ions affecting you?	Not at all	Never involved in decisions affecting me; occasionally consulted	Usually con- sulted, but ordinarily not involved in decisions affecting me	Fully involved in decisions affecting me	
					32
low much influence do you lave in decisions concern-	Practically none	Some	A consider- able amount	A very great deal	
ng the subject matter of rour courses?	L				33
Now much influence do you think students should have in decisions concerning	Practically none	Some	A consider- able amount	A very great deal	200
the subject matter of their courses?		<u> </u>			34
To what extent does having influence on decisions concerning the subject matter of your courses	Practically none	A slight amount	A consider- able amount	A very great deal	
make you want to work harder?					35

(If you have no say, put a check mark here ____)

	System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4	Item No.
your course work, is it very man for himself" or students and professors rk cooperatively as a team?	"Every man for himself"	Relatively little cooperative teamwork	A moderate amount of cooperative teamwork	A very substan- tial amount of cooperative teamwork	
					36
w do you feel toward our college?	Dislike it	Sometimes dis- like it, some- times like it	Usually like it	Like it very much	
				لسسا	37
ow much do your professors eally try to help you with our problems?	Very little	Somewhat	Quite a bit	Very much	38
Who holds high performance oals for your college?	The administration	The administra- tion, department chairmen and some professors	The administration, department chairmen, most professors, some students	The administra- tion, department chairmen, pro- fessors, students	
		1.1.1.1.1.1			39

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

	System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4	Item No.
) feels responsible for nieving high performance als?	The administration	The administra- tion, department chairmen and some professors	The administra- tion, department chairmen, most professors, some students	The administra- tion, department chairmen, pro- fessors, students	
	1-1-1-1-1				40
w much resistance is there achieving high performance als?	Strong resistance	Moderate resistance	Some resis- tance and some coop- eration	Little or no resistance and much cooperation	
	1_1_1_1				41

202