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A Study of the Relationship between Managerial Style of Community College Presidents and Faculty Perceptions of Educational Concepts

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A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MANAGERIAL STYLE OF COMMUNITY COLLEGE PRESIDENTS AND FACULTY PERCEPTIONS OF EDUCATIONAL CONCEPTS

by

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Robert James Wollam

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

The community college is the fastest-growing segment of higher education in the United States. By 1975 total enrollment is expected to surpass that of four-year institutions (U.S. Office of Education, 1972). For this reason alone it is important to consider just how effectively community colleges are being managed. The need to do this is commented upon by Gleazer (1964):

> It is my impression that community colleges have tended to stay well within the boundaries of current educational practice and procedure. Frequently described as flexible, dynamic, new and responsive, the community college does not often actually fit that description (p.14).

Also, if changes do need to be made, this growth factor will enhance the potential to do so, as it has always been difficult to introduce real educational change into existing systems.

One measure of how well an institution is being managed is the harmony that exists between the president and the faculty. An expression of this harmony is found in how closely views are held on issues relating to the educational process.

A central theme in the literature on organizational

theory relates leadership or managerial style to the productivity or effectiveness of the organization as a whole. As previously stated, one measure of effective leadership is the harmony that exists within the institution. It is this relationship between the managerial style of a community college president and faculty perceptions of educational concepts that this study intends to explore.

A manager is a person occupying a position in a formal organization who is responsible for the work of others. The way he behaves in carrying out his duties is known as his managerial style. The four basic styles used in this investigation are: (1) Integrated, (2) Dedicated, (3) Related, and (4) Separated.

The educational concepts were chosen as those which appeared most frequently in the periodical literature concerning the community college. The nine concepts used are: (1) Individualized Instruction, (2) Open Admissions Policy, (3) Career Education, (4) Behavioral Objectives, (5) Faculty Governance, (6) Student Grievance Procedure, (7) Accountability, (8) Collective Bargaining, and (9) Fiscal Responsibility.

Statement of the Problem

It is the basic purpose of this study to answer the following question: What is the relationship between the managerial style of a community college president and the

perceptions of certain educational concepts held by the faculty of that institution? This is explored further by the more specific questions and hypothesis listed below:

Question One.--What is the basic managerial style of each of the six community college presidents?

Question Two.--What are the mean responses to each of the nine educational concepts with respect to the Evaluative, Potency, and Activity factors by the faculty of each of the six institutions?

Question Three.--What are the differences in the mean responses to each of the nine educational concepts with respect to the Evaluative, Potency, and Activity factors when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president?

H_1: There are differences in the mean responses to each of the nine educational concepts with respect to the Evaluative, Potency, and Activity factors when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president.

Definition of Terms

The use of the following terms in this study is intended to carry the attached definitions:

Managerial style is the way in which an administrator or manager behaves as measured by the amount of Task Orientation and Relationships Orientation he uses. Task Orientation is the extent to which an administrator or manager directs his own and his subordinates' efforts, characterized by initiating, organizing, and directing. Relationships Orientation is the extent to which he has personal

job relationships, characterized by listening, trusting, and encouraging. There are four basic styles: (1) Dedicated--a basic style with more than average Task Orientation and less than average Relationships Orientation; (2) Integrated--a basic style with more than average Relationships Orientation and more than average Task Orientation; (3) Related--a basic style with less than average Task Orientation and more than average Relationships Orientation; and (4) Separated--a basic style with less than average Task Orientation and less than average Relationships Orientation.

A community college president is the chief administrative officer of a two-year institution of higher learning.

Educational concepts are abstract ideas concerning teaching and learning generalized from particular instances.

Faculty refers to the professional personnel of the institutions in this study who are directly involved with the instruction of students.

Need and Significance of the Study

Long identified as the most viable of American educational institutions, the public community college has been credited with making "the greatest educational advancement in the twentieth century" (Sava, 1967). The two-year

college is confronted with unprecedented challenge and opportunity because "for the first time in our national history, public education has failed to prepare adequately a whole generation of urban Americans for the increasingly complex world of tomorrow" (Hauser, 1967).

If public community colleges are to be the major hope for the future of American higher education, new leadership must be developed--leadership that will provide the impetus for educational change resulting in improved practice. A leader is not really a manager in the formal sense. He is someone seen by others as being primarily responsible for achieving group objectives. His effectiveness is measured by the extent to which he influences his followers to achieve group objectives (Reddin, 1970).

The community college presidency is still the most important position within the institution in terms of the exercising of leadership. The situation may change in the future as a result of faculties' growing power, but up to now the president has had the major say in educational policy on his campus (Cohen, 1969).

It is axiomatic that the overall goals of an organization necessitate cooperation among the different levels of personnel involved in the progress of the institution. Authentic communication among those in a social system is an important variable in the effectiveness of that system according to Roethlisberger (1968) and Stogdill (1965).

However, ambiguities in concept usage and meaning can be a severe deterrent to effectiveness within such systems.

"Most social scientists would agree--talking freely on common-sense grounds--that how a person behaves in a situation depends upon what that situation means or signifies to him. And most would also agree that one of the most important factors in social activity is meaning and change in meaning--whether it be termed 'attitude,' or 'value,' or something else again" (Osgood, 1957). Therefore, the extent to which a community college achieves its goals might well be influenced by the relationship between the managerial style of the president and how the faculty members view certain educational concepts.

Theoretical Rationale

Leadership and the study of human behavior in organizations has been a recurrent theme in studies by behavioral scientists. There is consensus that management philosophy is a keystone variable in influencing individual behavior within an organization (Bogue, 1971). A variation on the basic theme which has caused considerable discussion is the McGregor (1960) and Argyris (1957) thesis of the potential conflict between a healthy human personality and formal organizations administered strictly according to rational principles of organization. These authors suggest that the dependency relations created by authoritarian

organizations and enforced through management direction and control conflict with basic human needs for reasonable independence and self-direction.

A characteristic of one who exhibits the dedicated managerial style, for example, is that he tends to dominate others. On the other hand, a related manager is one who accepts others as he finds them. Therefore, given McGregor's and Argyris' thesis, it would seem reasonable to expect a difference in the way the faculties of these two presidents holding different managerial styles would perceive the different educational concepts.

A study conducted by the General Electric Company and described by Koontz and O'Donnell (1972) found that employee attitudes reflect the extent to which managers have acted responsibly in satisfying the goals of employees. Similarly, Longenecker (1969) points out that an individual's perception of the facts in an administrative situation may be different from the facts themselves. Nonetheless, one's attitude and behavior are governed by his perception of the situation rather than by the facts themselves. If this be true, it would follow that a faculty's perception of the educational concept would be dependent upon how they perceived the managerial style of their president.

Roethlisberger (1966) has described the things that employees really want in this way:

> People like to feel important and to have their work recognized as important. They like to work in an atmosphere of approval. They like to be praised rather than blamed. They like to know what is expected of them and where they stand in relation to their boss's expectations. They like to have some warning of the changes that may affect them. They like to feel independent in their relations to their superiors and to be able to express their feelings to them without being misunderstood (pp. 469-470).

Therefore, a faculty member holding these views would have different perceptions depending upon the exhibited managerial style of his president.

The testing of the hypothesis of this study requires the measuring of differences between groups in terms of what concepts mean to the members of the groups. The measuring device used in this study is the Semantic Differential. It is not a "test" in the usual sense of the word but is, in fact, a "highly generalized technique of measurement" (Osgood, 1957), which must be adapted to a given situation and geared to the specific requirements of a study. The uniqueness of the experimental design determines the content of the format of the Semantic Differential as far as the particular concepts and scales are concerned. The common factor is the underlying theory and assumptions as formulated by Osgood, who, in a brief summary, states:

> We believe that we are validly measuring at least certain aspects of a very important variable in human behavior, meaning, and that therefore our type of instrument has many

> valuable applications. But it has also become increasingly clear that our original conceptions were insufficient, that human semantic processes are very complex, and that problems of meaning are inextricably confounded with more general problems of human thinking or cognition (p. 318).

Kerlinger (1964) has noted that very few studies in the area of education have used the Semantic Differential and observes:

> The semantic differential can be applied to a variety of research problems. It has been shown to be sufficiently reliable and flexible for many research purposes. It is also flexible and relatively easy to adapt to varying research demands, quick and economical to administer and to score. The main problems as indicated earlier, are to select appropriate and relevant analyses. In both cases the research is faced with a plethora of possibilities. Selection and choice, as usual, are determined by the nature of the problems explored and the hypotheses tested (p. 578).

> The actual semantic differential consists of a number of scales, each of which is a bipolar adjective pair, chosen from a large number of such scales for a particular research purpose, together with concepts to be rated with the scales. The scales, or bipolar adjectives, are seven-point (usually) rating scales, and the underlying nature of which has been determined empirically. That is, each scale measures one, sometimes two, of the basic dimensions or factors that Osgood and his colleagues have found to be behind the scales: Evaluative, Potency, Activity. These factors may be called clusters of adjectives (pp. 566-567).

Overview

The purpose of this study is to determine the relationship between the managerial style of the president of

each of six community colleges in Southwestern Michigan and the manner in which the faculty of each institution perceived certain educational concepts. The colleges are characterized by the fact that rural, suburban, and metropolitan institutions are included. Each college president and a representative from the faculty of each institution was contacted prior to the beginning of the study to solicit the support and cooperation of all participants.

Reddin's Managerial Style Diagnosis Test was administered by the researcher to each participating president. The Semantic Differential was given to the faculty members of each institution. The method by which the concepts were identified will be explained in Chapter III.

In Chapter I, an introduction, the problem, definitions, significance, and theoretical rationale of the study were stated.

In Chapter II, the literature pertinent to the study will be reviewed. The techniques utilized to collect and analyze the data will be described in Chapter III, and the analysis of the findings will be presented in Chapter IV. The discussion of the results, their implications, and recommendations for further research will be presented in Chapter V.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The primary purpose of this study, as stated in Chapter I, was to determine the relationship between the managerial styles of community college presidents and faculty perceptions of certain educational concepts.

In general, there was a paucity of research reports regarding the specific relationship between presidents and faculties, but an abundance of publications describing managerial styles as well as the nature of concept assessment. The problem is not the absence of research; the problem is lack of research in the specific topic area of this study.

Consequently, the discussion of the literature will be divided into three parts. The first will describe the historical trends in the study of leader behavior; the second will deal with the nature of concept assessment and perceptual differences; and, finally, a study will be discussed that seems to be related in a tangential way to the present one.

Leader Behavior: Historical Trends

Around the end of the nineteenth century, European

social scientist Weber developed what has become known as the classical model for the bureaucratic organization. The concept was a depersonalized and mechanistic one, stressing form and structure, and has been characterized as minimizing the human aspects of the organization as well as the relationship between the organization and its environment (Hall, 1963).

Modern concepts of the leadership image began to appear around the beginning of this century when Taylor (1947) and his associates developed the "scientific management" theory, which was first published in 1911. The industrial culture of the early twentieth century readily accepted the ideas of the scientific manager. The concept of the leader as a scientific manager placed stress on efficiency, time and motion studies, and improved production rates. Taylor and his "scientific management movement" have been criticized for stressing the mechanical, rather than the human, elements of the organization. However, this oversimplifies the complexity of Taylor's work.

French industrialist Fayol (1949) likewise paid little heed to the human aspect within a productive enterprise, but laid the foundation for the functional school. Emphasis was placed, during this era, on the worker being viewed as a resource to be managed in the production process, with his technical capacities being utilized to the fullest extent. A highly efficient organization was the

goal, with the psychological forces of human interaction being ignored for the most part.

The demise of the practical application of scientific management as a model developed shortly before the beginning of World War I, following a period of open resistance to the concept on the part of organized labor. Follett (1920), reacting to the mechanistic and impersonal perceptions of organizations of Weber, Taylor, and Fayol, was among the first to stress the significance of the human element in administration.

During the early World War I years the concept of the leader as an "organizational engineer" developed. The image was brought about by those who were attempting to conceptualize the essential elements of management if the organization was to function with a useful purpose. Earlier, Fayol had identified the "elements of management" as planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating, and controlling. There have been numerous other efforts to discover the basic action components of administration. For example, Gulick (1937) produced a famous catalog of components based upon his study of the United States presidency: planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting (POSDCORB). Such efforts at analysis were made primarily by scholars concerned with business administration and public administration. Educational administration encouraged almost no scholarship in these areas

for nearly the first half of the century. However, educators did finally follow suit, and, by 1950, Sears (1950) had adapted Fayol's and Gulick's ideas to education by suggesting that the components of the administrative activity were comprised of planning, organizing, directing, coordinating, and controlling (about the time management was beginning to deemphasize them).

During the Depression years the notable work of Barnard (1938) brought into prominence the image of the institutional leader as a "social engineer." This concept, given impetus by the Western Electric studies conducted by Mayo (1933), Roethlisberger (1939), and others, provided a significant amount of information concerning the importance of human relations in an organization.

Sufficient enunciation of the importance of human motivation, sentiments, and group processes was generally lacking in the leadership concept of the efficiency expert and the organizational engineer. Writers have since credited the Hawthorne experiements with the beginnings of the development of a behavioristic model of organization, which accepts man as he is. Thus the human factor emerged, and concern for the needs of the worker was demonstrated in the special attention accorded him during this period of study.

At about the time that the impact of the findings and interpretations resulting from the Hawthorne studies was

being felt in leadership circles, Lewin (1939) was influential in stressing the clinician image for the leader. The process of inducing change in behavior by reducing psychological and social forces tending to produce resistance to change (termed "force-field analysis") evolved from his studies in group dynamics.

Out of the research of this era emerged the human relations movement, which stressed the idea that leaders must be more sensitive to the diversity of human needs if they are to deal effectively with the problems of motivation and conflict within their organization. A host of training and development programs came into being dealing with human relations.

A recent trend in management philosophy is that of industrial humanism. Such scholars as McGregor, Blake, Argyris, Herzberg, and Likert have provided much of the theory and a small empirical base for this movement. The hierarchical need structure proposed by Maslow has been the basis of the work of many of these theorists.

Because it was thought by business leaders of the day that man is traditionally opposed to work, notions of control and authority have occupied prevalent positions in management philosophy. Nevertheless, it is generally agreed that Maslow's (1954) motivational psychology has had its impact on management philosophy. Maslow's theory is evident in McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Theory Y

notions of management and leadership. Maslow's influence is likewise apparent in Likert's (1967) participative approach to management. Threads of Maslow's theory can also be traced in Argyris' (1957), Blake's (1964), and Herzberg's (1966) theoretical presentations. The industrial humanist movement, with more ideology than data, consistent with other behavioral approaches, encourages development of greater interpersonal competency on the part of leaders.

As the study of leadership assumed a more systematic stance, certain psychological assumptions could be noted as being basic to each approach for analyzing human behavior. One of the earliest attempts at systematic study of leadership centered on the characteristics of leaders, and established their relationship to leader behavior. The basic assumption underlying this traitist approach was that an individual's behavior was largely determined by his unique personality structure. All sought to determine the physical, intellectual, and personality traits of the leader as compared to the non-leader of a given situation. Lengthy lists of traits were compiled by many researchers, but when they were compared, only a small percentage was common. Stogdill (1948) reports that various studies of the personal characteristics of leadership resulted in contradictory findings, and Gibb (1954) states that "numerous studies of leaders have failed to find any consistent

patterns of traits which characterize leaders."

The burden of evidence seems to indicate that the conception of leaders as those who possess certain distinctive characteristics--the personality syndrome of the universal leader--has not proved satisfactory. In general, trait studies have done little to advance knowledge about leadership because conflicting results indicate that leaders have been successful despite their exhibition of strikingly dissimilar traits.

There is a growing emphasis on the comprehensive situational theory of worker performance, which considers all of these previously mentioned approaches without focusing unduly on any one. The research efforts of the situational theory approach to the study of leadership turned away from the personal needs and characteristics to the study of organizational roles and characteristics. Researchers attended more to the sociological dimension by attempting to assess and compare such situational variables as morale, goals, affection, and cohesiveness. It considers the interaction of the leader with the environment in which he must function and the impact of the environment on him. The situational theory approach looks at the actual behavior of a person known at a given moment of time as leader.

Perhaps the strongest supporters of the situational approach to leadership are Hemphill (1949) and Fiedler (1966), who, as a result of their many studies in the

field, maintain that there is no absolute leader. Successful leaders, they say, must take into account the specific needs of the group. These needs may be as diverse as the individuals comprising the group. Stogdill (1948) says, "Leadership must be conceived in terms of the interaction of variables which are in a constant state of flux."

Focusing exclusively on leader behavior, Halpin (1956) and the Ohio State University studies--involving the efforts of specialists in several academic disciplines--state that nothing in the extensive research investigations using the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire thus far contradicts the situational approach to studying leadership.

Integral parts of leadership research are the theory and research which have led to the classification and identification of leadership styles. The growing interest in styles of leadership and management began in the late 1950's, and is with us today. The central idea is that a leader should respond either in a particular way to most situations or in a flexible way, depending upon the situation. The approach is essentially psychological in that classification schemes of the style theorists tend to focus primarily on personality variables rather than on situational variables. Among the more well-known style models are Blake's Grid (1964), Likert's Management System (1967), and McGregor's X-Y Theory (1960).

The theme that is apparent in recent management and leadership literature is that rigid, stereotyped notions of leadership styles seem increasingly to be considered irrelevant. Apparently, as one might conclude, there is no personality syndrome characteristic of all effective leaders, nor is there a leadership style appropriate for all organizational situations.

All this research, then, suggests that since the notion of a single style is not sound and therefore is not useful, styles are best seen in relation to specific situations. Any style has a situation in which it is appropriate and many situations in which it is inappropriate. What is indicated, then, is the necessity of considering leadership behavior and the situation together. The kind of leader who seems to succeed in a variety of situations--the effective leader--is certainly not one who reacts to all situations in the same way.

Considerations of leader behavior (or managerial effectiveness) in the present study are based primarily upon Reddin's 3-D Theory (1970), which is a situational theory drawing on the central concepts of the approaches to leadership discussed above. Of all the popular behavioral theories, Fiedler's Leadership Contingency Model (1966) most resembles the 3-D Theory, as it also is a situational model and is primarily interested in leadership effectiveness.

The key situational elements or dimensions in Fiedler's approach are (1) power of leader, (2) degree of structure of task, and (3) leader-member relations. By combining his three dimensions, Fiedler produces eight types of situations. The 3-D Theory, on the other hand, combines Task Orientation and Relationships Orientation resulting in one of eight managerial styles.

At the heart of the 3-D Theory is a very simple idea, discovered in a long series of psychological research studies. In these studies it was discovered that two main elements in leader behavior concerned the task to be done and relationships with other people. It was also found that leaders sometimes emphasized one and sometimes emphasized the other, and that these two elements of behavior could be used in small or large amounts. For instance, a leader could be very much task oriented or only slightly task oriented. Also, both behaviors could be used together (the 3-D term is Integrated Style), the task behavior could be used alone (Dedicated Style), relationships behavior could be used alone (Related Style), or each could be used to only a small degree (Separated Style). The four basic styles are arranged as shown in Figure 1. The TO dimension indicates Task Orientation, and the RO indicates Relationships Orientation. The Integrated Style, with high Task Orientation and high Relationships Orientation, is so named because it describes behavior which combines both orienta-

tions to a high degree. The Dedicated Style describes managerial behavior with high Task Orientation but low Relationships Orientation, that is, behavior which is dedicated to the job. The Related Style, having high Relationships Orientation alone, is related to subordinates. The Separated Style is a basic style with both low Task Orientation and low Relationships Orientation. This style, then, is separated from both TO and RO.

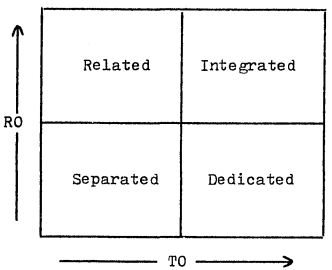

Fig. 1.--Reddin's four basic styles

It is important to remember that the four basic styles are a convenience and not a fact. The lines separating the four styles do not really exist; they were drawn to make it easier to talk about behavior. No one, therefore, is definitely categorized when called "related" or something else. The term, as with any style label, means "more like that style than like any other style"--

only that. These four basic styles represent four ways of talking about types of behavior. Not all types of leader behavior will fit neatly into these four types, but they are very useful as a general framework.

Perceptual Differences of Concepts

There is considerable literature dealing with the way different individuals perceive the same concepts which, in turn, result in several theories of perception. According to Day (1966), the most general is the Gestalt theory of perception, which heavily influences experimental inquiry even today, over a half-century since its discovery. The role of stimulus relationships and central nervous processes in the determination of perceptual phenomena is stressed in Gestalt psychology (Weintraub and Walker, 1966). The part played by learning and perceptual stability in a constantly changing environment is emphasized in the functionalist theory (Brunswick, 1955). Hence it might be said that the way a person perceives a situation may be determined by some aspect of his own personality or by social circumstances. Experiments by McCleary and Lazarus (1949) and Blackwell (1958) clearly show that people perceive stimuli differently even when unable to report the awareness of those stimuli.

Expectations of differences in the way concepts are perceived by professional educators are related by Bruner

and Postman (1958) as follows:

> Perceptual organization is powerfully determined by expectations built upon past commerce with the environment. When such expectations are violated by the environment, the perceiver's behavior can be described as resistant to the recognition of the unexpected or incongruous (pp. 662-663).

It is apparent from the above that different professionals have different sets of perceptions from which meaning is derived; otherwise, individual differences of personality and background would be meaningless.

Harvey, Hunt, and Schroder (1961) have stated: "That the same external event may be evaluated differently by different persons no doubt is a timeless truism." Therefore, the present study will be concerned with where these differences occur between faculties and presidents as they perceive certain concepts.

A Community College Study

To develop guidelines for institutional assessment, Park (1971) conducted a study which looked specifically at the characteristics within three community colleges. The study was part of a larger study coordinated by the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges at the University of California at Los Angeles. This particular phase of the study was concerned with staff values.

First, Park sought to identify the values held by

the instructors. Secondly, he contrasted the value rankings by institution. Thirdly, he determined the faculty's view of the institutional environment and where they saw themselves in it. Lastly, he determined the relationships between their values and the perceptions they had of their college and its functions and purposes. This, he found, covered a tremendous amount of material, and he made the following observation concerning the great mass of data:

> Since there have been few in-depth studies made of institutional characteristics relating to staff values and perceptions, this project is considered only a pilot investigation (pp. 2-3).

Two instruments were utilized by Park. One was the Staff Survey, which is divided into subsections seeking data which are related to the person, his views, and his values. The other device was Rokeach's Value Survey, in which each staff member ranked himself in terms of his own criteria of priorities from a list of 18 terminal values and 18 instrumental values. Examples of the former would be "freedom" and "wisdom" and of the latter, such items as "ambitious" and "cheerful."

Park reported these direct observations as objectively as possible, utilizing median ranks, clusters of responses, and frequencies. He cautioned, however, that the graphic representations were based on material which was largely subjective and that any interpretations must take that into account. In summarizing his conclusions, he says in

part:

> . . . the subjects surveyed differentiate between terminal values and instrumental values. The composite desired end-states of existence are personal while the composite modes of conduct relate more directly to their professional lives. The terminal values are considered to be more closely related to the satisfaction of needs and have little to do with the outside world. The desired ends ranked highest, according to the composite median score, were self-oriented rather than socially oriented. Freedom, for example, is not equated with Equality. Freedom, therefore, can be interpreted to mean freedom for the self only and not for all people (p. 46).

Park then developed his conclusions somewhat further. He pointed out that authorities on values, perceptions, and personality have not established any firm and absolute definitions for these terms. Nevertheless, he felt that there was still enough common agreement from which to at least state operational definitions, and he used this rationale as the basis for his conclusions.

It was in these final conclusions that he issued what seemed to be an indictment of the community college faculty members. He felt that they were much more narrow and self-centered than most people have been led to believe. He observed that most of the faculty were overly preoccupied in their personal concern for "self," which went beyond material comforts and was more clearly a concern for self as a sense of well-being.

Summary

The literature reporting the historical trends in leader behavior leads to the conclusion that the modern-day situational approach seems to dominate the thinking and writing in this field. The leader, the group, and the task to be completed are integral parts of this philosophy. Since the way in which a situation is perceived by the group in part determines the manner in which the task is accomplished, these perceptions need to be examined to determine what influences their formation.

Since decision-making takes place all over the institution, writes Ashby (1964), the college president should only coordinate and balance these decisions and not generate ideas from the top. Keeney (1949), the former president of Brown University, agrees. He writes:

> The president cannot make the trustees do anything; he cannot make the alumni do anything; he cannot make the public do anything; he cannot make the faculty do anything; though he can stop them from doing anything; and good students are impervious to direct orders.

The above, it might be added, is a problem not unique to community college presidents.

Priest (1965) apparently recognized this difficulty of deciding what the role of a college president is when he wrote his advice to boards of trustees who were selecting a new president. He recommended that each board carefully outline the objectives of their college and, in

light of this outline, decide if the college president ought to be a strong educational leader or an implementor of already existing plans.

It is apparent that a college president may or may not be an educational leader, but he must be an effective manager. To discover whether or not his managerial skill has impact on faculty perception of educational concepts is the purpose of this study.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Introduction

The investigation began in August of 1973, when the presidents of six community colleges in Michigan were interviewed and asked to participate in the study. All were most cooperative, and each president agreed to set up the internal procedures needed to carry out the plan. The colleges included in the study were: (1) Grand Rapids Junior College, (2) Kalamazoo Valley Community College, (3) Kellogg Community College, (4) Lake Michigan Community College, (5) Muskegon Community College, and (6) Washtenaw Community College.

The strategy was to accomplish the task in two phases. The first phase concerned the collection of data from the six presidents. This included gathering the information needed to determine which concepts would be utilized in the Semantic Differential, and administering the Management Style Diagnosis Test. The second phase involved giving the Semantic Differential to the faculty members of each institution. Collection of all data was completed by late October.

Selection of Colleges

Because the nature of the project involved personal contact with the president and faculty of each institution, the dictates of time and geography limited the selection of colleges to those close at hand. Also, an attempt was made to insure some representativeness by soliciting colleges from rural, suburban, and urban areas. Each college was given a code letter to protect its identity. Table 1 presents information concerning those institutions selected.

TABLE 1.--Distribution of community college faculty members participating from each college

College Code	Total Faculty	Number of Responses	% of Total Faculty
A	87	73	84
B	66	46	70
C	181	123	71
D	132	31	24
E	103	19	18
F	110	16	15
Total	679	308	46

It was originally contemplated that the Semantic Differential would be administered to each faculty when assembled as a group. This was accomplished in three of the institutions, but not in the remaining three. The relatively high percentage of faculty members responding

in Institutions A, B, and C is accounted for by the fact that it was possible to administer the instrument during faculty meetings at these institutions. The smaller percentages in Institutions D, E, and F occurred because there were no scheduled group gatherings; therefore, responses had to be obtained by an alternate means, namely, a letter request to each individual faculty member with the Semantic Differential attached.

Selection of Instruments

Two data-gathering devices were utilized in this study. One was the Management Style Diagnosis Test (Appendix C), developed by Reddin (1970), which was administered to each president. The other was a form developed by the researcher, utilizing the Semantic Differential (Appendix A), which was given to the faculty of each institution.

Management Style Diagnosis Test

The Management Style Diagnosis Test consists of sixty-four pairs of statements. The manager is asked to pick one from each pair that best describes the way he behaves on his current job. Through an analysis of the answers he selects from the questionnaire, his perception of his own management style is measured. It provides him with his style profile, which is essentially a description of the extent to which he uses each style. The style labels

"Integrated," "Dedicated," "Related," and "Separated" were chosen to avoid the suggestion that some styles are much better than others. All four styles are concerned with two types of behavior, known as Task Orientation (TO) and Relationships Orientation (RO). Task Orientation is the extent to which a manager directs his own and his subordinates' efforts, characterized by initiating, organizing, and directing. Relationships Orientation is the extent to which a manager has personal job relationships, characterized by listening, trusting, and encouraging.

The Integrated style has high TO and high RO and is so named because it describes managerial behavior that effectively combines both elements. The Dedicated style describes behavior with high TO, but low RO--that is, behavior dedicated to the job. The Related style, having high RO alone, is related to subordinates. The Separated style is a basic style with both low TO and low RO. This style, then, is separated from both types of behavior.

The Management Style Diagnosis Test was selected because it measures the manner in which the typical functions of a manager (e.g., planning, organizing, directing, and controlling) are handled. These functions are the same whether the manager is a business executive or a community college president.

Reliability

Test-retest reliability data were obtained by Reddin (1970). In a sample of 104 subjects, the coefficients ranged from .57 to .76, based on a three-month study. A subsequent study, over a two-year period where the subjects had changed positions, revealed much lower reliability coefficients (Pearson), from .27 to .42.

Validity

According to Reddin, the Management Style Diagnosis Test differentiates very well between groups in a predicted direction. The instrument was administered to fifty-nine heads of voluntary agencies, who, unlike managers, do most of their work with people who have power equal to, if not greater than, the agency heads. This tends to make a high Relationships Orientation more effective. Reddin notes that 41 percent of the agency heads had a Related style, and the nearest other style included only 11 percent of the participants.

In another group of thirty-three corporation presidents and vice presidents, 49 percent had an Integrated style. Because business executives at this level are likely to be effective and usually supervise managers who interact, high TO and high RO are to be expected. The next closest style included only 12 percent of those participating in the study.

Semantic Differential

All meanings of concepts were measured by means of the Semantic Differential. It is described by Osgood (1957) as follows:

> Although we often refer to the semantic differential as if it were some kind of "test," having some definite set of items and a specific score, this is not the case. To the contrary, it is a very general way of getting to a certain type of information, a highly generalized technique of measurement which must be adapted to the requirement of each research problem to which it is applied. There are no standard concepts and no standard scales; rather, the concepts and scales used in a particular study depend upon the purposes of the research. Standardization, and hence comparability, lies in the allocation of concepts to a common semantic space defined by a common set of general factors, despite variability in the particular concepts and scales employed (pp. 77-78).

The subject is asked to rate a concept on a series of graphically constructed bipolar scales. The terms by which a concept is rated are usually paired adjectives; the number of points on the scale is optional, with the usual number being seven. The term "concept" is used in a very general way to refer to the stimulus to which the subject responds. What may function as a concept in this broad sense is practically limitless. It could be the name of a person, a political issue, a type of music, or an educational concept. It is the nature of the problem, then, that chiefly defines the form of concept to be selected.

Concepts

The nine educational concepts used in constructing the Semantic Differential were selected by first tabulating the terms which appeared most frequently in the 1972 issues of Junior College Journal and Chronicle of Higher Education. This list of eighteen terms or concepts was presented to each of the six community college presidents participating in the study, and they were asked to indicate which concepts had some degree of importance to the community college movement. The presidents were asked to indicate whether they considered each as "highly important," "of some importance," or "of little importance." For scoring purposes, a value of 5, 3, and 1 was placed on each category, respectively. The nine concepts that received the highest number of points were selected for use in the study. They appear in the Semantic Differential used in this investigation in the following random order: (1) Individualized Instruction, (2) Open Admissions Policy, (3) Career Education, (4) Behavioral Objectives, (5) Faculty Governance, (6) Student Grievance Procedure, (7) Accountability, (8) Collective Bargaining, and (9) Fiscal Responsibility.

Scales

The problem of selecting the scales is different from that of concept selection. The scales are essentially

polar (opposite in meaning) adjectives which become part of a forced-choice task presented to the subjects. In developing a sample of scales of semantic judgment, Osgood (1957) used a frequency-of-usage criterion. Forty nouns were taken from the Kent-Rosanoff list of stimulus words for free association, and these were read in fairly rapid succession to a group of approximately 200 undergraduate students. The students were instructed to write down after each stimulus noun the first descriptive adjective that occurred to them (e.g., tree--green; house--big; priest--good). These adjectives were then analyzed for frequency of occurrence. The adjectives "good" and "bad" occurred with frequencies more than double those of any other adjectives. In fact, nearly half of the 50 adjectives appearing most frequently were clearly evaluative in nature. By applying Thurstone's Centroid Factor Method to a matrix of intercorrelations containing scales, concepts, and subjects, Osgood extracted three factors. The first factor was clearly identifiable as Evaluative; adjectives that appeared to have high loadings were pairs such as "good-bad," "nice-awful," "honest-dishonest," pleasant-unpleasant," and "valuable-worthless."

The second factor identified itself fairly well as a strength or Potency variable; "large-small" and "strong-weak" serve to identify its general nature. The third factor appeared to be mainly a variable that expressed

motion and action or abruptness; "sharp-dull" and "hot-cold" are examples. Osgood termed this factor "Activity."

Most studies of attitudes and values lean heavily on scales that are highly "loaded" on the Evaluative factor. Accordingly, five of the nine adjective pairs used in this study were of this cluster. The remaining four were balanced evenly between Potency and Activity.

Format

The format of the Semantic Differential, as used in this study, follows closely the suggestions as outlined by Osgood (1957). The instrument is reproduced in Appendix A.

Reliability

Osgood (1957) reports a test-retest reliability study by Tannenbaum (1953) in which the test-retest coefficients ranged from .87 to .93, with a mean r of .91. Each of 6 concepts was judged against 6 evaluative scales by 135 subjects on 2 occasions, separated by 5 weeks. Attitude scores were computed by summing over the 6 scales, after realignment according to a constant evaluative direction.

In a study by Jenkins (1958), a set of 20 scales was constructed against which 360 words (or concepts) were evaluated. Each concept was rated by 30 students (15 men and 15 women). Mean profiles for the concepts were

calculated. A test-retest reliability study was run, in which the 30 subjects were asked to rate 20 concepts drawn at random from the 360 mentioned above. After 4 weeks, they were asked to rate the concepts again. The test-retest reliability of mean scale values (20 scales x 20 concepts) yielded a Pearson r of .97.

Validity

As reported by Osgood (1957), a study by Suci (1952)--using the Semantic Differential--described the meanings of political concepts for 3 groups of subjects expected to have different political biases. Participating in this study were 150 paid subjects, selected by block sampling to represent a midwestern community of 70,000 persons. Of this number, 103 were classified into 3 groups according to how they had ranked the presidential candidates prior to the 1952 election. They were listed as "Taft-Republican voters," "Eisenhower-Republican voters," or "Stevenson voters." It was assumed that these 3 groups would represent quite different political biases--specifically, that the Taft Republicans would be more pro-Republican than the Eisenhower Republicans, who in turn would be more pro-Republican than the Stevenson voters. Twenty political concepts were then selected, which were judged against 10 pairs of adjectives. The expectation was that there would be a closer correspondence between the Taft and Eisenhower

ratings than between either of these and the Stevenson group. This expectation was borne out in that the correlations between the Stevenson and Eisenhower matrices and the Stevenson and Taft matrices were .43 and .41, respectively, whereas the correlation between the Eisenhower and Taft matrices was .79.

In another study reported by Osgood (1957), the validity of the evaluative factor of the Semantic Differential was tested by measuring it against a 14-item Guttman-type scale, which had been developed to assess the attitudes of farmers toward the agricultural practice of crop rotation. At the same time, the Semantic Differential was being used in connection with a series of television programs dealing with agricultural practices, and one of the concepts included was "crop rotation." Although these studies were conducted independently, 28 subjects were found who had been exposed to both testing instruments. With attitude scores on the Semantic Differential obtained by summing over the 3 evaluative scales used ("good-bad," "fair-unfair," and "valuable-worthless"), the rank order correlation between the testing instruments was highly significant (rho = .78; $p<.01$). These studies indicate that the Semantic Differential has validity to measure attitudes.

Data Collection

Presidents

The first phase of the data collection involved the presidents of the six community colleges in the study. An appointment was made with each president, and a one-hour interview was requested. During the interview, the Management Style Diagnosis Test was administered and scored, and plans were finalized for the involvement of the respective faculties of the institutions.

Faculties

The second phase of the data collection involved having the faculty of each institution complete the Semantic Differential. It had been hoped that the task could be accomplished by administering the instrument to each faculty assembled as a group, thus assuring a nearly one-hundred-percent response. This was possible in only three of the six institutions. The remaining faculties received the document via interoffice mail, together with a cover letter from the researcher and a memorandum from the president of the respective institution. The completed forms were then collected by the president or his designee and mailed to the researcher. The percentage of each faculty responding in this manner was less than in those institutions where the instrument was administered to the faculty

as a group.

Treatment of the Data

Scoring

A computer card format was developed, and the data were coded and keypunched--one card for each concept, or nine cards per faculty member. The mean score for each concept was computed by adding the encircled number (1 through 7) for each of the paired adjectives and dividing by the number of pairs (9). Although the instruction sheet of the Semantic Differential indicated that there was no importance attached to the scale values and that their purpose was to aid in keypunching, in fact the numbers played an important role in scoring. Each pair of adjectives measuring the Evaluative factor represented extremes--the positive end of the continuum carried a rating of 7, and the negative end carried a rating of 1. (For example, "unpleasant" was at the low end of the scale, and "pleasant" was at the high end.) The paired adjectives measuring the Potency factor also were ranked from 1 to 7, but in this instance the continuum was from low Potency (or strength) to high Potency. Similarly, the adjective pairs measuring the Activity (or action) factor ran from a low action rating of 1 to a high action rating of 7.

The Management Style Diagnosis Test was scored by adjusting the raw scores obtained on each of the 64 sets

of questions, by converting them into "dimension" scores reflecting the amount of Task Orientation and Relationships Orientation indicated. By a procedure outlined in the test itself, the resulting basic style was revealed.

Analysis

The major purpose of this study was to answer the question of whether or not there is a relationship between the managerial style of a community college president and faculty perceptions of certain educational concepts. A research hypothesis was constructed against which a null hypothesis would be tested.

On the Semantic Differential, each individual's score and each total faculty score on each scale are summed and averaged by adjective pairs to yield meaning in terms of the averages for each factor (Evaluative, Potency, and Activity). The hypothesis tested is that the differences between the means of each concept are equal to zero when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of their president, against the alternative hypothesis that the respective differences are not equal to zero. In the analysis of H_1, H_0 is tested against H_1 as follows:

$$H_0: \mu_1 - \mu_2 = 0$$

$$H_1: \mu_1 - \mu_2 \neq 0$$

The null hypothesis is tested against the alternative hypothesis by means of a t test as suggested by Glass and

Stanley (1970). The .05 level of significance is used as a basis for accepting or rejecting the null hypothesis of no difference.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

In this chapter, after a review of the problem, results of the data collection and data analysis are described.

The findings of this study are based on data obtained from scores of the Management Style Diagnosis Test administered to the presidents of the six community colleges participating in the research and from the results of the Semantic Differential given to the faculty of each institution.

Review of the Problem

The specific purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between the managerial style of a community college president and the perception by the faculty of certain educational concepts.

The study focuses upon the following three questions and research hypothesis:

> Question One.--What is the basic managerial style of each of the six community college presidents?
>
> Question Two.--What are the mean responses to each of the nine educational concepts with respect to the Evaluative, Potency, and Activity factors by the faculty of each of the six institutions?

Question Three.--What are the differences in the mean responses to each of the nine educational concepts with respect to the Evaluative, Potency, and Activity factors when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president?

H_1: There are differences in the mean responses to each of the nine educational concepts with respect to the Evaluative, Potency, and Activity factors when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president.

Findings with Respect to Managerial Style

The results of the administration of the Management Style Diagnosis Test to the six community college presidents participating in the study are summarized in Table 2.

TABLE 2.--Results of Management Style Diagnosis Test administered to presidents of six community colleges

College Code Letter	Amount of Task Orientation	Amount of Relationships Orientation	Basic Managerial Style
A	3.0	3.6	Integrated
B	0.0	3.0	Related
C	1.2	4.0	Related
D	0.0	4.0	Related
E	1.8	3.6	Related
F	3.0	1.2	Dedicated

The test was constructed in such a manner that a score of 0 would indicate an absence of Task Orientation or Relationships Orientation, while a score of 4 would indicate a maximum amount. Therefore, scores below 2 are below

average for the managerial population as a whole, and scores above 2 are above average. According to Reddin (1970), however, a score of 0 does not mean no orientation at all--that would be hard to imagine. It simply means "so little as to be in the lowest few percent of managers."

It can be seen from Table 2 that the six presidents are grouped according to three of the four basic styles. The president of Institution A has a managerial style known as "Integrated." This style shows up in Figure 2 as having more than average Task Orientation and more than average Relationships Orientation. The presidents of Institutions B, C, D, and E all fall into the category titled "Related." This style is depicted in Figure 2 as having less than average Task Orientation and more than average Relationships Orientation. The managerial style of "Dedicated" is indicated for the president of Institution F. This style has more than average Task Orientation and less than average Relationships Orientation. No president was in the fourth category of "Separated"--a style having both low Task Orientation and low Relationships Orientation.

Figure 2 is designed to show in more graphic form the interaction between Task Orientation, Relationships Orientation, and the managerial styles of the six community college presidents, as derived from the information provided in Table 2.

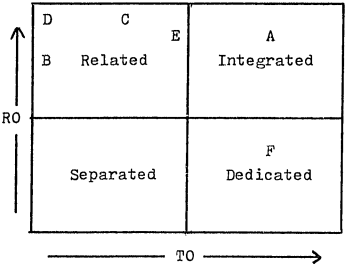

Fig. 2.--The four basic managerial styles of the Management Style Diagnosis Test, showing the interaction between Relationships Orientation, Task Orientation, and managerial styles of the six community college presidents

The labels "Related," "Integrated," "Separated," and "Dedicated" were chosen to avoid the suggestion that some styles are much better than others. The Integrated style, with high Task Orientation and high Relationships Orientation, is so named because it describes managerial behavior which combines TO and RO. The Dedicated style describes managerial behavior with high Task Orientation, but low Relationships Orientation, that is, behavior which is dedicated to the job. The Related style, having high RO alone, is related to subordinates. Separated style is a basic style with both low Task Orientation and low Relationships Orientation. This style, then, is separated from both TO and RO.

It is important to remember that the four basic styles

are a convenience and not a fact. The lines separating the four styles do not really exist; they were drawn to make it easier to talk about behavior. No one, therefore, is pigeonholed when called "Related," or something else. The term used, as with any style label, means "more like that style than like any other style"--only that. Reddin (1970) gives the following capsule descriptions of the three basic styles with which the results of this study are concerned:

The Related Manager

> The related manager is one who accepts others as he finds them. He enjoys long conversations as a way of getting to know others better. Because of this he tends to obtain a lot of useful information from his subordinates. He is not too concerned with time and this in part allows him to get to know others better, particularly subordinates with whom he identifies. He sees organizations primarily as social systems and judges his subordinates on how well they understand others. He judges superiors on the warmth they show to subordinates. In committees he supports others, harmonizes differences, and coaches others to give their best. He is particularly unhappy when working with little contact with others. If he finds himself in such a job, he may redesign it so that he can have high contact even though this could lead to decreased overall effectiveness. His subordinates cooperate well with each other partly because of his example and partly because he tends to pass over errors and smother conflict with pleasantness. When facing stress he tends to become dependent on others and depressed. His positive source of influence is likely to be praise while his negative source of influence tends to be the rejection of the individual as a worthy person. While his subordinates like working for him their characteristic problem is lack of direction from him. The punishment

he most often uses is loss of interest by him. While he values people highly he tends to undervalue the importance of the organization and its technology. One of his weaknesses is sentimentality and a personal fear is of being rejected by others. The thing he most fears in others is conflict.

The Integrated Manager

The integrated manager likes to become a part of things. He is especially a joiner and he takes great pains in getting appropriately involved with individuals or groups over work. He likes to communicate with others in group settings and uses meetings frequently. Through them he can obtain the two-way communication he prefers. His orientation is always to the future. Because he has no real concern for power differentials, he identifies strongly with coworkers and emphasizes teamwork. He uses teamwork and other methods to integrate individual needs with technological needs. He naturally judges subordinates on their willingness to join the team. He judges his superior on his skill in teamwork. In committee activity he tends to be active in setting team performance standards, testing the team members for their commitment and purpose, and motivating them. His employees are usually fully committed and involved, and this is facilitated in part by his intention of learning from errors rather than punishing them. He is interested in investigating the cause of conflict rather than avoiding, smothering, or suppressing it. In highly stressful situations he tends to postpone making decisions. He tends to control others by proposing common ideals or settling for a compromise. Because of his integrated style and emphasis on the group, his subordinates often feel a lack of independence. Because of his use of ideals to motivate, the punishment he can best use involves loss of self-respect in the person punished. He sometimes undervalues the need for independent action and sometimes uses participation inappropriately. His greatest fear about himself is that he might become uninvolved. His greatest fear about others is that they might become dissatisfied.

The Dedicated Manager

> The dedicated manager tends to dominate others. He gives many verbal directions to subordinates. His time perspective is immediate and when he has the choice he prefers to "do it now." He identifies with superiors and with the technical system of the organization. When possible he emphasizes the demands of the technological rather than the human system. He judges subordinates on the degree to which they produce and superiors on their skill in using power. He plays a very active part in committees and initiates, evaluates, and directs a great deal. He does not work too well in situations where he has only a little power because he then cannot simply tell people what to do. His subordinates soon learn that performance is the thing that counts and punishment can be expected if they are in error. He deals with conflict by suppressing it and deals with other stressful situations by domination. He believes that rewards are a good way to influence others or to be influenced himself. And he also believes that punishments are the best way to stop people from doing things they should not, and the most severe punishment is loss of position. His subordinates often complain about lack of information. He tends to forget they exist as independent entities and does not give enough value to their individual expectations. His main weakness is that he argues with others when matters could be solved another way. He emphasizes the sound use of power so much that the loss of it is what he fears most. His biggest fear about others is that they will not produce (pp. 31-32).

The final point to be made concerning the managerial styles of the six presidents is that any of the basic styles could be effective in certain situations and not effective in others. None are more, or less, effective in themselves. Their effectiveness depends on the situation in which they are used.

Findings with Respect to Educational Concepts

The responses to each of the nine educational concepts by the six faculties with regard to the Evaluative, Potency, and Activity factors are presented in Tables 3, 4, and 5, respectively. These tables summarize the data appearing in Tables 1B through 6B, in Appendix B. The following data (Tables 3, 4, and 5) answer Question Two of this study, which is: What are the mean responses to each of the nine educational concepts with respect to the Evaluative, Potency, and Activity factors by the faculty of each of the six institutions?

On the Evaluative factor (Table 3), the highest mean response (6.24 out of a possible 7.00) was given to the concept Collective Bargaining by the faculty of Institution D. The faculty of Institution E had the lowest mean response, which was on the concept Faculty Governance (3.79 out of a possible 7.00). The largest difference between faculties (1.91) also occurred on this concept, resulting from the rating of 5.70 given by the faculty of Institution A and 3.79 by the faculty of Institution E. The smallest difference (.49) was on the concept Career Education, ranging from a low of 5.16 by the faculty of Institution F to a high of 5.65 by the faculty of Institution B.

The median faculty responses that were the most positive occurred on Individualized Instruction, Career Education, and Collective Bargaining. The middle three responses

occurred on Student Grievance Procedure, Fiscal Responsibility, and Faculty Governance. Those concepts perceived least positively were Behavioral Objectives, Open Admissions Policy, and Accountability.

TABLE 3.--Mean responses to concepts by faculties according to the evaluative factor

Concept	Institution					
	A	B	C	D	E	F
Individualized Instruction	5.39	5.85	4.57	5.94	5.82	5.71
Open Admissions Policy	5.44	4.69	4.92	5.25	4.66	4.60
Career Education	5.63	5.65	5.53	5.34	5.31	5.16
Behavioral Objectives	4.79	4.25	4.69	4.91	4.52	4.69
Faculty Governance	5.70	5.24	5.43	4.44	3.79	4.70
Student Grievance Procedure	5.07	4.65	4.74	5.16	5.05	5.16
Accountability	4.99	5.10	4.77	4.89	3.61	5.62
Collective Bargaining	5.20	4.35	5.13	6.24	5.95	5.19
Fiscal Responsibility	5.10	5.25	4.81	5.83	4.96	5.06

On the Potency (or strength) factor (Table 4), the concepts that indicated the highest median responses from the faculties were Career Education, Individualized Instruction, and Collective Bargaining. The concepts perceived least strongly were Behavioral Objectives, Accountability, and Fiscal Responsibility. The middle three concepts according to median responses were Open Admissions Policy,

Faculty Governance, and Student Grievance Procedure.

TABLE 4.--Mean responses to concepts by faculties according to the potency factor

Concept	Institution					
	A	B	C	D	E	F
Individualized Instruction	4.40	5.00	4.61	5.16	4.76	5.06
Open Admissions Policy	4.90	4.30	4.54	4.37	4.58	4.41
Career Education	5.23	4.97	4.96	4.36	4.61	4.81
Behavioral Objectives	4.52	4.18	4.42	3.84	3.92	4.19
Faculty Governance	4.99	4.58	4.57	4.08	3.61	4.62
Student Grievance Procedure	4.39	4.33	4.22	5.20	4.79	5.19
Accountability	4.37	4.82	4.37	4.48	3.58	4.87
Collective Bargaining	4.88	4.10	4.87	5.23	4.95	4.16
Fiscal Responsibility	4.47	4.66	4.45	4.92	4.45	4.47

The highest mean response on the Potency factor was given by the faculty of Institution B to the concept Career Education (5.23) and by the faculty of Institution D to the concept Collective Bargaining (5.23). The lowest mean response of 3.58 was given to the concept Accountability by the faculty of Institution E. The concept Faculty Governance revealed the largest difference between faculties--the faculty of Institution E with 3.61 and the faculty of Institution A with 4.99, resulting in a difference of 1.38. The least difference (.47) occurred on the concept Fiscal

Responsibility, ranging from a high of 4.92 by the faculty of Institution D to a low of 4.45 by the faculties of Institutions C and E.

On the Activity factor (Table 5), which seems to express motion and action, the highest mean response (5.27 out of a possible 7.00) was given to the concept Collective Bargaining by the faculty of Institution D. The faculty of Institution E had the lowest mean response, which was on the concept Accountability (3.45 out of 7.00). The greatest difference between faculties occurred on the concept Faculty Governance (1.61), resulting from the rating

TABLE 5.--Mean responses to concepts by faculties according to the activity factor

Concept	Institution					
	A	B	C	D	E	F
Individualized Instruction	4.59	5.10	4.87	4.98	4.87	4.72
Open Admissions Policy	4.66	4.22	4.39	4.31	4.00	4.50
Career Education	4.88	4.78	4.88	4.47	4.45	4.22
Behavioral Objectives	4.14	4.11	4.19	4.17	4.00	4.25
Faculty Governance	5.19	4.47	4.80	4.11	3.58	4.37
Student Grievance Procedure	4.73	4.16	4.35	4.92	4.66	4.59
Accountability	4.24	4.47	4.34	4.20	3.45	4.66
Collective Bargaining	4.99	4.16	4.83	5.27	5.05	4.31
Fiscal Responsibility	4.20	4.43	4.29	4.72	4.05	4.72

of 5.19 given by the faculty of Institution B and the rating of 3.58 given by the faculty of Institution E. The least difference (.51) was on the concept Individualized Instruction, ranging from a low of 4.59 by the faculty of Institution A to a high of 5.10 by the faculty of Institution B.

The three concepts on which the median responses were highest on the Activity factor were Collective Bargaining, Individualized Instruction, and Student Grievance Procedure. The middle three concepts were Career Education, Faculty Governance, and Fiscal Responsibility. The lowest three in terms of the median responses from the faculties were Behavioral Objectives, Accountability, and Open Admissions Policy.

The differences in the mean responses to each of the nine educational concepts with respect to the Evaluative, Potency, and Activity factors when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president result in the hypothesis:

> H_1: There are differences in the mean responses to each of the nine educational concepts with respect to the Evaluative, Potency, and Activity factors when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president.

The actual manner in which faculties responded to the nine concepts on the three factors is reported in Appendix B (Tables 7B through 33B). The cross-examinations were made according to the scheme in Figure 3.

	Integrated	Related	Dedicated
Integrated		X	X
Related			X
Dedicated			

Fig. 3.--Cross-comparison scheme in Hypothesis One for faculties grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Following are the comparisons for H_1 according to the order in which the nine concepts appear in the Semantic Differential: (1) Individualized Instruction, (2) Open Admissions Policy, (3) Career Education, (4) Behavioral Objectives, (5) Faculty Governance, (6) Student Grievance Procedure, (7) Accountability, (8) Collective Bargaining, and (9) Fiscal Responsibility. Tables 6, 7, and 8 present the data for the concepts where it was found that the null hypothesis of no difference was rejected at the .05 level of significance.

Individualized instruction

On the Evaluative factor, it was found that there was a significant difference between faculties whose presidents had an Integrated managerial style and those whose presidents had a Related style. There was no difference between faculties whose presidents had an Integrated style and those whose presidents had a Dedicated style. Similarly, there was no significant difference between the faculties

of presidents who had a Related style and those who had a Dedicated style.

TABLE 6.--Differences at the .05 level of significance on the evaluative factor in the mean responses to educational concepts when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Concept	Style	N	Mean	SD	t	DF
Individualized Instruction	Integrated	73	5.386	1.192	2.149	290
	Related	219	5.708	1.079		
Open Admissions Policy	Integrated	73	5.436	1.281	-2.671	290
	Related	219	4.894	1.567		
	Integrated	73	5.436	1.281	-2.247	87
	Dedicated	16	4.600	1.628		
Faculty Governance	Integrated	73	5.701	1.245	-3.130	290
	Related	219	5.112	1.449		
	Integrated	73	5.701	1.245	-2.892	87
	Dedicated	16	4.700	1.300		
Accountability	Integrated	73	4.986	1.454	1.693	87
	Dedicated	16	5.625	0.829		
	Related	219	4.757	1.225	2.785	233
	Dedicated	16	5.625	0.829		

In Chapter III, it was stated that the scale values ran from 1 to 7--the higher the number, the more positive the value. (For example, "bad" was at the low end of the scale with a value of 1, and "good" was at the high end with a value of 7.) The mean for the Evaluative factor

TABLE 7.--Differences at the .05 level of significance on the potency factor in the mean responses to educational concepts when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Concept	Style	N	Mean	SD	t	DF
Individualized Instruction	Integrated	73	4.397	1.205	2.432	290
	Related	219	4.781	1.155		
	Integrated	73	4.397	1.205	2.083	87
	Dedicated	16	5.063	0.892		
Open Admissions Policy	Integrated	73	4.897	1.175	-2.392	290
	Related	219	4.473	1.357		
Career Education	Integrated	73	5.226	1.202	-2.105	290
	Related	219	4.846	1.378		
Faculty Governance	Integrated	73	4.993	1.688	-2.799	290
	Related	219	4.410	1.495		
Student Grievance Procedure	Integrated	73	4.390	1.334	2.232	87
	Dedicated.	16	5.188	1.078		
	Related	219	4.428	1.374	2.163	233
	Dedicated	16	5.188	1.078		
Collective Bargaining	Integrated	73	4.877	1.563	-1.727	87
	Dedicated	16	4.156	1.234		
	Related	219	4.756	1.397	-1.669	233
	Dedicated					

on the concept Individualized Instruction tended to be higher for faculties whose presidents had a Dedicated style (5.713) than for those whose presidents had an Integrated style (5.386) or a Related style (5.708).

TABLE 8.--Differences at the .05 level of significance on the activity factor in the mean responses to educational concepts when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Concept	Style	N	Mean	SD	t	DF
Individualized Instruction	Integrated	73	4.589	1.373	2.133	290
	Related	219	4.935	1.143		
Open Admissions Policy	Integrated	73	4.664	1.131	-2.081	290
	Related	219	4.308	1.308		
Career Education	Integrated	73	4.884	1.240	-1.940	87
	Dedicated	16	4.250	0.856		
Behavioral Objectives	Integrated	73	4.733	1.233	-1.946	290
	Related	219	4.413	1.209		
Faculty Governance	Integrated	73	5.192	1.290	-3.835	290
	Related	219	4.521	1.297		
	Integrated	73	5.192	1.290	-2.473	87
	Dedicated	16	4.375	0.563		

On the Potency (or strength) factor, comparisons indicated a significant difference between faculties whose presidents had Integrated style and those whose presidents had Related managerial style. A significant difference also appeared between faculties whose presidents had an Integrated style of management and faculties whose presidents had a Dedicated style. There was no difference between faculties of Related and Dedicated presidential managerial styles.

For the Potency factor of this concept, the mean was

again higher for the Dedicated style (5.063) than for either the Integrated style (4.397) or the Related style (4.781).

On the Activity (or action) factor, there was a significant difference between faculties whose presidents had an Integrated style and those whose presidents had a Related managerial style. There was no difference between faculties whose presidents displayed Integrated style and those whose presidents displayed Dedicated style, as well as no difference between faculties whose presidents had a Related style or a Dedicated style.

The mean was highest concerning this factor on the Related managerial style (4.935), compared to a mean of 4.719 on the Dedicated style and 4.589 on the Integrated style.

Open admissions policy

Tests indicated that there was a significant difference on the Evaluative factor between faculties whose presidents had an Integrated managerial style, as compared with those whose presidents had a Related style. Also, there was a significant difference between faculties of an Integrated managerial style as compared to those whose presidents had a Dedicated style. There was no difference between faculties whose presidents had a Related style as compared to those whose presidents had a Dedicated style.

On the Evaluative factor, the mean was considerably higher for faculties whose presidents had an Integrated style (5.436) than for faculties whose presidents had either a Related style (4.894) or a Dedicated style (4.600).

On the Potency factor, the difference in the meaning of the concept Open Admissions Policy to faculties whose presidents showed an Integrated style as compared to faculties whose presidents showed a Related style indicated a significant difference. There was no difference between faculties whose presidents had an Integrated style and those whose presidents had a Dedicated style. Also indicated was the lack of difference between institutions whose presidents had a Related style and those whose presidents had a Dedicated style.

For the Potency factor of this concept, the mean was again higher for the Integrated style (4.897) than for either the Related style (4.473) or the Dedicated style (4.406).

The Activity factor of the concept Open Admissions Policy indicated a difference between presidents who displayed an Integrated style and those who displayed a Related managerial style. No difference occurred between faculties whose presidents had an Integrated style and those whose presidents had a Dedicated style. Similarly, no difference occurred between those faculties who had a

Related managerial style president and those who had a president with a Dedicated style.

The highest mean score on the Activity factor occurred again on the Integrated style, with a rating of 4.664, as compared to a mean of 4.308 by those faculties whose presidents had a Related style, and a mean of 4.500 for those whose presidents had a Dedicated style.

Career education

With respect to the Evaluative factor, no difference was found between any of the three groupings.

The mean for the Evaluative factor tended to be higher for faculties whose presidents had an Integrated managerial style (5.630) than for those who had presidents with Related style (5.509) or Dedicated style (5.163).

Concerning the Potency factor, a difference was found to exist between faculties whose presidents had an Integrated style and those whose presidents had a Related style. There was no difference between either the faculties whose presidents had Integrated style or Dedicated style, or the faculties whose presidents had Related style or Dedicated style.

For the Potency factor of this concept, the mean was again higher for the Integrated style (5.226) than for either the Related style (4.846) or the Dedicated style (4.813).

There was a difference in the meanings of faculties whose presidents were of the Integrated style and those who were of the Dedicated style. The data analysis indicated that there was no significant difference between either of the other two groupings--those having Integrated and Related presidential managerial styles and those having Related and Dedicated styles.

Here, too, the mean was higher for the Integrated style (4.884) than for either the Related style (4.756) or the Dedicated style (4.250).

Behavioral objectives

Only on the Activity factor was there found to be a significant difference between faculties whose presidents had an Integrated style and those whose presidents had a Related style. There were no differences between any of the other groupings, either on the Evaluative factor or on the Potency factor.

On the Evaluative factor, the mean was slightly higher for faculties whose presidents had an Integrated style (4.786) than for faculties whose presidents had either a Related style (4.609) or a Dedicated style (4.688).

Higher, too, was the mean for faculties with Integrated style presidents (4.521) on the Potency factor than were the means for either the Related style (4.244) or the Dedicated style (4.188).

Concerning the Activity factor, the mean was very slightly higher on the Related style (4.151) than on the Integrated style (4.144). Higher than both was the mean for faculties with Dedicated style presidents (4.219).

Faculty governance

Tests indicated that there was a difference on the Evaluative factor between faculties whose presidents had an Integrated managerial style as compared to those whose presidents had a Related style. There was a significant difference between faculties on an Integrated managerial style when compared with those whose presidents had a Dedicated style. There was no difference between faculties whose presidents had a Related style as compared to those whose presidents had a Dedicated style.

The mean was considerably higher for faculties who had presidents with Integrated managerial style (5.701) than for either of those groupings whose presidents had Related style (5.112) or Dedicated style (4.700).

On the Potency factor, the mean of Faculty Governance by faculties whose presidents showed an Integrated style, compared to faculties whose presidents showed a Related style, indicated a difference for this concept. There was no difference between faculties whose presidents had an Integrated style and those who had presidents with Dedicated style. Neither was there any difference between

institutions whose presidents had a Related style and those with Dedicated style presidents.

The mean on the Potency factor showed a rating of 4.993 for faculties whose presidents had Integrated managerial style, which was higher than the means for faculties whose presidents had Related style (4.410) or Dedicated style (4.625).

There was a difference on the Activity factor between faculties whose presidents displayed an Integrated style and those with a Related style of management. A difference also existed between faculties whose presidents had Integrated style and those whose presidents had Dedicated style. No difference occurred between faculties whose presidents had a Related style and those whose presidents had a Dedicated style.

The highest rating occurred with faculties of presidents who had an Integrated managerial style (5.192), followed by means of 4.521 for faculties with presidents who had Related style and 4.375 for those whose presidents had Dedicated style.

Student grievance procedure

With respect to the Evaluative factor, no significant differences were found between any of the three groupings of faculty.

The mean response was highest from faculties whose

presidents displayed a Dedicated managerial style (5.163), followed by faculties with Integrated managerial style (5.071) and Related style (4.811).

There was no difference on the Potency factor between faculties whose presidents had an Integrated style of management and those faculties whose presidents had a Related style. There were significant differences both between faculties of presidents who showed an Integrated managerial style and those who showed a Dedicated style, as well as between those who showed a Related style and those who showed a Dedicated style.

Here, again, the highest mean response occurred with faculties whose presidents had a Dedicated managerial style, with a mean of 5.188. Means of 4.428 from faculties with Related managerial style and of 4.390 from faculties with Integrated managerial style were also reported.

On the Activity factor, no differences were found between any of the three faculty groupings.

Concerning the mean responses by groups on the Activity factor, the highest reported was 4.733 from faculties with presidents who showed Integrated managerial style, followed by 4.594 from faculties with Related managerial style and 4.413 from faculties whose presidents had Dedicated styles of management.

Accountability

On the Evaluative factor, there was no difference between faculties whose presidents had an Integrated managerial style and faculties whose presidents had a Related style. There was a significant difference between faculties whose presidents had an Integrated style and those whose presidents had a Dedicated style. Also, there was a difference between faculties whose presidents had a Related style and those whose presidents had a Dedicated style.

The mean for the Evaluative factor on the concept Accountability was higher for faculties whose presidents had a Dedicated style of management (5.625) than for those whose presidents had an Integrated style (4.986) or a Related style (4.757).

Regarding both the Potency and Activity factors, there were no differences between any of the three faculty groupings on either of these two factors.

For the Potency factor of the concept Accountability, the mean was again higher for the Dedicated style (4.875) than for either the Integrated style (4.370) or the Related style (4.414).

The mean was also highest for the Dedicated managerial style (4.656) on the Activity factor, followed by means of 4.256 on the Related style and 4.240 on the Integrated style.

Collective bargaining

The results of tests concerning differences in meanings of the concept Collective Bargaining showed that no difference existed between any of the three groupings on the Evaluative factor.

On this factor, the means were very close, with only a slightly higher tendency being indicated by the Integrated style (5.197) as compared to 5.187 for the Related style and 5.188 for the Dedicated style.

On the Potency factor, there was no difference with respect to faculties whose presidents had an Integrated managerial style and those whose presidents had a Related style. There was a significant difference, however, between faculties whose presidents showed an Integrated managerial style and those whose presidents showed a Dedicated style, as well as between those whose presidents showed a Related style and those whose presidents showed a Dedicated style.

On the Potency factor, too, the mean tended to be higher for faculties with Integrated presidential managerial style (4.877), compared to those with Related style (4.756) and Dedicated style (4.156).

There were no differences between any of the three groupings on the Activity factor.

Concerning the Activity factor, the mean was higher on the Integrated style (4.993) than on either the Related

style (4.763) or the Dedicated style (4.313).

Fiscal responsibility

Of all nine concepts, Fiscal Responsibility was the only one in which there were no differences between groupings on any of the three factors--Evaluative, Potency, or Activity.

The mean on the Evaluative factor was slightly higher for faculties who had presidents with Integrated managerial style (5.096) than for those whose presidents had Related style (5.065) or Dedicated style (5.063).

The mean on the Potency factor showed a rating of 4.557 for faculties whose presidents had Related managerial style, which was higher than the means for faculties whose presidents had Dedicated style (4.469) or Integrated style (4.466).

On the Activity factor, the mean was highest from those faculties whose presidents had Dedicated styles of management (4.719), followed by faculties whose presidents had Related style (4.354) and Integrated style (4.199).

Summary

In this chapter, the results of the Management Style Diagnosis Test were presented and the basic managerial style of each president identified. In addition, the data analysis was reported for the nine concepts appearing

on the Semantic Differential: (1) Individualized Instruction, (2) Open Admissions Policy, (3) Career Education, (4) Behavioral Objectives, (5) Faculty Governance, (6) Student Grievance Procedure, (7) Accountability, (8) Collective Bargaining, and (9) Fiscal Responsibility. Table 9 summarizes the mean responses to each concept on all three factors when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of their president.

TABLE 9.--Mean responses of faculties to concepts when grouped according to presidential managerial style

Concept	Factor								
	Evaluative			Potency			Activity		
	I	R	D	I	R	D	I	R	D
(1)	5.39	5.71	5.71	4.40	4.78	5.06	4.59	4.93	4.72
(2)	5.44	4.89	4.60	4.90	4.47	4.41	4.66	4.31	4.50
(3)	5.63	5.51	5.16	5.23	4.85	4.81	4.88	4.76	4.25
(4)	4.79	4.61	4.69	4.52	4.24	4.19	4.73	4.41	4.59
(5)	5.70	5.11	4.70	4.99	4.41	4.62	5.19	4.52	4.37
(6)	5.07	4.81	5.16	4.39	4.43	5.19	4.14	4.15	4.22
(7)	4.99	4.76	5.62	4.37	4.41	4.87	4.24	4.26	4.66
(8)	5.20	5.19	5.19	4.88	4.76	4.16	4.99	4.76	4.31
(9)	5.10	5.06	5.06	4.47	4.56	4.47	4.20	4.35	4.72

Figure 4 presents, in graphic form, the information contained in Table 9 concerning the Evaluative factor. Figure 5 deals with that information concerning the Potency factor, and Figure 6 presents that information relating to the Activity factor.

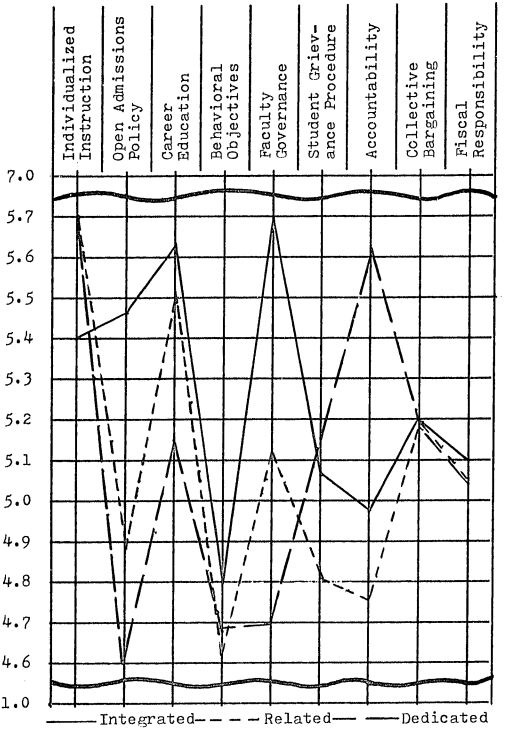

Fig. 4.--Mean responses on the evaluative factor when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

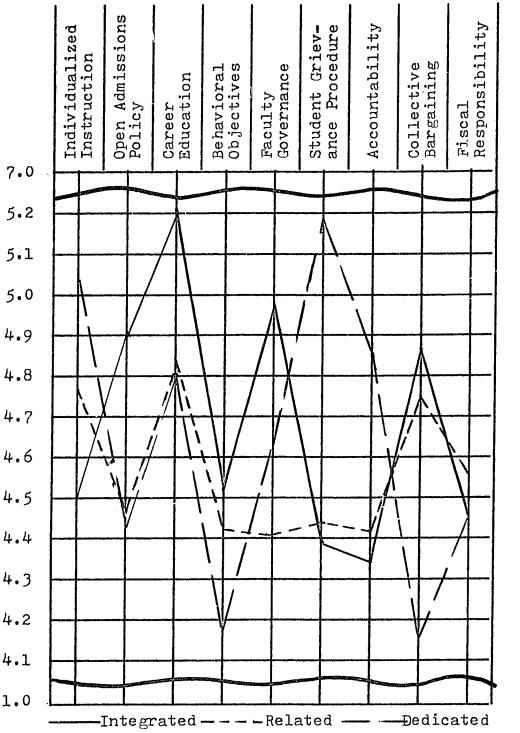

Fig. 5.--Mean responses on the potency factor when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

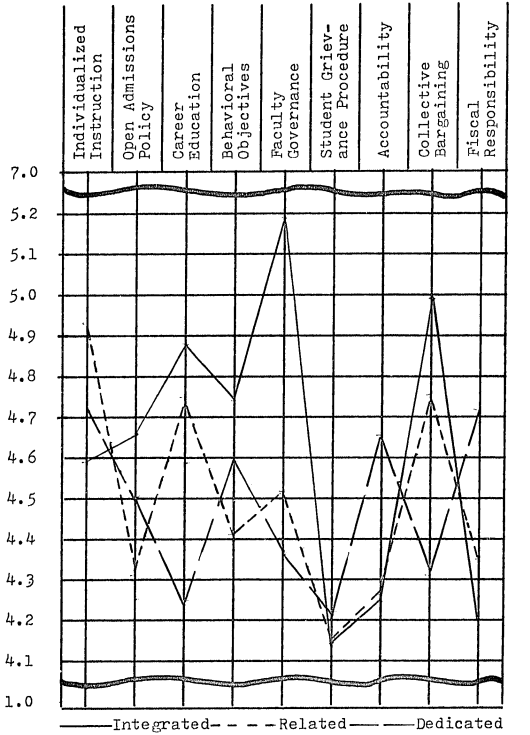

Fig. 6.--Mean responses on the activity factor when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

In testing the null hypothesis between the respective means, t ratios were computed to ascertain whether or not the faculty groupings, according to the managerial style of the president on the three factor dimensions, differed to an extent which would justify rejection of the hypothesis at the .05 level. Figure 7 presents a summary of the differences that occurred between faculties whose presidents had an Integrated style of management and those who had a Related style; between those who had an Integrated style and those who had a Dedicated style; and between those who had a Related style and those whose presidents had a Dedicated style. In the case of the Evaluative factor, an I, R, or D indicates which faculty had the highest, or most positive, mean score. On the Potency factor, the same indications apply, but indicating which of each grouping displayed the most feelings of strength. Similarly, on the Activity factor, an I, R, or D indicates which faculty had the highest mean score or demonstrated the most action. A blank space indicates that there was no significant difference between the two faculties under consideration.

On the Evaluative factor, there were differences between faculty groupings on the concepts Individualized Instruction, Open Admissions Policy, Faculty Governance, and Accountability.

Concerning the Potency factor, significant differences

	Evaluative			Potency			Activity		
	Int/Rel	Int/Ded	Rel/Ded	Int/Rel	Int/Ded	Rel/Ded	Int/Rel	Int/Ded	Rel/Ded
Individualized Instruction	R			R	D		R		
Open Admissions Policy	I	I		I			I		
Career Education				I				I	
Behavioral Objectives							R		
Faculty Governance	I	I		I			I	I	
Student Grievance Procedure					D	D			
Accountability		D	D						
Collective Bargaining					I	R			
Fiscal Responsibility									

Fig. 7.--Differences in means on the evaluative, potency, and activity factors of concepts when faculties are grouped according to presidential managerial style

occurred between faculties on Individualized Instruction, Open Admissions Policy, Career Education, Faculty Governance, Student Grievance Procedure, and Collective Bargaining.

Finally, on the Activity factor, the concepts Individualized Instruction, Open Admissions Policy, Career Education, Behavioral Objectives, and Faculty Governance exhibited significant differences.

On all three factors, mean responses tended to be higher from faculties whose presidents had an Integrated

managerial style than from those whose presidents had Related or Dedicated styles of management.

Chapter V contains the overall summary, conclusions, and implications derived from this investigation.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary

The overall purpose of this study was to determine whether or not there was any relationship between the managerial style of community college presidents and the perception of certain educational concepts by the faculties of those institutions. The first task was the development of the following three questions and a resulting hypothesis:

> Question One.--What is the basic managerial style of each of the six community college presidents involved in this study?
>
> Question Two.--What are the mean responses by the faculties of each of the six institutions to the nine educational concepts with respect to the Evaluative, Potency, and Activity factors?
>
> Question Three.--What are the differences in the mean responses to each of the educational concepts with respect to the Evaluative, Potency, and Activity factors when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president?

Question Three resulted in the formulation of a research hypothesis which states:

> H_1: There are differences in the mean responses to each of the nine educational concepts with respect to the Evaluative, Potency, and Activity factors when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president.

There were 2 instruments used in this study. One was the Management Style Diagnosis Test developed by Reddin (1970), which was administered to each of the 6 community college presidents. It was used to measure the basic managerial style of each president, through answers to 64 pairs of questions. The other instrument was the Semantic Differential (Osgood, 1957), given to 308 faculty members from the 6 community colleges, which measured the meaning of 9 concepts on a series of 7-point, graphically constructed bipolar scales.

A series of $\underline{t}$ tests were used to determine whether or not the null hypothesis of $H_0: \mu_1 - \mu_2 = 0$ would be accepted or rejected at the .05 level of significance for each of the nine concepts on the Evaluative, Potency, and Activity factors when faculties were grouped according to the managerial style of their president.

Concerning the managerial style of each of the six community college presidents, it was determined that the president of Institution A had an Integrated style, consisting of a high degree of Task Orientation (TO) and a high degree of Relationships Orientation (RO). The presidents of Institutions B, C, D, and E all indicated a Related basic style, characterized by a high RO, but a low TO on the Management Style Diagnosis Test. The president of Institution F showed a Dedicated basic style--high on Task Orientation, but low on Relationships

Orientation.

On the Semantic Differential, the pairs of adjectives used in assessing the meaning of concepts fell into three clusters, termed "factors." The Evaluative factor is said to represent positive or negative feelings--"goodness" or "badness." The Potency factor is concerned with strength, and the Activity factor with action or movement. The concepts were viewed by the faculties somewhat differently, and varied according to which factor was being observed. The concept Individualized Instruction had the highest median response of any of the nine, on the Evaluative factor. In order of positive feelings on the Evaluative factor, Individualized Instruction was followed by Career Education, Collective Bargaining, Student Grievance Procedure, Fiscal Responsibility, Faculty Governance, Accountability, Open Admissions Policy, and Behavioral Objectives.

On the Potency factor, the concept viewed as having the greatest strength among the nine was Career Education. This was followed in order by Individualized Instruction, Collective Bargaining, Student Grievance Procedure, Faculty Governance, Open Admissions Policy, Fiscal Responsibility, and Accountability. The concept viewed as having the least strength was Behavioral Objectives.

The Activity factor indicated Collective Bargaining as having the most action or motion. Next were the concepts Individualized Instruction, Student Grievance Proce-

dure, Career Education, Faculty Governance, Fiscal Responsibility, Open Admissions Policy, Accountability; again, Behavioral Objectives was in last place, as was the case on both the Evaluative and Potency factors.

The research hypothesis H_1 states that there are differences in the mean responses to each of the 9 educational concepts with respect to the Evaluative, Potency, and Activity factors when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president. There were found to be significant differences in the way faculties viewed concepts on the Evaluative factor on 14 different occasions. There were 18 instances of significant differences on the Potency factor, and 12 instances on the Activity factor. These figures amount to a total of 44 out of a possible 81 chances for these differences to occur, or slightly over 50 percent. Each concept will be discussed in the order in which it appears on the Semantic Differential.

Individualized instruction

There was a significant difference between faculties whose presidents had an Integrated managerial style and those who had a Related style, on all three factors. A significant difference also occurred between Integrated and Dedicated styles on the Potency factor. In all instances, the faculties whose presidents had Integrated

managerial styles had lower scores than either the Related or Dedicated faculties.

Open admissions policy

Here, too, a significant difference exists between faculties whose presidents had an Integrated managerial style and those who had a Related style, on all three factors. In contrast, however, the Integrated faculty responses were higher than either the Related or the Dedicated faculties' responses. Also, a difference was found between Integrated and Dedicated styles on the Evaluative factor.

Career education

There was no significant difference observed on the Evaluative factor concerning this concept. A difference did occur between the Integrated style and the Related style on the Potency factor, and the Integrated and Dedicated styles on the Activity factor. In both instances, the responses from the Integrated faculties were higher.

Behavioral objectives

The only difference that occurred between faculty groupings on this concept was between the Integrated and the Related styles, the Related scores being slightly higher. It should be recalled that this concept had the

lowest mean responses of any of the nine concepts on all three factors.

Faculty governance

There were more differences between faculties on this concept than on any other. Differences were found between the Integrated and Related styles on all three factors. Faculties whose presidents had Integrated managerial styles perceived this concept differently than those whose presidents had Dedicated styles, on both the Evaluative and Activity factors. In all instances, the Integrated faculties had the highest mean scores.

Student grievance procedure

There was no significant difference among groups on either the Evaluative factor or the Activity factor for this concept. There was a difference, however, on the Potency factor between the Dedicated style and the Integrated style, as well as between the Dedicated style and the Related style. The Dedicated responses were highest in both instances.

Accountability

On both the Potency and Activity factors, no significant difference occurred on this concept. On the Evaluative factor, there was a difference between the Integrated

and Dedicated styles as well as between the Related and Dedicated styles. Here, again, the Dedicated style exhibited the highest positive response in both instances.

Collective bargaining

The mean responses of all three faculty groupings on the Evaluative factor to this concept are remarkable close; hence no difference exists. Neither is there a significant difference between groups on the Activity factor. There were differences on the Potency factor, both between the Dedicated style and the Integrated style, as well as between the Dedicated style and the Related style. The mean response by faculties of the Dedicated managerial style is considerably lower than the mean responses of the other two styles.

Fiscal responsibility

This was the only concept in which there was no significant difference between any of the groups on any of the three factors.

Conclusions

Managerial style

As a result of administering the Managerial Style Diagnosis Test to the six community college presidents, it appeared that in five of the six instances a basic

style existed in which there was a high degree of Relationships Orientation. Relationships Orientation is the extent to which a manager has personal relationships, characterized by such tasks as listening, trusting, and encouraging. By contrast, Task Orientation is concerned with the extent to which a manager directs his own and his subordinates' efforts. This is evidenced by such activities as initiating, organizing, and directing.

Because of the nature of the educational process, a considerable amount of autonomy exists among faculty members concerning how the task of teaching is to be carried out. This parallels the management of professional and technical personnel in industry (i.e., engineers and scientists) and, therefore, may not lend itself to either close or general supervision. Task Orientation, then, is not desired by the faculties, and it would appear that in five out of the six cases the administrator apparently is complying with the needs of his faculty in terms of leadership style.

A question raised by this study which would be worthy of further investigation would be to test the hypothesis of whether this compliance between faculty needs and leadership style, in which a high degree of trust is evident, is more effective on certain measurable criteria. However, this is not the purpose of this study.

Faculty responses to concepts

The fact that the concepts Individualized Instruction and Career Education were viewed the most positively on the Evaluative factor by all faculties, and were viewed as having the most strength on the Potency factor, would tend to suggest a student orientation of community college faculty members. This is in contrast to concern over the internal affairs of the institution.

The concept Behavioral Objectives was viewed least favorably on all three factors, which could be attributed to the reluctance on the part of faculty members to be told what teaching strategy to use, as well as to the skepticism with which behavior modification is viewed by some educators.

In comparing the relative value placed on Collective Bargaining--ranking third on both the Evaluative and Potency factors and first on the Activity factor--and on Faculty Governance--ranking fifth, it would appear that faculty members are concerned with having a voice in matters that affect working conditions and salary, but are somewhat less concerned with being involved in the decision-making process as it applies to the administrative governance of the institution. Again, this parallels some findings in industry which are contrary to some of the theories propounded by the industrial humanists.

Managerial styles and faculty perceptions

Certain conclusions result with respect to the differences that occurred between faculties when grouped according to the managerial style of the president.

Concerning the concept Individualized Instruction, although the mean responses were the highest of the nine concepts on the Evaluative factor, there were significant differences that occurred, particularly between faculties whose presidents exhibited an Integrated managerial style and those whose presidents exhibited a Related style. The fact that the Integrated faculty group viewed this concept less favorably than the Related group may be because, according to Reddin (1970), a characteristic problem of subordinates of managers who exhibit an Integrated style is that they feel a lack of independence. Consequently, in order to protect their self-image (reaction formation) they may play down the importance of this issue.

The differences that exist on the concept Open Admissions Policy may well be because the Integrated manager tends to get commitment on the part of subordinates, and Open Admissions is one of the commitments of the community college movement. A Related manager, on the other hand, stresses cooperation, and a Dedicated manager stresses performance. Both are somewhat less emphatic terms, thus the higher response to the concept by the Integrated

faculty members.

Because the subordinate of a manager who has an Integrated style tends to be committed and involved, this may account for the relatively high mean responses in this category on all three factors relating to the concept Faculty Governance. Here, again, commitment is a more emphatic response than either cooperation or performance, which characterize the Related and Dedicated styles.

The differences that exist between the faculties whose presidents have a Dedicated style and those who have either an Integrated or Related style show up on the concept Student Grievance Procedure, possibly because the Dedicated manager tends to dominate others, and the faculty may feel that self-expression for students gratifies some of the faculty's own wish fulfillment; hence a larger mean response on the part of this group on the Potency factor.

On the concept Accountability, according to Reddin (1970), one of the characteristics of subordinates under a manager who displays a Dedicated style is that they often complain about lack of information from their superior. This could be the reason for a relatively high mean response on the Evaluative factor to this concept, since professionals in particular seem to show a higher "need to know" than do other occupational groups.

Implications

If it can be determined what the goals for community colleges should be within a given political framework and the perceptions of faculties concerning certain educational concepts are known, then it will be possible to do a better job of screening applicants for community college presidencies. In so doing, the possibility is enhanced that by matching the managerial style of a president with the way in which his faculty members view educational issues, the institution as a whole will be able to move more rapidly toward the attainment of the prescribed goals of the organization.

This is hinted at so strongly by the data that further research in this area would seem to be justified.

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APPENDIX A

SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL

INSTRUCTIONS

The purpose of this study is to measure the meanings of certain concepts to people by having them judge them against a series of descriptive scales. In taking this test, please make your judgments on the basis of what these things mean to you. On each page of this booklet you will find a different concept to be judged and beneath it a set of scales. You are to rate the concept on each of these scales in order.

Here is how you are to use these scales:

If you feel that the concept at the top of the page is very closely related to one end of the scale, you should encircle as follows:

bad (1) : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 good

OR

bad 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : (7) good

If you feel that the concept is quite closely related to one or the other end of the scale (but not extremely), you should encircle as follows:

bad 1 : (2) : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 good

OR

bad 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : (6) : 7 good

If you feel that the concept seems only slightly related to one side as opposed to the other side (but is not really neutral), then you should encircle either the 3 or the 5.

If you consider the concept to be neutral on the scale, both sides of the scale equally associated with the concept, or if the scale is completely irrelevant, encircle the 4 in the middle space.

IMPORTANT: (1) Be sure you check every scale for every concept--do not omit any.

(2) Never encircle more than one number on a single scale.

(3) The primary purpose in numbering the scales from 1 to 7 is to aid in the keypunching operation. It is not a weighted scale.

Do not try to remember how you checked similar items earlier in the test. Make each item a separate and independent judgment. Work at fairly high speed through this test. Do not worry or puzzle over individual items. It is your first impressions, the immediate "feelings" about the items, that we want.

PLEASE COMPLETE THE FOLLOWING ITEMS BEFORE STARTING THE TEST:

Age: _____ Sex: M or F (Circle one)

Years of teaching (not including current year): _____

Number of institutions taught at: _____

1. INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION

unpleasant	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	pleasant
dishonest	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	honest
dull	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	sharp
weak	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	strong
small	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	large
bad	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	good
worthless	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	valuable
cold	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	hot
awful	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	nice

2. OPEN ADMISSIONS POLICY

unpleasant	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	pleasant
dishonest	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	honest
dull	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	sharp
weak	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	strong
small	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	large
bad	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	good
worthless	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	valuable
cold	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	hot
awful	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	nice

3. CAREER EDUCATION

unpleasant	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	pleasant
dishonest	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	honest
dull	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	sharp
weak	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	strong
small	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	large
bad	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	good
worthless	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	valuable
cold	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	hot
awful	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	nice

4. BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES

unpleasant	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	pleasant
dishonest	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	honest
dull	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	sharp
weak	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	strong
small	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	large
bad	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	good
worthless	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	valuable
cold	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	hot
awful	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	nice

5. FACULTY PARTICIPATION IN GOVERNANCE

unpleasant	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	pleasant
dishonest	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	honest
dull	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	sharp
weak	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	strong
small	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	large
bad	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	good
worthless	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	valuable
cold	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	hot
awful	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	nice

6. STUDENT GRIEVANCE PROCEDURE

unpleasant	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	pleasant
dishonest	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	honest
dull	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	sharp
weak	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	strong
small	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	large
bad	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	good
worthless	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	valuable
cold	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	hot
awful	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	nice

7. ACCOUNTABILITY

unpleasant	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	pleasant
dishonest	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	honest
dull	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	sharp
weak	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	strong
small	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	large
bad	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	good
worthless	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	valuable
cold	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	hot
awful	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	nice

8. FACULTY COLLECTIVE BARGAINING

unpleasant	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	pleasant
dishonest	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	honest
dull	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	sharp
weak	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	strong
small	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	large
bad	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	good
worthless	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	valuable
cold	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	hot
awful	1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7	nice

APPENDIX B

MEAN RESPONSES AND COMPARISONS OF MEAN RESPONSES TO CONCEPTS

TABLE 1B.--Mean responses to concepts by faculty of Institution A

Concept	Factor		
	Evaluative	Potency	Activity
Individualized Instruction	5.39	4.40	4.59
Open Admissions Policy	5.44	4.90	4.66
Career Education	5.63	5.23	4.88
Behavioral Objectives	4.79	4.52	4.14
Faculty Governance	5.70	4.99	5.19
Student Grievance Procedure	5.07	4.39	4.73
Accountability	4.99	4.37	4.24
Collective Bargaining	5.20	4.88	4.99
Fiscal Responsibility	5.10	4.47	4.20

TABLE 2B.--Mean responses to concepts by faculty of Institution B

Concept	Factor		
	Evaluative	Potency	Activity
Individualized Instruction	5.85	5.00	5.10
Open Admissions Policy	4.69	4.30	4.22
Career Education	5.65	4.97	4.78
Behavioral Objectives	4.25	4.18	4.11
Faculty Governance	5.24	4.58	4.47
Student Grievance Procedure	4.65	4.33	4.16
Accountability	5.10	4.82	4.47
Collective Bargaining	4.35	4.10	4.16
Fiscal Responsibility	5.25	4.66	4.43

TABLE 3B.--Mean responses to concepts by faculty of Institution C

Concept	Factor		
	Evaluative	Potency	Activity
Individualized Instruction	5.57	4.61	4.87
Open Admissions Policy	4.92	4.54	4.39
Career Education	5.53	4.96	4.88
Behavioral Objectives	4.69	4.42	4.19
Faculty Governance	5.43	4.57	4.80
Student Grievance Procedure	4.74	4.22	4.35
Accountability	4.77	4.37	4.34
Collective Bargaining	5.13	4.87	4.83
Fiscal Responsibility	4.81	4.45	4.29

TABLE 4B.--Mean responses to concepts by faculty of Institution D

Concept	Factor		
	Evaluative	Potency	Activity
Individualized Instruction	5.94	5.16	4.98
Open Admissions Policy	5.25	4.37	4.31
Career Education	5.34	4.36	4.47
Behavioral Objectives	4.91	3.84	4.17
Faculty Governance	4.44	4.08	4.11
Student Grievance Procedure	5.16	5.20	4.92
Accountability	4.89	4.48	4.20
Collective Bargaining	6.24	5.23	5.27
Fiscal Responsibility	5.83	4.92	4.72

TABLE 5B.--Mean responses to concepts by faculty of Institution E

Concept	Factor		
	Evaluative	Potency	Activity
Individualized Instruction	5.82	4.76	4.87
Open Admissions Policy	4.66	4.58	4.00
Career Education	5.31	4.61	4.45
Behavioral Objectives	4.52	3.92	4.00
Faculty Governance	3.79	3.61	3.58
Student Grievance Procedure	5.05	4.79	4.66
Accountability	3.61	3.58	3.45
Collective Bargaining	5.95	4.95	5.05
Fiscal Responsibility	4.96	4.45	4.05

TABLE 6B.--Mean responses to concepts by faculty of Institution F

Concept	Factor		
	Evaluative	Potency	Activity
Individualized Instruction	5.71	5.06	4.72
Open Admissions Policy	4.60	4.41	4.50
Career Education	5.16	4.81	4.25
Behavioral Objectives	4.69	4.19	4.22
Faculty Governance	4.70	4.62	4.37
Student Grievance Procedure	5.16	5.19	4.59
Accountability	5.62	4.87	4.66
Collective Bargaining	5.19	4.16	4.31
Fiscal Responsibility	5.06	4.47	4.72

TABLE 7B.--Comparison of mean responses on the evaluative factor to the concept of individualized instruction when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	5.386	1.192	2.149	290
Related	219	5.708	1.079		
Integrated	73	5.386	1.192	1.057	87
Dedicated	16	5.713	0.661		
Related	219	5.708	1.079	0.176	233
Dedicated	16	5.713	0.661		

TABLE 8B.--Comparison of mean responses on the evaluative factor to the concept of open admissions policy when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	5.436	1.281	-2.671	290
Related	219	4.894	1.567		
Integrated	73	5.436	1.281	-2.247	87
Dedicated	16	4.600	1.628		
Related	219	4.894	1.567	-0.723	233
Dedicated	16	4.600	1.281		

TABLE 9B.--Comparison of mean responses on the evaluative factor to the concept of career education when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	5.630	1.153	-0.768	290
Related	219	5.509	1.178		
Integrated	73	5.630	1.153	-1.532	87
Dedicated	16	5.163	0.846		
Related	219	5.509	1.178	-1.153	233
Dedicated	16	5.163	0.846		

TABLE 10B.--Comparison of mean responses on the evaluative factor to the concept of behavioral objectives when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	4.786	1.731	-0.805	290
Related	219	4.609	1.596		
Integrated	73	4.786	1.731	-0.221	87
Dedicated	16	4.688	0.941		
Related	219	4.609	1.596	0.194	233
Dedicated	16	4.688	0.941		

TABLE 11B.--Comparison of mean responses on the evaluative factor to the concept of faculty governance when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	5.701	1.245	-3.130	290
Related	219	5.112	1.449		
Integrated	73	5.701	1.245	-2.892	87
Dedicated	16	4.700	1.300		
Related	219	5.112	1.449	-1.112	233
Dedicated	16	4.700	1.300		

TABLE 12B.--Comparison of mean responses on the evaluative factor to the concept of student grievance procedure when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	5.071	1.134	-1.576	290
Related	219	4.811	1.252		
Integrated	73	5.071	1.134	0.297	87
Dedicated	16	5.163	1.013		
Related	219	4.811	1.252	1.097	233
Dedicated	16	5.163	1.013		

TABLE 13B.--Comparison of mean responses on the evaluative factor to the concept of accountability when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	4.986	1.454	-1.319	290
Related	219	4.757	1.225		
Integrated	73	4.986	1.454	1.693	87
Dedicated	16	5.625	0.829		
Related	219	4.757	1.225	2.785	233
Dedicated	16	5.625	0.829		

TABLE 14B.--Comparison of mean responses on the evaluative factor to the concept of collective bargaining when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	5.197	1.454	-0.515	290
Related	219	5.187	1.421		
Integrated	73	5.197	1.454	-0.251	87
Dedicated	16	5.188	1.183		
Related	219	5.187	1.421	0.466	233
Dedicated	16	5.188	1.183		

TABLE 15B.--Comparison of mean responses on the evaluative factor to the concept of fiscal responsibility when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	5.096	1.024	-0.199	290
Related	219	5.065	1.182		
Integrated	73	5.096	1.024	-0.107	87
Dedicated	16	5.063	1.552		
Related	219	5.065	1.182	-0.849	233
Dedicated	16	5.063	1.552		

TABLE 16B.--Comparison of mean responses on the potency factor to the concept of individualized instruction when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	4.397	1.205	2.432	290
Related	219	4.781	1.155		
Integrated	73	4.397	1.205	2.083	87
Dedicated	16	5.063	0.892		
Related	219	4.781	1.155	0.955	233
Dedicated	16	5.063	0.892		

TABLE 17B.--Comparison of mean responses on the potency factor to the concept of open admissions policy when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	4.897	1.175	-2.392	290
Related	219	4.473	1.357		
Integrated	73	4.897	1.175	-1.530	87
Dedicated	16	4.406	1.099		
Related	219	4.473	1.357	-0.192	233
Dedicated	16	4.406	1.099		

TABLE 18B.--Comparison of mean responses on the potency factor to the concept of career education when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	5.226	1.202	-2.105	290
Related	219	4.846	1.378		
Integrated	73	5.226	1.202	-1.312	87
Dedicated	16	4.813	0.793		
Related	219	4.846	1.378	-0.964	233
Dedicated	16	4.813	0.793		

TABLE 19B.--Comparison of mean responses on the potency factor to the concept of behavioral objectives when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	4.521	1.582	-1.333	290
Related	219	4.244	1.519		
Integrated	73	4.521	1.582	-0.812	87
Dedicated	16	4.188	0.892		
Related	219	4.244	1.519	-0.148	
Dedicated	16	4.188	0.892		

TABLE 20B.--Comparison of mean responses on the potency factor to the concept of faculty governance when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	4.993	1.688	-2.799	290
Related	219	4.410	1.495		
Integrated	73	4.993	1.688	-0.847	87
Dedicated	16	4.625	0.827		
Related	219	4.410	1.495	0.570	
Dedicated	16	4.625	0.827		

TABLE 21B.--Comparison of mean responses on the potency factor to the concept of student grievance procedure when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	4.390	1.334	0.202	290
Related	219	4.428	1.374		
Integrated	73	4.390	1.334	2.232	87
Dedicated	16	5.188	1.078		
Related	219	4.428	1.374	2.163	233
Dedicated	16	5.188	1.078		

TABLE 22B.--Comparison of mean responses on the potency factor to the concept of accountability when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	4.370	1.431	0.244	290
Related	219	4.414	1.308		
Integrated	73	4.370	1.431	1.346	87
Dedicated	16	4.875	0.940		
Related	219	4.414	1.308	1.383	233
Dedicated	16	4.875	0.940		

TABLE 23B.--Comparison of mean responses on the potency factor to the concept of collective bargaining when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	4.877	1.563	-0.623	290
Related	219	4.756	1.397		
Integrated	73	4.877	1.563	-1.727	87
Dedicated	16	4.156	1.234		
Related	219	4.756	1.397	-1.669	233
Dedicated	16	4.156	1.234		

TABLE 24B.--Comparison of mean responses on the potency factor to the concept of fiscal responsibility when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	4.466	1.270	0.536	290
Related	219	4.557	1.249		
Integrated	73	4.466	1.270	0.847	87
Dedicated	16	4.469	1.335		
Related	219	4.557	1.249	-0.270	233
Dedicated	16	4.469	1.335		

TABLE 25B.--Comparison of mean responses on the activity factor to the concept of individualized instruction when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	4.589	1.373	2.133	290
Related	219	4.935	1.143		
Integrated	73	4.589	1.373	0.356	87
Dedicated	16	4.719	1.032		
Related	219	4.935	1.143	-0.735	233
Dedicated	16	4.719	1.032		

TABLE 26B.--Comparison of mean responses on the activity factor to the concept of open admissions policy when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	4.664	1.131	-2.081	290
Related	219	4.308	1.308		
Integrated	73	4.664	1.131	-0.553	87
Dedicated	16	4.500	0.775		
Related	219	4.308	1.308	0.578	233
Dedicated	16	4.500	0.775		

TABLE 27B.--Comparison of mean responses on the activity factor to the concept of career education when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	4.884	1.240	-0.755	290
Related	219	4.756	1.257		
Integrated	73	4.884	1.240	-1.940	87
Dedicated	16	4.250	0.856		
Related	219	4.756	1.257	-1.582	233
Dedicated	16	4.250	0.856		

TABLE 28B.--Comparison of mean responses on the activity factor to the concept of behavioral objectives when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	4.733	1.233	-1.946	290
Related	219	4.413	1.209		
Integrated	73	4.733	1.233	-0.422	87
Dedicated	16	4.594	0.987		
Related	219	4.413	1.209	0.583	
Dedicated	16	4.594	0.987		

TABLE 29B.--Comparison of mean responses on the activity factor to the concept of faculty governance when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	5.192	1.290	-3.835	290
Related	219	4.521	1.297		
Integrated	73	5.192	1.290	-2.473	87
Dedicated	16	4.375	0.563		
Related	219	4.521	1.297	-0.445	233
Dedicated	16	4.375	0.563		

TABLE 30B.--Comparison of mean responses on the activity factor to the concept of student grievance procedure when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	4.144	1.703	0.340	290
Related	219	4.151	1.414		
Integrated	73	4.144	1.703	0.172	87
Dedicated	16	4.219	0.706		
Related	219	4.151	1.414	0.190	233
Dedicated	16	4.219	0.706		

TABLE 31B.--Comparison of mean responses on the activity factor to the concept of accountability when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	4.240	1.472	0.154	290
Related	219	4.265	1.104		
Integrated	73	4.240	1.472	1.091	87
Dedicated	16	4.656	0.831		
Related	219	4.265	1.104	1.389	233
Dedicated	16	4.656	0.831		

TABLE 32B.--Comparison of mean responses on the activity factor to the concept of collective bargaining when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	4.993	1.695	-1.197	290
Related	219	4.763	1.325		
Integrated	73	4.993	1.695	-1.516	87
Dedicated	16	4.313	1.250		
Related	219	4.763	1.325	-1.316	233
Dedicated	16	4.313	1.250		

TABLE 33B.--Comparison of mean responses on the activity factor to the concept of fiscal responsibility when faculties are grouped according to the managerial style of the president

Managerial Style	N	Mean Score	SD	t	DF
Integrated	73	4.199	1.285	1.034	290
Related	219	4.354	1.048		
Integrated	73	4.199	1.285	1.478	87
Dedicated	16	4.719	1.224		
Related	219	4.354	1.048	1.329	233
Dedicated	16	4.719	1.224		

APPENDIX C

MANAGEMENT STYLE DIAGNOSIS TEST: QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire

Note.--Look at the sixty-four pairs of statements in the Questionnaire. If you think the first statement of a pair is the one that best applies to you, put an "X" in the space beside statement "A." If you think the second statement is the better description of your behavior than "A," put an "X" in the space beside statement "B." To decide which statement best applies, ask yourself: "Of the two statements given, which best describes what I actually do on the job I now have?" It may be helpful, in difficult cases, to answer as someone would who really knew and understood your present approach to your job. Some statements you may find a little ambiguous, sometimes both will apply, often, neither will seem to apply. However, in every case pick the one statement that best describes you at present if you were faced with the circumstances described.

1. _____ A. He overlooks violations of rules if he is sure that no one else knows of the violations.
   _____ B. When he announces an unpopular decision, he may explain to his subordinates that his own boss has made the decision.

2. _____ A. If an employee's work is continually unsatisfactory, he would wait for an opportunity to have him transferred rather than dismiss him.
   _____ B. If one of his subordinates is not a part of the group, he will go out of his way to have the others befriend him.

3. _____ A. When the boss gives an unpopular order, he thinks it is fair that it should carry the boss's name, and not his own.
_____ B. He usually reaches his decisions independently, and then informs his subordinates of them.

4. _____ A. If he is reprimanded by his superiors, he calls his subordinates together and passes it on to them.
_____ B. He always gives the most difficult jobs to his most experienced workers.

5. _____ A. He allows discussions to get off the point quite frequently.
_____ B. He encourages subordinates to make suggestions, but does not often initiate action from them.

6. _____ A. He sometimes thinks that his own feelings and attitudes are as important as the job.
_____ B. He allows his subordinates to participate in decision making, and always abides by the decision of the majority.

7. _____ A. When the quality or quantity of departmental work is not satisfactory, he explains to his subordinates that his own boss is not satisfied, and that they must improve their work.
_____ B. He reaches his decisions independently, and then tries to "sell" them to his subordinates.

8. _____ A. When he announces an unpopular decision, he may explain to his subordinates that his own boss has made the decision.
_____ B. He may allow his subordinates to participate in decision making, but he reserves the right to make the final decision.

9. _____ A. He may give difficult jobs to inexperienced subordinates, but if they get into trouble he will relieve them of the responsibility.
_____ B. When the quality or quantity of departmental work is not satisfactory, he explains to his subordinates that his own boss is not satisfied, and that they must improve their work.

10. _____ A. He feels it is as important for his subordinates to like him as it is for them to work hard.
_____ B. He lets other people handle jobs by themselves, even though they may make many mistakes.

11. _____ A. He shows an interest in his subordinates' personal lives because he feels they expect it of him.
_____ B. He feels it is not always necessary for subordinates to understand why they do something, as long as they do it.

12. _____ A. He believes that disciplining subordinates will not improve the quality or quantity of their work in the long run.
_____ B. When confronted with a difficult problem, he attempts to reach a solution which will be at least partly acceptable to all concerned.

13. _____ A. He thinks that some of his subordinates are unhappy, and tries to do something about it.
_____ B. He looks after his own work, and feels it is up to higher management to develop new ideas.

14. _____ A. He is in favour of increased fringe benefits for management and labor.
_____ B. He shows concern for increasing his subordinates' knowledge of the job and the company, even though it is not necessary in their present position.

15. _____ A. He lets other people handle jobs by themselves, even though they make many mistakes.
_____ B. He makes decisions independently, but may consider reasonable suggestions from his subordinates to improve them if he asks for them.

16. _____ A. If one of his subordinates is not a part of the group, he will go out of his way to have the others befriend him.
_____ B. When an employee is unable to complete a task, he helps him to arrive at a solution.

17. _____ A. He believes that one of the uses of discipline is to set an example for other workers.
_____ B. He sometimes thinks that his own feelings and attitudes are as important as the job.

18. _____ A. He disapproves of unnecessary talking among his subordinates while they are working.
_____ B. He is in favour of increased fringe benefits for management and labor.

19. _____ A. He is always aware of lateness and absenteeism.
_____ B. He believes that unions may try to undermine the authority of management.

20. _____ A. He sometimes opposes union grievances as a matter of principle.
_____ B. He feels that grievances are inevitable and tries to smooth them over as best he can.

21. _____ A. It is important to him to get credit for his own good ideas.
_____ B. He voices his own opinions in public only if he feels that others will agree with him.

22. _____ A. He believes that unions may try to undermine the authority of management.
_____ B. He believes that frequent conferences with individuals are helpful in their development.

23. _____ A. He feels it is not always necessary for subordinates to understand why they do something, as long as they do it.
_____ B. He feels that time-clocks reduce tardiness.

24. _____ A. He usually reaches his decision independently, and then informs his subordinates of them.
_____ B. He feels that unions and management are working towards similar goals.

25. _____ A. He favors the use of individual incentive payment schemes.
_____ B. He allows discussions to get off the point quite frequently.

26. _____ A. He takes pride in the fact that he would not usually ask someone to do a job he would not do himself.
_____ B. He thinks that some of his subordinates are unhappy, and tries to do something about it.

27. _____ A. If a job is urgent, he might go ahead and tell someone to do it, even though additional safety equipment is needed.
_____ B. It is important to him to get credit for his own good ideas.

28. _____ A. His goal is to get the work done without antagonizing anyone more than he has to.
_____ B. He may assign jobs without much regard for experience or ability but insists on getting results.

29. _____ A. He may assign jobs without much regard for experience or ability but insists on getting results.
_____ B. He listens patiently to complaints and grievances, but often does little to rectify them.

30. _____ A. He feels that grievances are inevitable and tries to smooth them over as best he can.
_____ B. He is confident that his subordinates will do satisfactory work without any pressure from him.

31. _____ A. When confronted with a difficult problem, he attempts to reach a solution which will be at least partly acceptable to all concerned.
_____ B. He believes that training through on the job experience is more useful than theoretical education.

32. _____ A. He always gives the most difficult jobs to his most experienced workers.
_____ B. He believes in promotion only in accordance with ability.

33. _____ A. He feels that problems among his workers will usually solve themselves without interference from him.
_____ B. If he is reprimanded by his superiors, he calls his subordinates together and passes it on to them.

34. _____ A. He is not concerned with what his employees do outside of working hours.
_____ B. He believes that disciplining subordinates will not improve the quality or quantity of their work in the long run.

35. _____ A. He passes no more information to higher management than they ask for.
_____ B. He sometimes opposes union grievances as a matter of principle.

36. _____ A. He sometimes hesitates to make a decision which will be unpopular with his subordinates.
_____ B. His goal is to get the work done without antagonizing anyone more than he has to.

37. _____ A. He listens patiently to complaints and grievances, but often does little to rectify them.
_____ B. He sometimes hesitates to make a decision which he feels will be unpopular with his subordinates.

38. _____ A. He voices his own opinions in public only if he feels that others will agree with him.
_____ B. Most of his subordinates could carry on their jobs without him if necessary.

39. _____ A. He looks after his own work, and feels it is up to higher management to develop new ideas.
_____ B. When he gives orders, he sets a time limit for them to be carried out.

40. _____ A. He encourages subordinates to make suggestions, but does not often initiate action from them.
_____ B. He tries to put his workers at ease when talking to them.

41. _____ A. In discussion he presents the facts as he sees them, and leaves others to draw their own conclusions.
_____ B. When the boss gives an unpopular order, he thinks it is fair that it should carry the boss's name, and not his own.

42. _____ A. When unwanted work has to be done, he asks for volunteers before assigning it.
_____ B. He shows an interest in his subordinates' personal lives because he feels they expect it of him.

43. _____ A. He is as much interested in keeping his employees happy as in getting them to do their work.
_____ B. He is always aware of lateness and absenteeism.

44. _____ A. Most of his subordinates could carry on their jobs without him if necessary.
_____ B. If a job is urgent, he might go ahead and tell someone to do it, even though additional safety equipment is needed.

45. _____ A. He is confident that his subordinates will do satisfactory work without any pressure from him.
_____ B. He passes no more information to higher management than they ask for.

46. _____ A. He believes that frequent conferences with individuals are helpful in their development.
_____ B. He is as much interested in keeping his employees happy as in getting them to do their work.

47. _____ A. He shows concern for increasing his subordinates' knowledge of the job and the company, even though it is not necessary in their present position.
_____ B. He keeps a very close watch on workers who get behind or do unsatisfactory work.

48. _____ A. He allows his subordinates to participate in decision making, and always abides by the decision of the majority.
_____ B. He makes his subordinates work hard, but tries to make sure that they usually get a fair deal from higher management.

49. _____ A. He feels that all workers on the same job should receive the same pay.
_____ B. If any employee's work is continually unsatisfactory, he would wait for an opportunity to have him transferred rather than dismiss him.

50. _____ A. He feels that the goals of union and management are in opposition but tries not to make his view obvious.
_____ B. He feels it is as important for his subordinates to like him as it is for them to work hard.

51. _____ A. He keeps a very close watch on workers who get behind or do unsatisfactory work.
_____ B. He disapproves of unnecessary talking among his subordinates while they are working.

52. _____ A. When he gives orders, he sets a time limit for them to be carried out.
_____ B. He takes pride in the fact that he would not usually ask someone to do a job he would not do himself.

53. _____ A. He believes that training through on the job experience is more useful than theoretical education.
_____ B. He is not concerned with what his employees do outside of working hours.

54. _____ A. He feels that time-clocks reduce tardiness.
_____ B. He allows his subordinates to participate in decision making, and always abides by the decision of the majority.

55. _____ A. He makes decisions independently, but may consider reasonable suggestions from his subordinates to improve them if he asks for them.
_____ B. He feels that the goals of union and management are in opposition but tries not to make his view obvious.

56. _____ A. He reaches his decisions independently, and then tries to "sell" them to his subordinates.
_____ B. When possible he forms work teams out of people who are already good friends.

57. _____ A. He would not hesitate to hire a handicapped worker if he felt he could learn the job.
_____ B. He overlooks violations of rules if he is sure that no one else knows of the violations.

58. _____ A. When possible he forms work teams out of people who are already good friends.
_____ B. He may give difficult jobs to inexperienced subordinates, but if they get in trouble he will relieve them of the responsibility.

59. _____ A. He makes his subordinates work hard, but tries to make sure that they usually get a fair deal from higher management.
_____ B. He believes that one of the uses of discipline is to set an example for other workers.

60. _____ A. He tries to put his workers at ease when talking to them.
_____ B. He favors the use of individual incentive payment schemes.

61. _____ A. He believes in promotion only in accordance with ability.
_____ B. He feels that problems among his workers will usually solve themselves without interference from him.

62. _____ A. He feels that unions and management are working towards similar goals.
_____ B. In discussion he presents the facts as he sees them and leaves others to draw their own conclusions.

63. _____ A. When an employee is unable to complete a task, he helps him to arrive at a solution.
_____ B. He feels that all workers on the same job should receive the same pay.

64. _____ A. He may allow his subordinates to participate in decision making, but he reserves the right to make the final decision.
_____ B. He would not hesitate to hire a handicapped worker if he felt he could learn the job.