

KEY INFLUENCES ON MANAGERIAL PERCEPTION  
OF ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

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1972

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the  
Department of Administrative Sciences of  
the College of Business Administration  
of the Oklahoma State University  
in partial fulfillment of  
the requirements for  
the Degree of  
MASTER OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION  
May, 1974

ne: Michael Eugene Moore Date of Degree: May 11, 1974

stitution: Oklahoma State University

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ile of Study: KEY INFLUENCES ON MANAGERIAL PERCEPTION  
OF ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

ges in Study: 107 Candidate for the Degree of  
Master of Business Administratic

or Field: Business Administration (Management)

ype and Method of Study: This study, conducted at NASA's Johnson Space Center (NASA-JSC) in Houston, Texas, had a twofold purpose. The first was to determine if a relationship exists between: (1) a manager's perception of an effective organization and (2) his personal background, characteristics of his job and organization, the technology in which he works, and/or his leadership style. The second purpose was to determine whether this relationship is different for those managers who perceive their own organization to be effective as compared with those managers who perceive their own organization to be less effective. Data was gathered via a four-part questionnaire administered to JSC personnel: the data was then subjected to stepwise regression analysis.

idings and Conclusions: There were two main findings resulting from this study. The first is that personal, job, organization, technology, and leadership style variables all influence a manager's perception of an effective organization, with his leadership style and organization playing the largest roles. The second finding is that perception of an effective organization is strongly related to: (1) the leadership style of all managers and (2) the personal background, job characteristics, organization, and job technology of only those managers who perceive their own organization to be effective. An important conclusion is that careful consideration of these findings will better enable a manager to understand organizational effectiveness as it is perceived by himself, his superiors, his subordinates, and by external members of his environment. Such an awareness should enhance the manager's ability to contribute to the effectiveness of his organization.

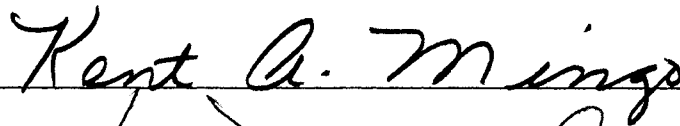
ADVISER'S APPROVAL


  
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## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my appreciation to the many people who have helped me throughout the course of my work on this study.

Dr. Ralph Catalanello and Dr. Kent Mingo, my advisors, provided many constructive criticisms and suggestions and were the ones originally interested in this topic.

Three people from the University of Houston/NASA-JSC deserve my thanks: Dr. Winford E. Holland for his creative idea and administrative help, Miss Anne Cunningham for her typing of the questionnaire and Miss Cheryll Madison for her editing.

Mr. Richard Rosencranz, Jr., of NASA/JSC was of great assistance as a computer consultant.

Mrs. Lanita Martin did an excellent job in typing the final version of the paper.

I am deeply grateful to my parents, Marilyn and Gene Moorhead, for their advice and the examples they set have provided guidance and motivation throughout both my college career and life in general.

Finally, a special word of thanks is reserved for my wife, Angela. Not only did she do all of the rough-draft typing, but her ceaseless patience and continuous encouragement were essential to my completion of this paper.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### Background and Purpose of the Study

Perhaps the most important ongoing aim of an organization is to be effective. Once it has established a set of goals to be reached, an organization naturally wants to satisfy these goals in an optimal manner so that resources are not to be conserved while accomplishing objectives. However, arriving at a satisfactory measure of organizational effectiveness is not an easy matter. While it is universally regarded as being a desirable quality, probably few would agree on just what effectiveness entails. For this reason, it is clear that any measure of such a quality must certainly be subjective; rather than actually measuring organizational effectiveness, we will truly measure it only as it is perceived by various people.

Aside from the task of quantifying organizational effectiveness is the problem of determining the particular components of a person's environment which most influence standards by which he judges the effectiveness of an organization. Does the technology of a person's job, for example, influence (perhaps unconsciously) his development

such a set of standards? What about his leadership role? How about his personal background? Are there other factors related to his perception of organizational effectiveness?

Effectiveness has always been a quality of utmost importance to the National Aeronautics and Space Administration. Prior to and especially since the spectacularly successful fulfillment of President Kennedy's announced goal of landing an American on the moon in the decade of the 1960's, NASA's accomplishments have been subjected to close scrutiny. With the attainment of its original over-riding goal, NASA has found it increasingly necessary to convince such forces of the external environment as Congress and the public of the continuing benefits to be derived from the space program. In other words, space now has to "pay its own way."

Skylab and Space Shuttle are excellent examples of programs designed to provide eventually tangible benefits to man (as well as some very significant immediate benefits). Technical personnel involved in these programs have the opportunity to join engineers concerned with the current "energy crisis" as recipients of a new resurgence of public recognition of the value of the physical sciences. Retention of Congressional funding and public support thus depends to a large degree upon the ability of NASA to illustrate its effectiveness in serving man.

An effective organization is comprised of individuals, each working toward his own version of "effectiveness." Collins (1973) determined several factors (a series of dialectically-opposed phrases) which people deem most relevant in describing the perceived difference between effective and ineffective organizations.

The purpose of the present study is twofold. First, data gathered on managers employed at NASA's Johnson Space Center in Houston, Texas, will be analyzed to determine if a relationship exists between: (1) a manager's perception of an unspecified but effective organization (using Collins' factors) and (2) his personal background, characteristics of his job and organization, the technology in which he works, and/or his leadership style.

Then this data will be analyzed to resolve whether this relationship is different for those perceiving their own organization to be effective as compared with those feeling their own organization to be ineffective. In other words, it will be determined, for example, whether a manager's perception of the effectiveness of his own organization affects the relationship between his perception of an unspecified but effective organization and his personal background (or the relationship between his perception of an unspecified but effective organization and the technology in which he works, and so on).

Reddin (1970) advanced the notion that the leadership style which a manager should use depends upon the situation

which he works. In other words, the five situational elements of technology, organizational philosophy, superiors, subordinates, and subordinates should be viewed by the manager as determinants of the degree to which he should be task-oriented and the degree to which he should be relationship-oriented. To determine leadership style for this study, use will be made of an instrument developed by Reddin. A tool for measuring how a person describes the technology in which he works will be developed. Both involve several pairs of statements, and one choice is selected from each pair. Significant factors from Collins' work will also be a part of the questionnaire. Finally, a few questions designed to describe characteristics of a manager's job and professional background will be involved.

### Statement of Hypotheses

In keeping with the twofold purpose of this study, two two-part hypotheses must be tested.

#### Hypothesis #1

A manager's perception of an unspecified but effective organization is not related to:

- (1) his personal background,
- (2) characteristics of his job,
- (3) characteristics of his organization,
- (4) the technology of the work in which he is engaged, and/or
- (5) his leadership style.

hypothesis #2

A manager's perception of the effectiveness of his organization has no effect on the relationship (if a relationship does indeed exist) between his perception of unspecified but effective organization and:

- (1) his personal background,
- (2) characteristics of his job,
- (3) characteristics of his organization,
- (4) the technology of the work in which he is engaged, and/or
- (5) his leadership style.

A determination of whether or not these two broad hypotheses are correct will be the goal of this study and is important for three main reasons. First, an awareness of the forces shaping a manager's opinion will better enable him to keep any one force from overwhelming the others and realistically setting effectiveness standards for his particular situation. Second, a manager should realize the extent to which his superiors and his subordinates are influenced by the five classes of variables in forming their perception of organizational effectiveness; he should recognize that their perceptions may be different from his own and he should act accordingly. Finally, it is even more important for an organization to project an aura of effectiveness to the forces of its external environment if it is to remain successful in the future.

### Pertinent Definitions

An understanding of a few important terms and concepts necessary before proceeding further in this study.

An organization is a group of people working together achieve a common goal or objective.

Organizational effectiveness is a subjective measure how well objectives of the organization are accomplished. Different people set different standards and thus perceive organizational effectiveness differently.

Technology is defined as the mechanisms or processes which work may be done.

A manager's "perception of an organization" will be defined as the degree to which he feels a certain group of effectiveness traits is typical of, or important to, that organization. It will be abbreviated "EALL".

A manager's perception of an "unspecified but effective organization" will refer to his perception of the most effective JSC division with which he is familiar (the actual division he has in mind will not be named).

A manager's "own organization" will refer to his NASA-JSC division.

The term "manager" is used loosely and refers to those persons participating as subjects in this study. While some participants did not have any subordinates, it is quite possible they managed contracts (contract monitors) or considered themselves managers in some other way since only managers were invited to participate.

## Preview of the Organization of the Study

A three-part review of the literature will be conducted in Chapter II. Research in the areas of organizational effectiveness, technology, and leadership styles will all be examined to provide a valid starting point for the present study.

Chapter III is concerned with the research method and begins with a discussion of the sample and the procedure. All parts of the questionnaire are explained in detail, from the section designed to measure the dependent variable organizational effectiveness to the three sections assessing personal background, job characteristics, and organizational characteristics; job technology; and leadership style. Then the factor analysis and stepwise regression analysis procedures are explained.

A discussion of concepts and a presentation and discussion of the findings as they relate to both hypotheses are given in Chapter IV.

Finally, the overall implications for management and the conclusions of this study are found in Chapter V.

## Summary

The significance of this study has been expressed in terms of the contemporary environment confronting organizations in general and NASA-JSC in particular. The purpose of this study, a statement of the hypotheses, and relevant

definitions have all been presented, followed by a preview  
the organization of this study.



## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Extensive research has been conducted in the areas of organizational effectiveness, technology, and leadership theories. An overview of some of the significant developments will be presented for each of these areas in turn, after which selected theories will be applied to the specific problems posed in this study.

#### Studies of Organizational Effectiveness

Assessment of organizational effectiveness via an instrument utilized by Robert W. Collins (1973) is essential to the present study. Collins' questionnaire is supported by his substantial review of the literature which covered organizational effectiveness (both normative and empirical studies) as well as leadership effectiveness. He determined that the following are five key elements of an organization:

- (1) executive management (top management);
- (2) supervisory management (front line managers);
- (3) organizational information transfer (people-to-people exchange);
- (4) flexibility (adaptation to change); and
- (5) operations (the use of budget and people resources).

These served as the basis of his work.

Collins noted a point which is also pertinent to this study. He stated:

"The use of questionnaires is overwhelmingly endorsed as can be seen by the use of them by nine of the twelve empirical studies on organizational effectiveness. All twelve studies utilized some mathematical routine to manipulate the data." (1973, page 21).

Questionnaire, factor analysis, and stepwise multiple regression analysis will each play an integral role in the present study. Collins' questionnaire is discussed in more depth in the following chapter.

### Studies of Technology

Technology has emerged as a significant, perhaps defining, characteristic of organizations in recent years. An overview of some pertinent studies in this field will be given including:

- (1) general theoretical statements,
- (2) the role of technology in work groups,
- (3) technology in studies of single types of organizations,
- (4) technological variables in explicit contrasts of organizations,
- (5) technology as an independent variable in comparative studies of organizations, and
- (6) classification of technology.

A foundation will be developed for a classification of technology according to demands made on managerial behavior.

#### General Theoretical Statements

Theoretical statements relating technology and organizational structure have been presented which feature such things as a distinction between uniform and nonuniform

ks (Litwak, 1961, with empirical support by Hall, 1962) a distinction between programmed and nonprogrammed decisions (March and Simon, 1958, and Simon, 1960).

Thompson (1967) developed a classification consisting three varieties of technology: (1) long-linked or serially interdependent (such as a mass production assembly line), (2) mediating (operates in standardized ways and puts inputs or clients into groups for application of these standardized procedures within groups, as does a commercial bank), and (3) intensive or custom technology (customized application of a variety of techniques to an object where the selection, combination, and application techniques is determined through feedback from the object, as in research).

These theories describe the difference between task oriented (uniform tasks, programmed decisions, and long-linked) technologies and relations oriented (nonuniform tasks, nonprogrammed decisions, and custom) technologies. Different technologies create different organizational structures and different criteria of effectiveness.

#### Role of Technology in Work Groups

Trist and Bamforth (1951) imposed an assembly-line routine work layout on an essentially nonroutine craft job-shop operation (the long-wall method of coal mining) with predictably unfortunate results.

Likert, a human relations advocate, observed that the sequences of leadership style varied with the routine and routine nature of the work (technology as an independent variable; chapter 7, 1961) and thereby undermined many of central hypotheses of other chapters.

Blauner (1964) used a comparative framework in presenting a sophisticated statement of the impact of technology on workers. He studied job satisfaction by occupational groupings and found that McGregor's Theory X (1960) works best in unskilled and semiskilled occupations (where the job itself does not offer intrinsic job satisfaction) while McGregor's Theory Y was found to be more effective for such people as mathematicians, physicists, doctors, lawyers, or professors (where the job does offer intrinsic satisfaction).

The point made in each of these studies is that consideration of the technology is important in achieving effectiveness. It is necessary to consider both the degree to which the technology is task oriented (routine work and Theory X) and the degree to which it is relations oriented (nonroutine work and Theory Y).

#### Technology in Studies of Single Types of Organizations

Technology plays an explicit and important role in Perrow's contrast of two units in a long-term hospital (1963). Technology plays the key role in an analysis of the literature on general and mental hospitals by Perrow (1965).

The study by Street, et al., of six correctional institutions placed emphasis upon executive goals and behavior, thus obscuring the ambiguous but certainly significant role played by technology (1966).

These studies illustrate that organizations with similar technologies might differ in effectiveness according to the different ways in which management perceives and works with each technology. An organization with an operations orientation will not be as effective if management attempts to utilize task oriented methods, for example.

#### Technological Variables in Explicit Contrasts of Organizations

An ambitious analysis of simple organizations in nonindustrial societies, conducted by Udy (1959), placed emphasis upon technology; it is difficult to apply his theory to complex organizations in industrialized societies, though.

Technology is a relevant variable both in Stinchcombe's discussion of structure and time periods (1965) and in his discussion of craft and bureaucratic organization (1959).

In both a study of two business concerns by Dill (1958) and a comparison of two industrial firms by Lorsch (1965), technology is an important variable but absorbed in the moderating variable, environment.

In these studies, an awareness of the particular technologies characteristic of various firms is shown to be important; two firms can be equally effective as long as differences in technology are recognized.

Technology as an Independent Variable in Comparative Studies  
Industrial Organizations

Joan Woodward (1965) systematically explored the relationships between organizational technology and variations in organizational structure. She performed an analysis of 100 manufacturing firms in the South East Essex area of England and grouped these firms along a scale of technical complexity (the extent to which the production process is controllable and its results predictable). She characterized three basic modes of production; in order of ascending technical complexity these are: (1) unit or small batch production (a custom-made suit), (2) large batch or mass production (the automobile industry), and (3) continuous flow or process production (oil refineries). An investigation of organizational characteristics led Woodward to the following conclusions: (1) there is no significant relationship between technological mode and organizational size; (2) the number of levels of authority in an organization increased with increasing technical complexity; and (3) the ratio of managers and supervisors to total personnel increased with technical complexity. Woodward also incorporated Burns' (1961) distinction of "organic" (similar to human relations) and "mechanistic" (similar to task) management systems in her research and found that firms in the middle of the scale of technical complexity were least likely to be characterized by organic systems.

Hickson, et al., (1969) proposed a comprehensive conceptualization encompassing three types of technology; (1) operations (automation of equipment, sequence of operations, specificity of evaluation), (2) materials (nature of the materials and the degree to which the materials are processed and further processed to be sold); and (3) knowledge (complexity of the technology and the degree to which knowledge of the overall job must be dispersed among subordinates).

Harvey (1967) collected data on 43 industrial organizations and found relationships between an organization's technology and such aspects of its internal structure as: (1) the number of specialized sub-units, (2) the number of levels of authority, (3) the ratio of managers and supervisors to total personnel, and (4) the degree of program specialization within the organization. He also found that the more complex an organization's technology, the more likely the above aspects of internal structure are to increase. The technological factor, Harvey concluded, is one of the most important factors to consider when examining variations in organizational structure.

Mahoney and Frost (1972) applied Thompson's typology of technologies (long-linked, mediating, and intensive; 1967) to a sample of 297 organizational units within a diverse sample of 17 business and industrial firms. Their findings support the hypothesis that the criteria of effectiveness of

organizational unit vary with the nature of the technology of that unit.

Analyses by Mahoney and Weitzel (1969) indicate that, because of differences in their technological environments, different models of organizational effectiveness are applied to managers of research and development units in contrast to managers of more general business operations.

These studies classify organizations according to their technologies. They relate technology to several different aspects of organizations (such as the number of levels of authority) as well as to the criteria of organizational effectiveness which are utilized. It was shown that different models of effectiveness must be applied according to the task or relationships orientation of the situation.

#### Classification of Technology

Perrow (1967) suggested a system of classification of organizations which conceptualized organizations in terms of the work they do rather than their structure or their goals. The work done on raw materials Perrow labeled "technology"; raw material may be a symbol, a living being, or an inanimate object. For example, symbols are materials in some research organizations while the interaction of people are materials to be manipulated by administrators in organizations.

According to Perrow, two aspects of technology vary independently: the number of exceptions that must be handled and



degree to which search is an analyzable procedure. A task with many exceptions and/or search activities which are not calculational and analytic describes a nonroutine technology. Few exceptions and analyzable search procedures describes a routine technology. Craft and engineering technologies result from various combinations; see Figure 1. Finally, task structures are related to the technology while social structure is in turn related to technology and task structure.

Although most technology classification schemes have focused on the demands work makes on worker behavior, Reddin's (1970) "Theory" examines technological demands on managerial behavior, making it directly useful to the manager as a guide for his behavior. Reddin suggests that effective management in large measure depends on the manager's ability to determine the proper combination of task and relationships orientation dictated by his technology and his ability and willingness to use the appropriate managerial style. A further discussion of Reddin's ideas is presented in the next chapter.

### Survey of Studies of Technology

A review of the literature on technology reveals a wide variety of diverging theories, ideas, and concepts. Woodward (1955) showed technology and organizational structure to be related, as did Harvey (1967). Thompson (1967) developed a classification of technologies according to the production methods utilized. Perrow's (1967) classification of organizations was based on technology rather than structure or goals.

<u>Search</u> Analyzable Problem	Unanalyzable Problem	1	2
	Analyzable Problem	4	3
		Few	Many

Exceptions

Figure 1. Perrow's Technology Variable

One purpose of the present study is to explore the relationship between technology and a manager's perception of organizational effectiveness. Mahoney and Frost (1972) demonstrated that the criteria of effectiveness of an organizational unit vary with the nature of the technology of that unit. Mahoney and Weitzel (1969) had indicated earlier that differences in technology create a need for different levels of organizational effectiveness. Likert (1961) observed that technology influences the consequences of leadership style, while Reddin was concerned with technological demands on managerial behavior.

Quantitative methods will be used to determine the relationship between technology and a manager's perception of organizational effectiveness. Both of these variables will be determined when a manager completes an especially-designed questionnaire. A regression analysis will then indicate the strength of the relationship.

### Studies of Leadership Styles

Many behavioral theories have been proposed regarding managerial effectiveness and management styles. The emphasis has been placed at various times upon the technology of the organization, the manager, his subordinates, his co-workers, and the organization itself. This discussion will focus upon the following topics:

- (1) five schools of thought;
- (2) leadership research: basic styles;
- (3) leadership effectiveness research: ideal styles;

- (4) behavioral theories;
- (5) Reddin's managerial effectiveness theory; and
- (6) a leadership style concepts comparison.

### Schools of Thought

Reddin (1970) outlines five situational elements that the bases of distinct schools of thought in management developed over the past fifty years: (1) scientific management, (2) human relations, (3) group dynamics, (4) management styles, and (5) organization theory. Table I illustrates general categories and indicates when each school became the basis of theoretical development and management interest; all still popular today.

TABLE I  
MANAGEMENT SCHOOLS OF THOUGHT

EMPHASIS	INTERFACE	SCHOOL	PERIOD
Technology	Work-worker	Scientific management	1920
Coordinates	Worker-climate	Human relations	1930
Workers	Manager-group	Group dynamics	1940
Superior	Manager-subordinate	Management styles	1950
Organization	Manager-organization	Organization theory	1960

Scientific Management. This functional school of management was popularized by Fayol (1930) and by Frederick Winslow Taylor (1911). Their approach, more physiological and psychological, stressed the training of workers to move in optimum speed and in the best way to fit the job.

Human Relations. Elton Mayo (1933,1945) of the Harvard Business School and Fritz Roethlisberger (1939) were founders of this school of management, which emphasized the psychological and sociological forces in industrial organizations rather than the worker's physical efforts. It was found that output could be restricted by informal group social pressures conform to standards set by co-workers, and that productivity was affected by the worker's perceptions of the interest management had in him. Morale and job satisfaction were of great concern.

Group Dynamics. With this school began interest in the interaction among people; one of its precepts was that the power differential between superiors and subordinates should be lowered. Proponents of this school are Lewin (1948) and Ashforth (1961).

Management Styles. McGregor (1960) and Blake (1964) are advocates of this school; style classification schemes were developed which focus on such variables as task and relationships rather than on situational variables like technology. Different theories usually outline a so-called "ideal" management style.

Organization Theory. This school of thought views organizations as entities with life and culture of their own. More emphasis is placed on the culture, philosophy, ethics, and morale of the organization than on the technology and personnel. This approach is well represented by Ackoff (1960). Thompson (1967) outlined two strategies for studying organizations: the closed-system approach seeks certainty and uses only those variables positively associated with goal achievement while the open-system approach incorporates uncertainty recognizing organizational interdependence with the environment. He suggested an open-system conceptualization subject to closed-system criteria of goal achievement to be a desirable promise.

#### Leadership Research: Basic Styles

Some leadership-research studies have concentrated upon determining a set of basic leadership styles used by managers. Roll Shartle, at Ohio State University (1956), classified leadership behavior into two independent factors: "initiating structure" and "consideration" (Stogdill and Coons, eds., 1957).

Research undertaken at the University of Michigan in 1947 gave rise to the "Michigan style continuum" (Guetzkow, ed., 1951; Bass and Katz, 1960), which suggested that leader behavior ranges from an employee-centered extreme to a production-centered extreme.

Bales (1933) of Harvard University, found in his studies of small-group behavior that most groups possess two different sets of leadership needs. These needs are satisfied by the

sk leader" and the "socio-emotional leader" roles generally led by two different members of the group.

#### Leadership Effectiveness Research: Ideal Styles

Effectiveness research has been conducted by psychologists in an attempt to determine: (1) whether one leadership style is more effective than another and (2) whether an ideal style exists.

In their experiment on the use of the participatory management style, L. Coch and J. R. P. French, Jr. (1947) found that the performance of production workers was enhanced when the workers were allowed to participate fully in matters relating to proposed changes. However, subsequent studies by French (1960), Vroom (1960) and Tannenbaum (1954) concluded that the participatory approach should be used only on those individuals who want it; effects of the participatory style dependent on worker's attitudes.

R. C. Anderson (1959) reviewed studies utilizing various "other-or" leadership approaches (as "autocrat" versus "democrat," "directive" versus "nondirective," "supervisory" versus "participatory," and "boss-centered" versus "employee-centered") and found that these approaches were not accurate in describing leadership behavior and that no single type of behavior was generally more effective than another.

S. S. Sales (1966), Duntzman and Bass (1963), and Patchen (1962) separately arrived at the conclusion that democratic, interaction-oriented, supervision can actually be less

ective than autocratic, or task-oriented, supervision in many instances.

E. A. Fleishman and D. R. Peters (1962) determined from their work that whether a manager had greater concern for structure or consideration had no bearing on the manager's rated effectiveness.

Finally in 1966, A. K. Korman reviewed twenty-five leadership studies and concluded that a manager's effectiveness could not be predicted simply by determining whether he placed more emphasis on consideration or initiating structure; neither style is better than the other in every case.

### Behavioral Theories

Several different, and sometimes conflicting, viewpoints are expressed by the various behavioral theories currently available; a few will be mentioned here.

Maslow (1954) propounded that there are five types of human needs which individuals seek to satisfy in the following order: physiological, safety, belongingness and love, esteem, and self-actualization. (This theory of subordinate psychology would explain why an employee with his first four needs satisfied might value self-actualization more than a raise in pay.)

McGregor (1960) developed two sets of assumptions typifying the feelings managers have about personnel: (1) Theory X, that people need to be closely controlled and even forced to work toward the achievement of organization objectives and Theory Y, that people are self-directed and creative at



k when properly motivated. In terms of Maslow's theoretical hierarchy of needs, McGregor thought man today has largely satisfied his security needs and that Theory Y rather than Theory X was the type of leadership better suited to satisfying man's higher order needs of autonomy and esteem.

Katz (1955) proposed that effective administration rests on three basic administrator skills: (1) technical skill, "understanding of, and proficiency in, a specific kind of activity," (2) human skill, "the ability to work effectively as a group member," and (3) conceptual skill, "the ability to see the enterprise as a whole." The relative importance of these skills varies according to the individual manager's position in the organizational hierarchy.

A five-style grid model was proposed by Blake (1964) relating managerial styles and behavior: 1.1 for too weak, 5.1 for too soft, 9.1 for too hard, and 9.9 for ideal managerial behavior. Middle-of-the-road behavior falls into the 5.5 style category. This ideal-style model does not emphasize technological demands or the situation in which the manager works.

McClelland of Harvard University (1961, 1962) investigated the need for achievement (N-ACH). A person possessing a high N-ACH is more concerned with self knowledge that he has done well than with rewards such as money or praise. He is most effective when the situation allows him to proceed on his own efforts and not to depend on chance or on other people.

Likert's (1961, 1967) model of four organizational styles, or philosophies, are called systems 1 through 4. Systems 1 and 4 are extremes of a continuum denoting: (1) the degree of confidence or trust management has in the subordinates (none in system 1, complete in system 4); (2) the origin of goals and decisions and the concentration of controls (with only management in system 1, widely dispersed in system 4); (3) the method of subordinate motivation (fear, threats, and punishment in system 1, participation and involvement in system 4), and (4) whether informal organizations which exist oppose (system 1) or support (system 4) goals of the formal organization. Likert believes in system 4 as the single ideal style; his view is psychological rather than sociological or technological.

According to Herzberg's Motivation Hygiene Theory (1957, 1966), industrial man has two independent groups of needs: job environmental and job enrichment. Changes in the level of needs consisting of environmental or hygiene factors (wage, pay, status, security, policies, procedures, administration, supervision, and working conditions) can lower dissatisfaction but not increase satisfaction. Changes in the motivators or enrichment factors (challenging work, achievement, recognition for accomplishment, increased responsibility, and growth and development of subordinates) can improve motivation and performance. In short, dissatisfaction is most likely to arise from elements of the job environment while satisfaction will generally arise from enrichment elements in the job itself.

Fiedler's Leadership Contingency Model (1966) expresses leadership effectiveness as a function of the extent to which style matches the situation. This behavioral theory features (1) position power of leader (the degree to which position possesses the power to obtain subordinate compliance); (2) structure of task (the extent to which the leader is allowed to control his group members by programming tasks); and (3) leader-member relations (the degree to which leader-member relations are good) as independent situational dimensions. Leader-member relations are considered good when subordinates would choose the same person as co-leader and leader in similar tasks, when the leader is most influential, and when the leader feels accepted and relaxed.

#### Reddin's Managerial Effectiveness Theory

Reddin (1970) in his "3-D Theory" of managerial effectiveness expounded his belief that two basic dimensions exist in the form of the task and the interpersonal relationships involved, and these are the two main determinants of desired managerial behavior. Style names were assigned to the four possible combinations of task orientation (TO) and relationships orientation (RO).

Thus, high TO and low RO was labeled "dedicated"; low TO and high RO was labeled "related"; low TO and low RO were termed "separated"; and high TO and high RO were designated "integrated."

Further, Reddin felt that none of these four styles was more or less effective in itself, and that any style could be

ctive in particular situations but not effective in other  
ances. Thus, a manager is effective only when his lead-  
ip behavior matches the demands of his situation. For  
ple, a manager using a high RO would be classed as inef-  
ive if the situation required a low RO.

Figure 2 illustrates the three dimensions of the theory  
names the more and less effective managerial styles. A  
ger using a high relationships orientation and a low task  
ntation would be called a "developer" if the situation  
ired high RO and low TO but a "missionary" if the situ-  
nal demands were different.

Reddin believes an effective manager must possess three  
ls: situational sensitivity (the ability to read a situ-  
n), situational management skill (the skill to change the  
ation if necessary), and style flexibility (the use of a  
ety of styles to match a variety of situations). In  
t, effectiveness depends on using the appropriate behavior  
atch the situation.

The "3-D Theory" divides the situation into five all-  
usive components: superior, co-workers, and subordinates  
h word used as it is normally defined); organizational  
osophy (all influences on behavior originating from out-  
both the manager's own work and his department and  
ecting systems design, operating procedures, and company  
cy); and technology (the way work is accomplished). As  
ioned previously, each of these five situational elements  
been the focus of a leadership school of thought.

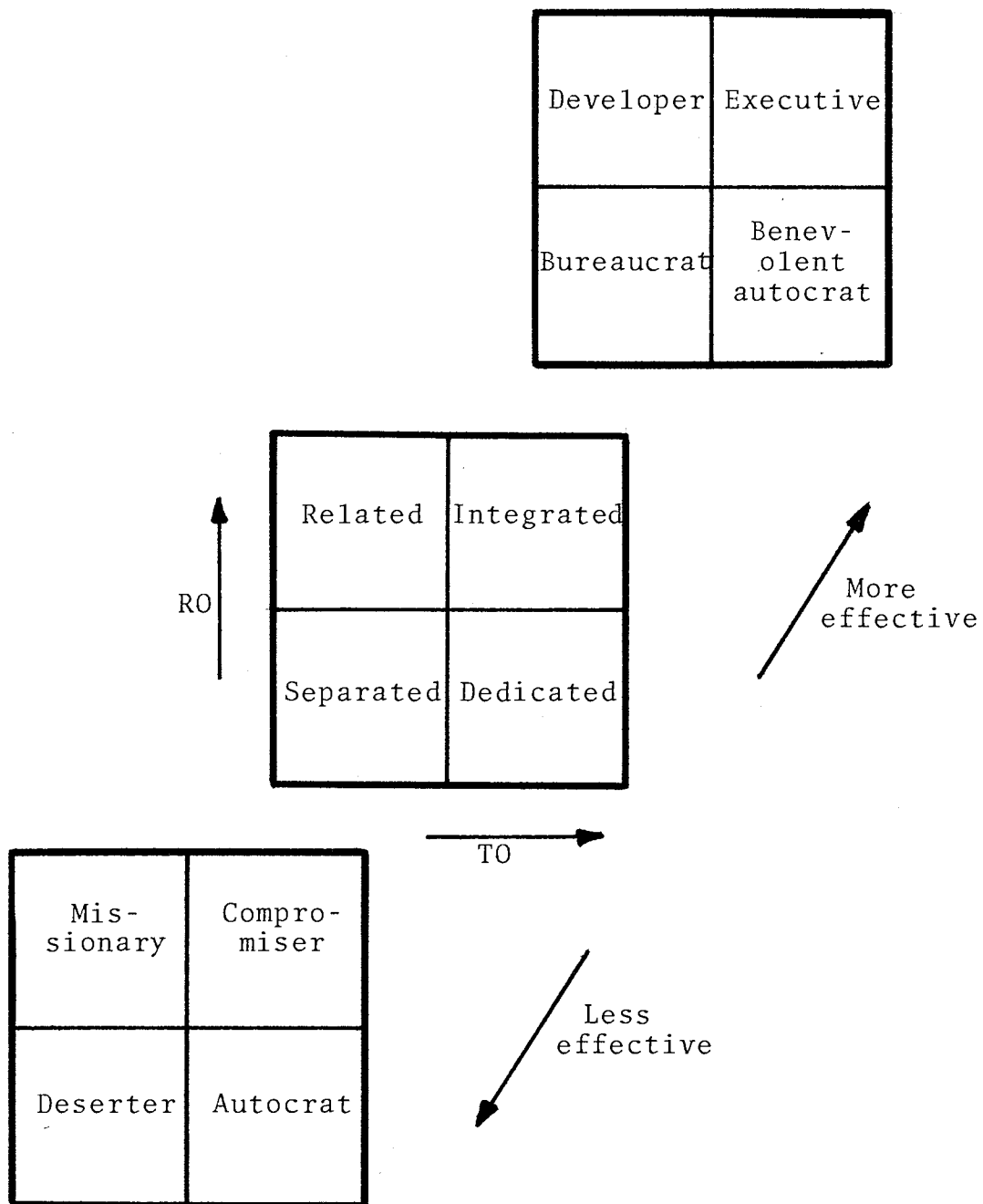


Figure 2. Reddin's Three Dimensions of Managerial Styles

### Leadership Style Concepts Comparison

Several theories describing basic leadership styles contain similarities, although some recommend an ideal style and others do not. Table II, adapted from Reddin (1970), lists ten classifications in table form and shows how each author's basic styles are approximately equivalent to the four styles labeled "separated," "related," "dedicated," and "integrated."

### A Survey of Studies of Leadership Styles

As in the case of technology, a review of the literature on leadership styles also reveals a wide variety of emerging theories, ideas, and concepts. All of the theories are concerned with the style of leadership which best promotes organizational effectiveness. The theories of Reddin (1970) are particularly appropriate and are based on two dimensions of managerial behavior--task orientation and relationships orientation. The four basic styles of leadership (dedicated, separated, related, and integrated) result from the possible combinations of task and relationships orientation (each may have a low or high degree of emphasis).

Reddin outlined five components of a manager's "situation": superior, co-workers, subordinates, organizational philosophy, and technology. He felt no one of the four basic leadership styles to be more or less effective in itself, but that a manager is effective only when his leadership behavior matches the demands of his situation.

	SEPARATED	RELATED	DEDICATED	INTEGRATED
Reddin (1970) more effective style equivalent	Bureaucrat	Developer	Benevolent autocrat	Executive
Reddin less effective style equivalent	Deserter	Missionary	Autocrat	Compromiser
McGregor (1960) equivalent	---	---	Theory X	Theory Y
Blake (1964) equivalent	3.3	3.7	7.3	7.7
Brown (1954) equivalent	Laissez faire plus strict autocrat	Incompetent democrat plus genuine democrat	Incompetent autocrat	Benevolent autocrat
Jennings (1962) equivalent	Abdicrat plus bureaucrat	Democrat	Autocrat	Executive plus neurocrat
Walling (1964) equivalent	Objective thinker	Friendly helper	Tough battler	---

TABLE II (Continued)

	SEPARATED	RELATED	DEDICATED	INTEGRATED
Davis (1968)	Custodial	Supportive	Autocratic	Collegial
Horney (1945)	Moving away (detached)	Moving toward (compliant)	Moving against (aggressive)	---
Zaleznik and moment (1964) equivalent	Rational-- procedural	Maternal-- expressive	Paternal-- assertive	Fraternal-- permissive



One purpose of the present study is to explore the relationship between a manager's leadership style and his perception of organizational effectiveness; quantitative methods will be used to analyze this relationship. Managers will complete a questionnaire designed to determine both the basic leadership style they employ (their combination of task and relationships orientation) and their perception of organizational effectiveness. A regression analysis will then indicate the strength of the relationship.

#### Summary

Organizational effectiveness was discussed very informally in the context of the study of Collins; an altered version of his questionnaire will be used in the present study.

The literature on technology and leadership styles has been reviewed; the fact that a wide variety of diverging theories, ideas, and concepts exist in these areas is evident. Reddin's ideas are especially appealing because of his emphasis on the demands technology makes on managerial behavior rather than on worker behavior, and because he holds no one managerial style is always appropriate. A manager will be effective only when his leadership style matches the combination of task and relations dictated by the job situation.

The literature yields information which is interesting when tied together. Mahoney and Frost (1972) believe that

Technology determines criteria of organizational effectiveness. Mintzberg (1961) observed that technology influences the consequences of leadership style. Reddin believes all elements of job situation influence leadership style.

The present study will analyze the relationship between manager's job situation and his perception of an effective organization. His situation will be broken down into his personal background, characteristics of his job, characteristics of his organization, the technology of his work, and leadership style. All variables will be determined via questionnaire, with particular attention to the degree of individual and/or relationships orientation characteristic of the manager's technology and leadership style. A regression analysis with the manager's perception of an effective organization as the dependent variable will then detail the relationships involved.

## CHAPTER III

### RESEARCH METHOD

The wide range of theories concerning organizational effectiveness, technology, and leadership style was exposed in the literature review. This chapter explains the specific methods utilized in this study to assess a manager's perception of an effective organization as well as his personal background, the characteristics of his job, the characteristics of his organization, the technology of his work, and his leadership style.

The acceptability of using questionnaires as data-gathering devices is illustrated by many empirical studies in the literature; two examples are provided by Mott (1972) and Money and Weitzel (1969).

For the present study a four-part instrument was administered three times to a total of 65 employees at NASA-JSC. The first part of the questionnaire was developed by the author and contains questions concerning the manager's personal background and characteristics of his job and of his organization. The second part measures a manager's perception of an unspecified but effective organization and is a condensed version of an instrument developed by Collins in 1973. The third section was developed by the author (1973) and describes the technology in which a manager works.

nally, the fourth part is Reddin's "Management Style Diagnosis Test" (1972).

Managerial perception of an effective organization (the second section of the questionnaire) is the dependent variable for this study. The first, third, and fourth sections all measure independent variables. Following a discussion of the sample and the procedure, each section of the instrument will be discussed in turn.

Factor analysis, the process by which a large number of raw variables are trimmed to the few most significant and representative variables, will be explained.

Finally, the stepwise regression analysis will be discussed. The purpose of this analysis is to test the strength of the relationship between the dependent and independent variables.

## The Sample

### Acquirement of the Sample

Through joint cooperation of the NASA-JSC Employee Development Office, the University of Houston, and Oklahoma State University, a series of three management development class sessions were conducted on the JSC site. Although these sessions were primarily for managerial development, they were of vital importance in obtaining data for this study. Indeed, the four parts of the questionnaire developed for this study was administered to the participants

comprised the entire selection of materials used in training sessions.

Letters explaining the nature of the development sessions and urging all managers to attend were sent directly to individuals in managerial positions as well as to all department heads. A respectable number of persons did attend at least one of the three sessions so that a usable sample of subjects was obtained.

### Sample Characteristics

A profile of the participants is shown in Table III. Data is given for the entire sample of 65 as well as for a part of the split sample; the sample was divided at the median according to whether they rated their own organization effective (N=34) or less effective (N=31).

A few points should be made. First, a large proportion (55 percent) of the sample holds an engineering degree; this is to be expected in an administrative research and development organization such as NASA-JSC. It is surprising, however, that 9.3 percent hold no college degree at all.

The questionnaires were administered anonymously. Names and in some cases directorates were not revealed, as indicated in the Participant Profile.

### The Procedure

The participants were first asked to complete all four sections of the instrument. A discussion of classic leadership theo-

TABLE III  
PARTICIPANT PROFILE

	Total Sample (N=65)	Persons Having an Effective Perception of Organization (N=34)	Persons Having a Effective Percepti Organiza (N=31)
Age (Years)	40.2	40.5	39.9
Level of Education	Some Graduate Training	Some Graduate Training	Some Graduate Training
Academic Discipline (%)			
Engineering	41.5	35.3	48.4
Business	24.6	26.5	22.6
Scientific	15.4	14.7	16.1
Arts	3.1	2.9	3.2
Technical (Non- Engineering)	1.5	0	3.2
Others	4.6	8.8	0
Have College Degree	9.3	11.8	6.5
Years of Full-Time Work Experience (Average)	17.7	18.5	16.8
Years in Present (Average)	6.2	5.8	6.6
NSA-JSC Directorate (%)*			
Engineering and Development	24.4	25.0	23.8
Administration	24.4	25.0	23.8
Flight Crew Operations	20.0	16.7	23.8
Flight Operations	13.3	20.8	4.8
Science and Applications	6.7	4.2	9.5
Life Sciences	2.2	0	4.8
Program Office	0	0	0
Other	8.9	8.3	9.5
Percentage to Which Job is Managerial in Nature (%)	60.5	65.2	55.3
Percentage to Which Job is Technical in Nature (%)	55.3	54.0	57.0

TABLE III (Continued)

	Total Sample (N=65)	Persons Having an Effective Perception of Organization (N=34)	Persons Having a Effective Perception Organization (N=31)
Percentage of Job Titles Contact With Other JSC Organizations (%)	72.5	71.5	73.7
Percentage of Position (%)	40.0	35.3	45.2
Percentage of Position (%)	60.0	64.7	54.8
Mean Number of Coordinates (range)	15.1	19.9	9.8
Coordinates Reporting Directly (range)	5.4	5.6	5.3
Coordinates Reporting Directly Who are Aides (range)	1.1	1.1	1.1

This information was not divulged by all participants; the percentages refer to only those who did name their directorate: (1) 45 of 65 persons, (2) 24 of 34 persons, and (3) 21 of 31 persons.

; then given, followed by a specific explanation of the instrument and its implications for managerial development.

Results of the technology and leadership style instruments could prove disappointing to a manager who finds he has a low task and low relationships orientation even though he is later assured such behavior may be the best possible in his situation. Further, no manager wants to have his style of leadership described as being ineffective. To prevent subjective manipulation of the data, the numeric values for the four basic technology styles and the four effective and four ineffective leadership styles were collected before the managers were exposed to enough information to allow them to manipulate their data. The data on the manager's personal background, characteristics of his job and organization, and perception of an unspecified but effective NASA-JSC division were collected at the same time. Only then was data reduced and interpreted and plotting procedures explained.

### The Questionnaire

#### Personal Background, Job Characteristics, and Organizational Characteristics

This section is designed to procure biographic and demographic information, thus painting a background picture of individual participants. Questions inquire about such things as the manager's age, the number of his subordinates, his NASA-JSC directorate. The complete section, as well



the other three sections of the instrument, are shown in Appendix A.

### Organizational Effectiveness

The second section is a direct result of the study made by Collins of 93 people at NASA-JSC in Fall, 1972. He developed a questionnaire in which each person is asked to rate the most effective JSC division with which he is familiar, the least effective JSC division of which he has knowledge, and his own division. The person's name and the divisions he considers to be most and least effective are kept anonymous. The three sections of Collins' questionnaire are identical and consist of 45 word pairs, each pair utilizing the concept of a modified semantic differential with an eight-point Likert scale. An example of this concept for one word pair is shown below:

A Dissonant Organization	_ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _ : _	A Harmonious Organization
-----------------------------	---------------------------	------------------------------

After gathering data, Collins conducted a factor analysis and separated the 45 word pairs into 8 factors. The word pairs within each factor were correlated in that they tended to have similarly, or reflect the same underlying idea, for different measures of the particular attributes. For purposes of the present study, 19 word pairs in 5 factors are condensed from Collins' work as being the most significant, for they "loaded" the heaviest in his factor

ysis. A further alteration is made in that each person is asked to rate only the most effective JSC division with which he is familiar. The 19 scales in this questionnaire are the same in wording and direction as they were in Collins' questionnaire and are therefore randomly reversed. In other words, some scales go 1 to 8 from left to right while others go 8 to 1 from left to right; the numbers 1 through 8 were provided with the scales to disguise the reversal. In each case the number 1 represents "most characteristic of effectiveness" while 8 represents "least characteristic of effectiveness." The scale order for each question as well as the five factors are specified in Appendix B.

After a position representing a number between 1 and 8 is marked on each of the 19 scales, the 19 represented numbers are added to yield a sum between 19 ( $19 \times 1$ ) and 152 ( $19 \times 8$ ). This sum (EALL) represents the degree to which a manager feels the group of 19 traits is typical of the most effective JSC division. The lower his EALL score, the more he feels the most effective JSC division to be harmonious, progressive, and sociable rather than a dissonant, antagonistic, and unsociable, for example. EALL thus represents a manager's perception of the most effective JSC division with which he is familiar.

### Technology

As mentioned in the literature review, style names (separated by a semicolon; dedicated, or D; related, or R; and integrated, or I)

represent the four possible combinations of task orientation and relationships orientation. The technology of a particular job demands that the manager use one or more of the basic styles depending on the combination of TO and RO required. Choosing which style is appropriate is facilitated by four sets of style "descriptors," one set for each combination. See Appendix C. If, for instance, the separated style descriptors best portray the technology of the job, the technology demands that the manager use a separated style.

The technology instrument developed by the author consists of 36 pairs of statements. For each of the 36 pairs, the participant has the choice of selecting either the statement labeled "A" or the one labeled "B," whichever best describes his job technology. In each pair, statement "A" is a technology descriptor for one of the four styles while statement "B" is a technology descriptor for a different style. See Appendix E. The "Technology Score Sheet" was designed for ease of scoring and is arranged in a grid pattern illustrated in Appendix F.

Not all of the separated technology style descriptors (the separated style was chosen as an example) represent a combination of low TO and low RO. Some represent only low RO and thus are in common with the "low RO aspect" of the dedicated style. It is for this reason that only those style descriptors which differentiate between low TO and high TO are involved in comparisons between these two styles.

arly, only those style descriptors which differentiate between low RO and high RO are involved in comparisons between the separated and related styles. In other words, comparisons between styles are made in such a way as to lend meaning to these comparisons. Appendix D lists the style descriptors paired in groups of basic styles and then lists the same 36 pairs in the order they appear in the techno-assessment instrument.

After a participant places a letter "A" or "B" in each of the 36 squares of the scoring grid, simple instructions enable him to determine values for the basic styles; a number between 0 and 18 (with all four totaling 36) corresponds to each style. Any style with a value from 13 to 18 (upper third) is labeled "dominant" while any style with a value from 7 to 12 (middle one-third) is labeled "supporting."

A TO score is found by adding the dedicated and integrated values (the two styles characterized by high TO); RO is found by adding the related and integrated values (both styles characterized by high RO). This gives two numbers, each between 6 and 30; 6 is subtracted from each to give a TO score between 0 and 24. Even if a person was completely relationships oriented, he would still have a TO score of 6 because of the "forced-choice" nature of the questionnaire. When a TO and an RO alternative are compared, such a person would select the RO choice. But in two of the six questions comparing "separated" and "dedicated" (two TO alternatives), the participant is forced to select

choice. This explains why the minimum value for either  $T_0$  or  $R_0$  is 6.

A two-dimensional coordinate system is then established with  $T_0$  along the horizontal axis and  $R_0$  along the vertical axis.

The four basic managerial styles are easily located in this coordinate system, as shown in Appendix G.

Each dominant style is plotted by drawing a small circle in the corresponding quadrant of the graph in the corner of the quadrant opposite the center point (12,12). Each supporting style is plotted by drawing a small circle in its corresponding quadrant of the graph in the corner of the quadrant nearest the center point (12,12). The average style demanded by the technology is plotted by locating with an "X" the point ( $T_0, R_0$ ). Figures illustrating the procedure for three different sets of separated, dedicated, related, and integrated style scores are given in Appendix G.

Only an understanding of the concepts of dominant, supporting, and average styles is important to this study; the plotting procedure outlined above was useful in providing an adequate explanation of their scores to the participating managers.

It was not possible to administer the technology instrument to a test sample to check its validity. However, the instrument used in this study to assess technology was patterned after Reddin's thoroughly-tested "Management Style Diagnosis Instrument." Also, the scores for the final sample of 65 managers were calculated as for two subsets of this group ( $N = 31$  and  $N = 34$ ).

ot seem unreasonable when the situation is considered. Table IV. The instrument was administered on a group s in sessions where attendance was completely voluntary; sessions were advertised in part as being of a management development nature. It is the author's contention that e managers who took time to attend the sessions would to be more relations-oriented than average, and even would tend to respond in a more-than-average relations-nted fashion in the setting of a management development se. After all, it is well known that a relations orien-on is being stressed in many managerial development ions, so the same could have been expected (though in-ectly) here. This would explain the consistently lower rated and dedicated style scores and consistently higher grated and especially higher related style scores.

#### ership Style

The instrument used in this study to assess a manager's ership style is Reddin's "Management Style Diagnosis ." This test consists of 64 pairs of statements; for of the 64 pairs, the manager has the choice of selecting er the statement labeled "A" or the one labeled "B," h ever best describes his leadership style. After the ger places a letter "A" or "B" in each of the 64 squares he scoring grid, simple instructions enable him to deter-values for eight leadership styles (the effective and fective versions of the four basic styles). All twelve

TABLE IV  
 TECHNOLOGY SCORES: FOUR BASIC STYLES

STYLE	N = 65	N = 31	N = 34
rated	6.7	5.8	7.4
ted	12.6	12.8	12.4
cated	6.9	6.8	7.1
grated	9.8	10.6	9.1
	36.0	36.0	36.0

These styles are listed in Table V; ineffective styles indicate the manager's leadership style does not match the needs of the five components of his situation (superiors, workers, subordinates, technology, and organizational philosophy). Numbers corresponding to the eight styles range from a maximum possible range of from -3 to +18 (with all items totaling 66).

Any style with a value of 11 or over is labeled "dominant" and any style with a value of 10 is labeled "supporting."

A TO score is found by adding the values of the autocrat, benevolent autocrat, compromiser, and executive styles (the four styles characterized by high TO). RO is found by adding the values of the missionary, developer, compromiser, and autocrat styles (the four styles characterized by high RO). An "effectiveness" (or "E") score is found by adding the values of the bureaucrat, benevolent autocrat, developer, and executive styles (the four "effective" styles). Values for TO, RO, and/or E which are 34 or above are considered high while values below 34 are considered low.

#### Analysis of Data

The purpose of this chapter has been to explain the specific methods utilized in this study to assess a manager's perception of an effective organization as well as his personal background, the characteristics of his job, the characteristics of his organization, the technology of his work, and his leadership style. Procurement of the sample and



TABLE V  
LEADERSHIP STYLES

EFFECTIVE MANAGERIAL STYLE	BASIC STYLE	LESS EFFECTIVE MANAGERIAL STYLE
Integrative	Integrated	Compromiser
Voluntary autocrat	Dedicated	Autocrat
Cooperator	Related	Missionary
Autocrat	Separated	Deserter

le characteristics have both been discussed, as was the procedure by which data was obtained. Each of the four items of the questionnaire have been explained in detail in terms of both structure and the expected information to be obtained.

The complete process by which the data were analyzed will now be explained. This includes topics ranging from a discussion of the concepts involved in factor analysis and the process by which a large number of raw variables are reduced to the few most significant and representative variables) and stepwise regression analysis (the process in which the strength of the relationships between the dependent and independent variables is tested) to an examination of how the results of these analyses would be used in testing the hypotheses of this study.

After all data was gathered, a computer program was written to calculate the following for each manager:

- (1) EALL, or his overall perception of an unspecified but effective NASA-JSC division,
- (2) scores for each of the five factors on the instrument measuring his perception of an effective NASA-JSC division,
- (3) the TO and RO scores of his job technology,
- (4) the average style required by his technology,
- (5) the dominant styles required by his technology,
- (6) the TO, RO, and E scores of his leadership style,
- (7) his average leadership style, and
- (8) his dominant leadership styles.

He calculated values plus the following raw data for each manager:

- (1) his four technology basic style scores,
- (2) his four leadership effective style scores,
- (3) his four leadership ineffective style scores,

- (4) his personal background,
- (5) characteristics of his job, and
- (6) characteristics of his organization

prise 80 variables, many of which are not independent of one another.

Factor analysis is a general scientific method by which relationships among a group of variables may be accounted for by a smaller number of variables, or common factors. It discerns regularity and order in phenomena by taking measurements and qualitative observations and resolving them into distinct patterns of occurrence. The variables in each category, or cluster, are highly intercorrelated with each other. Factor analysis applied to discern patterns of profile similarity of individuals is called Q-factor analysis. In this study R-factor analyses were applied to delineate patterns of variation in characteristics (the 80 variables) of the individuals.

The 80 variables were trimmed to the 23 which were most significant in terms of this study. Selection of the most practically relevant variables was accomplished in conjunction with an examination of the correlation coefficients between factors and variables (several factor analyses); this facilitated the reduction to those variables which were most representative of the factors as well as most significant in logical sense.

The basic concept of multiple regression is to produce a linear combination of independent variables which will correlate as highly as possible with the dependent variable.

A linear combination can then be used to "predict" values of the dependent variable. The difference between the value of the dependent variable and the value predicted by the linear combination of the independent variables is known as a residual. The regression equation is then written as follows:

$$D = b_1 I_1 + b_2 I_2 + \dots + b_n I_n + c + r$$

where D is the dependent variable, the I's are the independent variables, the b's are the regression coefficients (unnormalized), c is a constant, and r is the residual.

Many of the properties of multiple regression may be understood by considering the residual. The residual has a mean zero, its standard deviation is the smallest possible for any linear combination of the given independent variables. In other words, if the b's in the regression equation are replaced by any other values, then the standard deviation of the residual will be larger. In this sense, the regression equation provides an optimum prediction of the dependent variable. A consequence of this optimization is that the residual and any independent variable have zero correlation.

The stepwise regression routine utilized in this study is composed of a series of programs outlined in UCLA's Biomedical Computer Programs (1964). It computes a sequence of multiple linear regression equations in a stepwise manner. At each step, one variable is added to the regression equation. The variable added is the one which makes the greatest reduction

the error sum of squares. Equivalently it is the variable which has highest partial correlation with the dependent variable, partialled on the variables which have already been added; equivalently it is the variable which, if it were added, would have the highest F value. In addition, variables can be added into the regression equation and automatically removed if their F values become too low.

If a relationship exists between two variables  $x$  and  $y$ , the variables are said to be correlated. An estimate of  $y$  is precise if it is made on the condition that  $x$  is known without reference to  $x$ . A device which measures the reduction in the variability of the distribution of  $y$  given a regression of  $y$  on  $x$  will also measure the closeness, or strength, of the relationship between  $x$  and  $y$ .

The coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) and the correlation coefficient ( $R$ ) are two ratios designed to measure the proportional reduction in variability of  $y$  given a regression of  $y$  on  $x$ .  $R^2$  is the proportion of total variance accounted for by the regression. Its values may range from 0 (prediction of  $y$  is not improved whatsoever by knowing  $x$ ) to 1 (knowing  $x$  completely determines  $y$ ).  $R$  may range from -1 to +1;  $R$  is better known and more widely used than  $R^2$ .

$\alpha'$  (throughout this paper,  $\alpha'$  will be used to represent  $\alpha$ ) is the level of statistical significance and may range from 0 to 1.  $(1 - \alpha')$  is the probability of making a correct decision of avoiding a Type I error. If  $R^2 = 0.600$  with  $\alpha' = 0.001$ , for example, it is 99.9 percent certain that the proportion of

total variance accounted for by the regression of  $y$  on  $x$  is 0.600. This value of  $R^2$  is thus extremely reliable.

Of the 23 variables chosen with the aid of factor analysis, EALL was selected as the dependent variable for the regression analysis; the other 22 thus became independent variables. They are as follows for each manager:

- (1) the TO and RO scores of his job technology,
- (2) three of his leadership effective style scores (separated, related, and dedicated),
- (3) his counterpart three leadership ineffective style scores (separated, related, and dedicated),
- (4) whether or not he received a college degree in the field of engineering,
- (5) his age,
- (6) the number of his subordinates who report to him directly,
- (7) the level of skill required for his subordinates to properly perform their tasks--on a scale of 1 (much) to 7 (little),
- (8) the extent to which his job is managerial--on a scale of 1 (completely) to 7 (not at all),
- (9) the extent to which his job is technical--on a scale of 1 (completely) to 7 (not at all),
- (10) the percentage of his subordinates' total man-hours that they are required to perform routine tasks, and
- (11) whether or not he is employed in each of the following NASA-JSC directorates: Engineering and Development (E. and D.), Science and Applications (S. and A. D.), Life Sciences (L. S. D.), Flight Crew Operations (F. C. O. D.), Flight Operations (F. O. D.), Administration (A. D.), or some "other" organization.

variables labeled (4) and (5) describe the manager's personal background; those labeled (6), (7), (8), (9), and (10) describe the characteristics of his job; and the variables labeled (11) describe the organization to which he belongs.

Each of the two hypotheses to be tested in this study concerned with the relationships between a manager's perception of an effective organization and each of five classes

variables. While these five variable classes are certainly not independent of one another, the actual interrelationships involved are not readily apparent. A manager's perception of an effective organization may be dependent on one class of variable, which is in turn dependent upon a second class of variable, and so on. It is feasible that the following chain of dependencies might hold for this study:

- (1) a manager's personal background variables determine his
- (2) job variables, which determine his
- (3) organization variables, which determine his
- (4) technology variables, which determine his
- (5) leadership style variables, which finally determine his
- (6) perception of an effective organization.

An initial test of the validity of this chain of dependencies can be conducted by first forcing the independent variables to enter the stepwise regression routine in the above-mentioned order, and then allowing these same variable classes to enter freely (in no predetermined order). Very similar results obtained by these two procedures would suggest the chain of dependencies mentioned above to indeed be valid.

#### First Hypothesis

The first hypothesis is that a manager's perception of an unspecified but effective organization is not related to: (1) his personal background, (2) characteristics of his job, (3) characteristics of his organization, (4) the technology, or (5) his leadership style.

The stepwise regression routine was performed five times to test the first hypothesis; EALL was always the dependent variable. The first time the manager's personal background variables, his job variables, and his organization variables were forced to enter as independent variables in that order. The same independent variables were allowed to enter freely in the second run.

The third time the technology variables and leadership variables were independent and forced to enter in the following order: (1) technology RO, (2) technology TO, (3) leadership dedicated effective, (4) leadership dedicated ineffective, (5) leadership related effective, (6) leadership related ineffective, (7) leadership related ineffective, and leadership separated ineffective. These same independent variables were allowed to enter freely in the fourth run.

All 22 independent variables were allowed to enter freely in the fifth run.

### and Hypothesis

The second hypothesis is that a manager's perception of effectiveness of his own organization has no effect on the relationship (if a relationship does indeed exist) between his perception of an unspecified but effective organization and: (1) his personal background, (2) characteristics of his job, (3) characteristics of his organization, (4) the technology, or (5) his leadership style.



To test the second hypothesis, the 65 managers were rated into two different groups according to the manner in which the following question was answered:

How would you rate the overall effectiveness of your present JSC division (the one in which you work)? Please circle the number which is most representative of your opinion:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Extremely			Moderately			Not very	
Effective			Effective			Effective	

mean of the 65 responses to this question was 3.54; the range was also between 3 and 4 with 34 managers answering a number less than or equal to 3 (a more than moderately effective perception of their division) while 31 managers indicated a number greater than or equal to 4 (the perception that their division is effective to only a moderate extent or less). The sample was split at the median.

The stepwise regression routine was performed five times on the sample of 34 and in an identical manner five times on the sample of 31. Each of the two sets of five runs with  $N = 34$  and with  $N = 31$  was also identical to the set of five runs conducted to test the first hypothesis (with  $N = 65$ ).

### Summary

Procurement of the sample and sample characteristics are both discussed, as was the procedure by which data was obtained. Each of the four parts of the questionnaire were

ained in detail in terms of both structure and the expected information to be obtained.

Finally, the complete process by which the data were analyzed was explained. This included topics ranging from discussion of the concepts involved in factor analysis stepwise regression analysis to an explanation of how results of these analyses would be used in testing the theses of this study.

## CHAPTER IV

### PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

The results of the stepwise regression analysis of the will be presented and examined. Only the regression runs with the sample of 65 managers will be utilized in discussing the first hypothesis; consideration of the second thesis depends upon all regression runs.

A series of figures presenting numerical data will support discussion. These figures will indicate the following for regression run:

- (1) the number of managers in the sample (N),
- (2) the number of regression steps,
- (3) the variable entered in each step,
- (4) the class of each variable entered,
- (5) the new multiple correlation coefficient (R) at each step,
- (6) the new multiple coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) at each step, and
- (7) the level of statistical significance ( $\alpha$ ).

Table VI will prove helpful as a guide to the independent variables.

#### First Hypothesis

The first hypothesis is that a manager's perception of unspecified but effective organization (EALL) is not related to the five classes of variables outlined in Table VI. The

TABLE VI  
INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

Variable Code	Class of Variable*	Abbreviation	Variable
2	1	Engg	Engineering Degree
8	1	Age	Age
12	2	Sub	Subordinates Reporting Directly
15	2	Skill	Subordinate Skill
18	2	Mgr	Managerial Extent of Job
19	2	Tech	Technical Extent of Job
22	2	Rout	Routine Subordinate Tasks
26	3	ED	Engineering and Development
27	3	SAD	Science and Applications
28	3	LSD	Life Sciences
29	3	FCOD	Flight Crew Operations
30	3	FOD	Flight Operations
31	3	AD	Administration
33	3	Other	Other Organizations
39	4	TTO	Technology Task Orientation
40	4	TRO	Technology Relations Orientation
49	5	LSI	Leadership Separated Ineffective
50	5	LRI	Leadership Related Ineffective
51	5	LDI	Leadership Dedicated Ineffective
53	5	LSE	Leadership Separated Effective
54	5	LRE	Leadership Related Effective
55	5	LDE	Leadership Dedicated Effective

Class of Variable" Code

- 1) Personal Background
- 2) Job Characteristics
- 3) Organization (Directorate)
- 4) Technology
- 5) Leadership Style

sample of 65 managers was used in all tests of this thesis.

Table VII compares the stepwise regression runs which independent variable classes 1, 2, and 3 forced to enter that order as opposed to these same variables allowed to enter freely. Both personal background variables (class #1) and all job characteristic variables (class #2) except for "managerial extent of the job" entered to explain EALL with an R of 0.367 and an  $a'$  of 0.05 when entry was forced. Allowing free entry demonstrated the significance of the organizational variables (class #3) with members of this class entering first (LSD) and third (FCOD) out of a total of 10 variables. "Age," "subordinates reporting directly," "technical extent of the job" remained as the only variables entering in both runs;  $R = 0.458$  and  $a' = 0.001$  for the free-entry case.

Table VIII compares the stepwise regression runs which independent variable classes 4 and 5 forced to enter in that order as opposed to these same variables allowed to enter freely. Both technology variables (class #4) and "leadership related effective" and "leadership related ineffective" (class #5) entered to explain EALL with an R of 0.329 and an  $a'$  of 0.05 when entry was forced. These same leadership variables entered first and third and were joined by "leadership related effective" and "leadership related ineffective" and finally by "technology task orientation" when entering freely;

PERSONAL, JOB, AND ORGANIZATION VARIABLES  
(Total Sample)

Step Number	Total Sample Run #1, a' = 0.05			Total Sample Run #2, a' = 0.001		
	Variable Entered	Class (Forced)	Multiple R R <sup>2</sup>	Variable Entered	Class (Free)	Multiple R R <sup>2</sup>
1	Age	1	.207 .043	LSD	3	.251 .063
2	Engg	1	.251 .063	Age	1	.331 .109
3	Skill	2	.290 .084	FCOD	3	.388 .150
4	Rout	2	.320 .103	Sub	2	.429 .184
5	Tech	2	.345 .119	Tech	2	.458 .210
6	Sub	2	.367 .134			

N = 65

Variable Classes 1, 2, and 3

TECHNOLOGI AND LEADERSHIP STYLE VARIABLES  
(Total Sample)

Step Number	Total Sample Run #3, a' = 0.05				Total Sample Run #4, a' = 0.001			
	Variable Entered	Class (Forced)	Multiple R R <sup>2</sup>		Variable Entered	Class (Free)	Multiple R R <sup>2</sup>	
1	TRO	4	.161	.026	LDE	5	.260	.067
2	TTO	4	.214	.046	LSE	5	.322	.104
3	LDE	5	.309	.095	LDI	5	.350	.122
4	LDI	5	.329	.108	LRI	5	.375	.140
5					TTO	4	.397	.158

N = 65

Variable Classes 4 and 5

ership style variables were clearly dominant in explaining with  $R = 0.397$  and  $a' = 0.001$ .

All five classes of variables were allowed to enter in the fifth run as shown in Table IX. Twelve variables were entered in all; the final three were leadership style variables were the first (dedicated effective), third (dedicated ineffective), and sixth (separated effective). The second (LSD) fourth (FCOD) variables were organization variables. The fifth variable was "age" (personal background) and the ninth "task orientation" (technology). Job characteristics were entered seventh (technical extent of job) and eighth (subordinates reporting directly). The value of  $R$  was  $0.593$  and  $a' = 0.001$ .

### Second Hypothesis

A manager's perception of the effectiveness of his own organization, according to the second hypothesis, has no effect on the relationship between his perception of an unspecified effective organization and the five classes of variables defined in Table VI. The computer runs made with the entire sample of 65 managers and used to test the first hypothesis could also be used in testing the second hypothesis. In addition, computer runs were made with each segment of the split sample: those perceiving their own organization to be either effective ( $N = 34$ ) or less effective ( $N = 31$ ).

Table X compares the stepwise regression runs for the entire sample of 65 managers which used variable classes 1,



TABLE IX  
 PERSONAL, JOB, ORGANIZATION, TECHNOLOGY,  
 AND LEADERSHIP STYLE VARIABLES  
 (Total Sample)

p er	Total Sample Run #5, N = 65, $\alpha' = 0.001$				
	Variable Entered	Class (Free)	R	<u>Multiple</u>	R <sup>2</sup>
	LDE	5	.260		.067
	LSD	3	.329		.108
	LDI	5	.392		.154
	FCOD	3	.428		.183
	Age	1	.470		.221
	LSE	5	.498		.248
	Tech	2	.515		.265
	Sub	2	.534		.285
	TTO	4	.548		.300
	LSI	5	.561		.315
	LRI	5	.577		.333
	LRE	5	.593		.351

Variable Classes 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5

PERSONAL, JOB, AND ORGANIZATION VARIABLES  
(Forced Entry)

Step Number	Total Sample Run #1, N = 65, a' = 0.05				Effective Run #6, N = 34, a' = 0.03			
	Variable Entered	Class (Forced)	Multiple R R <sup>2</sup>		Variable Entered	Class (Forced)	Multiple R R <sup>2</sup>	
1	Age	1	.207	.043	Age	1	.444	.197
2	Engg	1	.251	.063	Engg	1	.473	.224
3	Skill1	2	.290	.084	Skill1	2	.518	.269
4	Rout	2	.320	.103	Sub	2	.553	.305
5	Tech	2	.345	.119	Mgr	2	.574	.330
6	Sub	2	.367	.134	Tech	2	.601	.362
7					Rout	2	.625	.391
8					Other	3	.626	.392
9					FOD	3	.650	.422
10					ED	3	.726	.527
11					SAD	3	.741	.549

Variable Classes 1, 2, and 3

nd 3 forced to enter in that order as opposed to these variables for the sample of 34 managers which perceived their own organizations to be effective. Both personal background variables and all job characteristic variables except the "managerial extent of the job" entered to explain with an R of 0.367 and an  $\alpha'$  of 0.05 for the entire sample of managers. Entry of eleven variables was forced for sample having an effective perception of their organizations: all personal background and job characteristics variables and four directorate variables ("other," FOD, ED, SAD) appeared and yielded  $R = 0.741$  with  $\alpha' = 0.03$ . The sample of 31 managers which perceived their own organization to be less effective yielded data with an F - level insufficient for computation with a meaningful level of significance.

Variable classes 1, 2, and 3 were allowed to enter freely in the three runs ( $N = 65$ ,  $N = 34$ , and  $N = 31$ ) shown in Table 1. For the entire sample, organization variables entered first (LSD) and third (FCOD), the personal variable "age" entered second, and the job characteristics variables "subordinates reporting directly" and "technical extent of the job" entered last.  $R$  was 0.458 with  $\alpha' = 0.001$ . For the sample of managers having an effective perception of their organizations, the same variables entered with the following two options: the organization variable "FOD" replaced "LSD," and the job characteristics variable "managerial extent of the job" was added.  $R = 0.672$  with  $\alpha' = 0.001$ . For the sample of

PERSONAL, JOB, AND ORGANIZATION VARIABLES  
(Free Entry)

Step Number	Total Sample Run #2, N = 65, a' = 0.001				Effective Run #7, N = 34, a' = 0.001				Less Effective Run #12, N = 31, a' = 0.05			
	Variable Entered	Class (Free)	Multiple R R <sup>2</sup>		Variable Entered	Class (Free)	Multiple R R <sup>2</sup>		Variable Entered	Class (Free)	Multiple R R <sup>2</sup>	
1	LSD	3	.251	.063	Age	1	.444	.197	LSD	3	.300	.090
2	Age	1	.331	.109	FCOD	3	.542	.294	Tech	2	.380	.144
3	FCOD	3	.388	.150	Sub	2	.595	.355	Sub	2	.427	.183
4	Sub	2	.439	.184	FOD	3	.625	.390				
5	Tech	2	.458	.210	Mgr	2	.653	.427				
6					Tech	2	.672	.452				

Variable Classes 1, 2, and 3

gers having a less effective perception of their organization, the directorate "LSD" entered first while "technical aptitude of the job" and "subordinates reporting directly" became the only two variables to enter in all three situations.  $R = 0.427$  with  $\alpha = 0.05$ .

Variable classes 4 and 5 were forced to enter in that order in the three runs  $N = 65$ ,  $N = 34$ , and  $N = 31$ . The first two provided data with an  $F$  - level insufficient for comparison with a meaningful  $\alpha$ , so a comparison of these three runs was not possible.

Variable classes 4 and 5 were allowed to enter freely in the three runs ( $N = 65$ ,  $N = 34$ , and  $N = 31$ ) shown in Table XII. For the entire sample of managers, leadership style variables were the first four to enter (dedicated effective and ineffective, separated effective, and related effective). "Technology task orientation" entered last.  $R = 0.397$  with  $\alpha = 0.001$ . For the sample of managers having an effective perception of their organization, both technology variables entered first and were followed by two leadership variables (related effective and dedicated effective).  $R = 0.448$  with  $\alpha = 0.05$ . Only the leadership variables "dedicated effective" and "separated effective" were significant for the sample of managers having a less effective perception of their organization.  $R = 0.544$  with  $\alpha = 0.001$ . It should be noted that the leadership style variables were significant in explaining EALL for both the entire sample of managers and the sample having a less effective perception

TECHNOLOGY AND LEADERSHIP STYLE VARIABLES  
(Free Entry)

Step Number	Total Sample Run #4, N = 65, a' = 0.001				Effective Run #9, N = 34, a' = 0.05				Less Effective Run #14, N = 31, a' = 0.001			
	Variable Entered	Class (Free)	Multiple R R <sup>2</sup>		Variable Entered	Class (Free)	Multiple R R <sup>2</sup>		Variable Entered	Class (Free)	Multiple R R <sup>2</sup>	
1	LDE	5	.260	.067	TTO	4	.312	.097	LDE	5	.427	.182
2	LSE	5	.322	.104	TRO	4	.355	.126	LSE	5	.544	.296
3	LDI	5	.350	.122	LRE	5	.396	.156				
4	LRI	5	.375	.140	LDE	5	.448	.201				
5	TTO	4	.397	.158								

Variable Classes 4 and 5

their organization, while the technology variables best gained EALL for the sample having an effective perception of their organization.

Finally, all five classes of variables were allowed to enter freely in the three runs (N = 65, N = 34, and N = 31) shown in Table XIII. For the entire sample of managers, five variables entered in all; the final three were leadership style variables as were the first (dedicated effective), second (dedicated ineffective), and sixth (separated effective). The second (LSD) and fourth (FCOD) variables were organization variables. The fifth variable was "age" (personal background) and the ninth was "task orientation (technology)". Job characteristics entered seventh (technical extent of job) and eighth (subordinates reporting directly). The value of R was 0.593 and  $\alpha$  was 0.001. For the sample of managers having an effective perception of their organization, the personal variable "age" entered first and was joined by the directorates "FCOD," "other," and "other". "Leadership separated effective" and the variable "subordinates reporting directly" entered third and fourth. R was 0.692 with  $\alpha$  = 0.001. For the sample of managers having a less effective perception of their organization, the leadership variables "dedicated effective" and "separated effective" entered first and the job variables "technical subordinate tasks" entered last. R = 0.571 with  $\alpha$  = 0.001.

(Free Entry)

	Total Sample Run #5, N = 65, a' = 0.001				Effective Run #10, N = 34, a' = 0.001				Less Effective Run #15, N = 31, a' = 0.001			
Step Number	Variable Entered	Class (Free)	Multiple R R <sup>2</sup>		Variable Entered	Class (Free)	Multiple R R <sup>2</sup>		Variable Entered	Class (Free)	Multiple R R <sup>2</sup>	
1	LDE	5	.260	.067	Age	1	.444	.197	LDE	5	.427	.182
2	LSD	3	.329	.108	FCOD	3	.542	.294	LSE	5	.544	.296
3	LDI	5	.392	.154	LSE	5	.599	.359	Rout	2	.571	.326
4	FCOD	3	.428	.183	Sub	2	.640	.409				
5	Age	1	.470	.221	ED	3	.663	.439				
6	LSE	5	.498	.248	Other	3	.692	.479				
7	Tech	2	.515	.265								
8	Sub	2	.534	.285								
9	TTO	4	.548	.300								
10	LSI	5	.561	.315								
11	LRI	5	.577	.333								
12	LRE	5	.593	.351								

Variable Classes 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5



### Summary

It was found in testing the first hypothesis that each of the five classes of variables influences a manager's opinion of what an effective organization should be like, with his leadership style and his organization playing the largest roles.

In testing the second hypothesis, it was discovered that relationship between a manager's perception of an unspecified but effective organization and the five classes of variables is influenced by the manager's perception of the effectiveness of his own organization. For those 34 perceiving their own organization to be effective, this relationship grew stronger for each of the five variable classes (especially personal background, job characteristics, and organization). For the 31 perceiving their own organization to be less effective, the relationship grew stronger for only the leadership style variables and weaker for the rest.

## CHAPTER V

### IMPLICATIONS FOR MANAGEMENT AND CONCLUSIONS

No two organizations are alike. Just as people are different, so too do organizations have different needs, goals, and ambitions. It is therefore not difficult to understand that different organizations use different standards to measure effectiveness. While maintaining a sociable and harmonious organization might be of utmost importance to one, another might consider these two qualities worthless and place great value on meeting deadlines and rapidly adapting to change.

Effectiveness standards also vary for positions within an organization; a personnel manager obviously has duties which differ in nature from a technical contract monitor. It is important for each member to correctly identify what his goals should be to achieve effectiveness for his position within the organization.

#### First Hypothesis

The results of this study should be immediately useful to managers. First, a manager should realize that, for better or worse, each of the five classes of variables (his personal background, characteristics of his job, his organization, his

technology, and his leadership style) influences his opinion of what an effective organization should be like, and perhaps his leadership style and his organization playing the largest roles. This supports the theory emphasizing the importance of a manager's situation and identifies which elements of his situation are most significant. An awareness of the forces shaping his opinion will better enable him to keep in mind (perhaps his personal background and any built-in prejudices he may have) from overwhelming the others (an awareness of goals important to his own organization, for example) and realistically setting effectiveness standards for his particular situation.

Second, a manager should realize that both his superiors and his subordinates are also influenced by the five classes of variables in forming their perception of organizational effectiveness; he should recognize that their perceptions may be different from his own and he should act accordingly. If a manager is able to observe characteristics of his superior's position and his superior's leadership style, the manager will be in a better position to set effectiveness standards for himself in a manner satisfactory to his superior. Similarly, knowledge of a subordinate's personal background and job technology could help a manager explain why the subordinate has a preconception of which goals are important to achieve effectiveness.

Finally, it is often extremely important for an organization to project an aura of effectiveness to the forces of its

external environment if it is to remain successful in the future. For example, retention of Congressional funding and public support depends to a large degree upon the ability of NASA to illustrate: (1) the benefits to be derived from the space program, and hence (2) NASA's effectiveness in serving them.

### Second Hypothesis

Another important result of the study occurred when the sample of 65 managers was polarized into two groups according to how they perceived the effectiveness of their own organization.

The relationship between their perception of an effective organization and all five classes of variables (especially personal background, job characteristics, and organization) became much stronger for the sample of 34 managers. They perceived their organization to be effective and so used each of the five facets of their own situation in building a model of how an effective organization should be.

The relationship between their perception of an effective organization and four of the five classes of variables grew weaker for the sample of 31 managers. They perceived their organization to be effective to only a moderate extent or less and so did not relate much of their own situation to how an effective organization should be. While these managers believed their organization to be less effective, they nevertheless thought their own style of leadership was the best possible.

r their situation and so used their leadership style as a basis for judging how an effective organization should (as evidenced by the much stronger relationship between leadership style and perception of an effective organization r these managers). If their own leadership style was related, for instance, they thought the implementation of the related style throughout an organization as a whole would make the organization more effective. It is possible that managers who perceive their organization to be effective to only a moderate extent or less are largely insensitive to the demands created by the situation and depend too heavily on their own leadership style. Such a manager would almost certainly himself be less effective and would be unable to attribute to the effectiveness of his organization in a completely positive way.

Thus, perception of an effective organization is strongly related to: (1) the leadership style of all managers and (2) the personal background, job characteristics, organization, and job technology of only those managers who perceive their organization to be effective.

The present study could serve as a valuable basis for future research. More accurate determination of values for each of the five independent variable classes and improved analysis techniques would be useful in developing a comprehensive model. The eventual goal would be the development of a model with which any manager's situation could be realistically

praised and his perception of organizational effectiveness accurately predicted.

An aggregate value of perceived organizational effectiveness was used in this study. However, it was determined from Collins' work that there are five main components of perceived organizational effectiveness, namely: (1) momentum, (2) organizational credibility, (3) situational reaction to change, (4) task orientation of supervision, and (5) essentiality of the organization's role. Future research could be conducted to determine how a manager's leadership style, technology, personal background, and job and organizational characteristics affects each of the five components of perceived organizational effectiveness on an individual basis. This would increase the sensitivity of the analysis and add meaning to empirically-obtained predictions.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A  
THE QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION I

PERSONAL AND JOB DATA

PERSONAL

Check highest degree attained:

- |                                      |                                    |
|--------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| <u>      </u> High School Diploma    | <u>      </u> Master's Degree      |
| <u>      </u> Bachelor's Degree      | <u>      </u> Doctorate Degree     |
| <u>      </u> Some Graduate Training | <u>      </u> Post Doctoral Degree |

Check area of highest degree:

- |                           |   |
|---------------------------|---|
| <u>      </u> Engineering | <u>      </u> Technical (Non-Engineering) |
| <u>      </u> Scientific  | <u>      </u> Arts                        |
| <u>      </u> Business    | <u>      </u> Others (specify) _____      |

Age \_\_\_\_\_

Total full-time work experience \_\_\_\_\_ years

Length of time in present job \_\_\_\_\_ years

Total number of your subordinates, if any \_\_\_\_\_.

Number of your subordinates who report to you directly \_\_\_\_\_

Number of your subordinates reporting directly to you who are aides or assistants \_\_\_\_\_

If you have no subordinates, answer only the following questions which pertain to you.

For your subordinates to properly perform their tasks, what level of education would you say is required?

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> High School Diploma | <input type="checkbox"/> Graduate Degree      |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Some College        | <input type="checkbox"/> Other, specify _____ |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor's Degree   |   |

For your subordinates to properly perform their tasks, what level of skill would you say is required?

2	3	4	5	6	7
Much		Moderate amount			Little

Would you describe your position as being (a) or (b)?

- a. Advisory in nature; one who provides information essential to those within the organization who make operational decisions.
- b. Directly responsible for making operational decisions for the organization.

In each of the following three rows, please circle the number which is most representative of your duties:

2	3	4	5	6	7
Purely Managerial		Some Managerial			Not at all Managerial

2	3	4	5	6	7
Purely Technical		Some Technical			Not at all Technical

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Extensive Contact with other JSC Organizations			Some Contact			No Contact

o what extent are your subordinates required to perform in a managerial capacity? (Your estimate may need to take account of the fact that some of your subordinates may spend more time in a managerial capacity than others.)

\_\_\_\_\_ % total man-hours

o what extent are your subordinates required to perform the following kinds of tasks:

routine \_\_\_\_\_ % total man-hours

non-routine \_\_\_\_\_ % total man-hours

100 % man-hours total

o what extent are your subordinates required to interact with persons in other organizational units?

\_\_\_\_\_ % total man-hours

How would you rate the overall effectiveness of your present JSC Division (the one in which you work)? Please circle the number which is most representative of your opinion:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Extremely Effective			Moderately Effective			Not Very Effective	

Think of the most effective JSC Division with which you are familiar. Visualize the organizational structure, the people, the work, the physical arrangements, and so forth. Then rate that organization on each of the following scales:

Please make only one mark per scale and mark each scale.

ant Organization	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	A Harmonious Organization
nt Organization	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	A Progressive Organization
iable Organization	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	A Sociable Organization
ient Interchange of Info	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	Sufficient Interchange of
ssful in Meeting Long arm Goals	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	Successful in Meeting Long Term Goals
nized Use of People esources	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	Organized Use of People Resources
fluential Organization	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	An Influential Organization
able Organization	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	A Disreputable Organization
sful in Reaching Short erm Goals	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	Unsuccessful in Meeting S Term Goals
sful in Meeting Deadlines	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	Unsuccessful in Meeting D
ess at Adapting to Change	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	Ineptness at Adapting to
istic Feeling About NASA Environment	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	Optimistic Feeling About NASA Environment
Disciplined Organization	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	Single-Disciplined Organi
ressive View of Change	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	Regressive View of Change
ge of Understandable Info	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	Exchange of Ambiguous Inf
less Technical Supervision	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	Valuable Technical Superv
ecure Organization	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	A Famous Organization
important Organization	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	An Important Organization
essential Organization	___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___	A Non-Essential Organiza



## APPENDIX A (Continued)

SECTION IIITECHNOLOGY INSTRUCTIONS

The purpose of this section of the questionnaire is to help you find your most preferred job orientation, as determined by the technology, for a manager in your position.

The Technology Score Sheet has 36 boxes numbered from 1 to 36. These boxes are used to record your choice of each pair of questions, also numbered from 1 to 36 in the questionnaire.

Look at the 36 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 "A" in the appropriate box. If you think the second statement is the one that best applies to you, put a "B" in the appropriate box. When you have finished, all the boxes will have either an "A" or a "B" in them. Notice that the boxes are numbered in sequence across the page; therefore, you should fill in the first line first, the second line next and so on.

To decide which statement best applies, ask yourself: "Of the two statements given, which best describes the situation as it really is on the job I have?" It may be helpful, in difficult cases, to answer as someone would really know and understand your present job situation. Some statements may find a little ambiguous, sometimes both will apply, often, neither seem to apply. However, in every case pick the one statement which fits

SECTION III

TECHNOLOGY

SCORE SHEET

X	1	2	3
4	X	5	6
7	8	X	9
10	11	12	X
X	13	14	15
16	X	17	18
19	20	X	21
22	23	24	X
X	25	26	27
28	X	29	30
31	32	X	33
34	35	36	X

Fill in each of the 36 numbered squares with either an "A" or a depending upon your choice from pair of statements 1 through 36 the "Technology Questions." Then. . . .

Step 1: Find values for each letter A through L. A through L represent the number of A's in e horizontal row.

Step 2: Find values for each letter M through P. M through P represent the number of B's in e vertical row.

Step 3: Find values for Q,R,S,

$$Q = A + E + I$$

$$R = B + F + J$$

$$S = C + G + K$$

$$T = D + H + L$$

Step 4: Find values for U,V,W,

$$U = M + Q$$

$$V = N + R$$

$$W = O + S$$

$$X = P + T$$

Step 5: Check to make certain  $U + V + W + X = 36$

Step 6: Record your values for U,V,W, and X on the "Score Repor sheet."

M	N	O	P
Q	R	S	T
U	V	W	X

SECTION IIITECHNOLOGY QUESTIONS

- A. Each subordinate has discretion over his own effective standards.
- B. The subordinate's performance is measurable, and the impact of remedial actions taken by the manager can be evaluated.
- A. The subordinates' tasks are simple to perform.
- B. The position makes high skill or judgment demands on the individual subordinate.
- A. The subordinates' work and work method follow established procedures.
- B. The subordinates must talk with each other to complete their tasks.
- A. The subordinates frequently need to be given directions.
- B. The subordinates are required to think rather than to act.
- A. Unplanned and unanticipated events might occur which require corrective action by the manager.
- B. The position makes high skill or judgment demands on the individual subordinate.
- A. The subordinates frequently need to be given directions.
- B. The subordinates must talk with each other to complete their tasks.
- A. Each subordinate can select the method, tools, or approach he wishes to use.
- B. The subordinates' work and work method follow established procedures.
- A. Subordinates are required to be personally committed to their own individual tasks to achieve effectiveness standards.
- B. Unplanned and unanticipated events might occur which require corrective action by the manager.
- A. The position makes high skill or judgment demands on the individual subordinates.
- B. The subordinates must talk with each other to complete their tasks.
- A. The manager must talk with the subordinates as a group for them to complete their tasks.
- B. The subordinates' tasks are simple to perform.

- A. The subordinates must depend on each other in meeting their own effectiveness standards.
- B. The subordinates frequently need to be given directions.
- A. More than one effective solution is possible; the relative effectiveness of these solutions is difficult to measure but improved by interaction.
- B. Each subordinate can select the method, tools, or approach he wishes to use.
- A. Each subordinate has discretion over his own effectiveness standards.
- B. Unplanned and unanticipated events might occur which require corrective action by the manager.
- A. The subordinates' work and work method follow established procedures.
- B. Each subordinate must develop new methods and ideas to perform his own work.
- A. The subordinates' tasks are simple to perform.
- B. The subordinates must depend on each other in meeting their own effectiveness standards.
- A. The subordinate's performance is measurable, and the impact of remedial actions taken by the manager can be evaluated.
- B. The subordinates' work is in and of itself interesting, motivating, or attractive.
- A. The subordinates know less about the task than does the manager.
- B. Each subordinate can select the method, tools, or approach he wishes to use.
- A. Unplanned and unanticipated events might occur which require corrective action by the manager.
- B. The subordinates must depend on each other in meeting their own effectiveness standards.
- A. The position makes high skill or judgment demands on the individual subordinates.
- B. The subordinates' work and work method follow established procedures.
- A. Substandard work by an individual subordinate is not immediately detected.
- B. The subordinate's performance is measurable, and the impact of remedial actions taken by the manager can be evaluated.

- . A. Each subordinate can select the method, tools, or approach he wishes to use.
- . B. The manager must talk with the subordinates as a group for them to complete their tasks.
- . A. Subordinates as a group set their own pace or level of involvement.
- . B. The subordinates' work and work method follow established procedures.
- . A. More than one effective solution is possible; the relative effectiveness of these solutions is difficult to measure but improved by interaction.
- . B. The subordinate's performance is measurable, and the impact of remedial actions taken by the manager can be evaluated.
- . A. The subordinates must depend on each other in meeting their own effectiveness standards.
- . B. Substandard work by an individual subordinate is not immediately detected.
- . A. The subordinates' work is in and of itself interesting, motivating, or attractive.
- . B. The subordinates frequently need to be given directions.
- . A. The subordinates' tasks are simple to perform.
- . B. Each subordinate can select the methods, tools, or approach he wishes to use.
- . A. Each subordinate has discretion over his own effectiveness standards.
- . B. The subordinates must depend on each other in meeting their own effectiveness standards.
- . A. The subordinates know less about the task than does the manager.
- . B. The subordinates are required to think rather than to act.
- . A. The subordinates frequently need to be given directions.
- . B. Each subordinate must develop new methods and ideas to perform his own work.
- . A. The subordinates know less about the task than does the manager.
- . B. Subordinates as a group set their own pace or level of involvement.

- A. Each subordinate must develop new methods and ideas to perform his own work.
- B. The subordinates' tasks are simple to perform.
- A. The position makes high skill or judgment demands on the individual subordinate.
- B. The subordinates frequently need to be given directions.
- A. Subordinates are required to be personally committed to their own individual tasks to achieve effectiveness standards.
- B. The subordinates must depend on each other in meeting their own effectiveness standards.
- A. More than one effective solution is possible; the relative effectiveness of these solutions is difficult to measure but improved by interaction.
- B. Each subordinate has discretion over his own effectiveness standards.
- A. The manager must talk with the subordinates as a group for them to complete their tasks.
- B. The subordinates know less about the task than does the manager.
- A. Subordinates as a group set their own pace or level of involvement.
- B. Each subordinate must develop new methods and ideas to perform his own work.

SCORE REPORTSECTION IIIPHONOLOGY SCORES

Enter below the 4 values U, V, W, and X (they must total 36):

                                    
U            V            W            X

SECTION IVMEMBERSHIP SCORES

Enter below the 8 values from line 5 on the scoresheet (they must total 64):

                                                                  
B            C            D            E            F            G            H

SECTION IIIINSTRUCTIONS FOR THE "TECHNOLOGY RESULTS" SHEET

p 1: Transfer the values for U,V,W, and X from the bottom of the "Technology Score Sheet" to the top of the "Technology Results" page. These values will henceforth be referred to as the styles S', D', R', and I', respectively.

p 2: List each letter S', D', R', and/or I' as being "dominant" if its corresponding value is in the range 13 through 18. List each letter S', D', R', and/or I' as being "supporting" if its corresponding value is in the range 7 through 12.

Note: The values of S', D', R', and I' must all sum to 36.

p 3: Find values for TO and RO.

$$TO = D' + I' - 6$$

$$RO = R' + I' - 6$$

p 4: Show the coordinates of the point (TO,RO) on the graph at the bottom of the page. Indicate this point with an "X".

p 5: For each dominant style, draw a small circle in the corresponding quadrant of the graph in the corner of the quadrant opposite the center point (12,12).

For each supporting style, draw a small circle in the corresponding quadrant of the graph in the corner of the quadrant nearest the center point (12,12).

p 6: Connect all small circles with an appropriate larger figure.

s entire procedure, as well as a few examples, will be presented by the person conducting the questionnaire.



SECTION III

TECHNOLOGY RESULTS

S' = U = \_\_\_\_\_

D' = V = \_\_\_\_\_

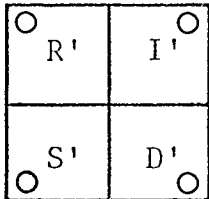
R' = W = \_\_\_\_\_

I' = X = \_\_\_\_\_

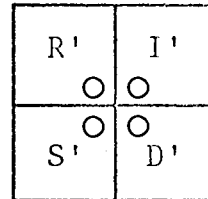
Note: S' + D' + R' + I' = 36

Dominant Styles (13-18): \_\_\_\_\_

Supporting Styles (7-12): \_\_\_\_\_



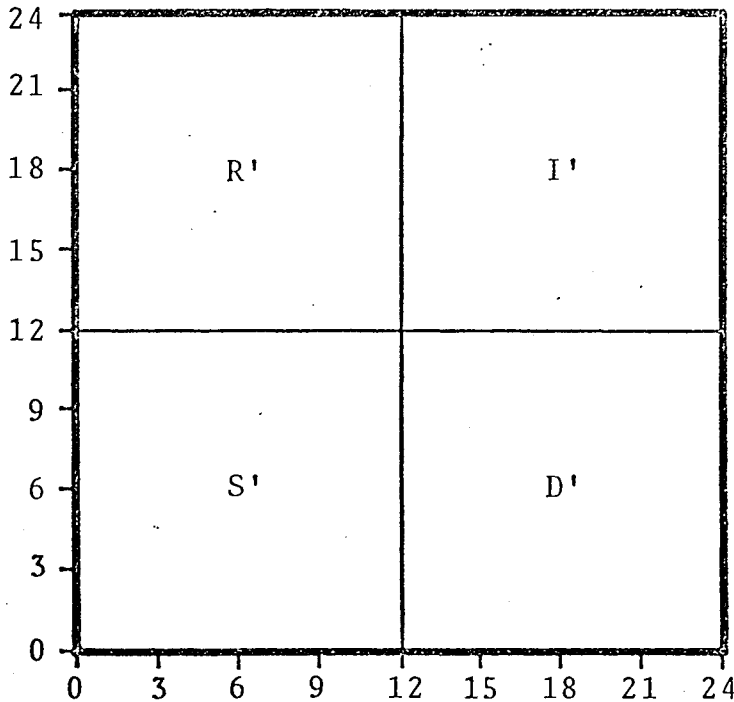
Sample Graph  
all 4 styles dominant)



Sample Graph  
(all 4 styles supporting)

TO = D' + I' - 6 = \_\_\_\_\_

RO = R' + I' - 6 = \_\_\_\_\_



Graph Dominant and Support  
Styles and Coordinates of  
Point (TO,RO)



APPENDIX B

PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS SCALE DIRECTION

	<u>Left Side of Page</u>	
(1)	8	
(2)	8	
(3)	8	
(4)	8	Factor 1, Momentum
(5)	8	
(6)	8	
(7)	8	
(8)	1	Factor 2, Organizational Credibility
(9)	1	
(10)	1	
(11)	1	
(12)	8	Factor 3, Situational Reaction to Change
(13)	1	
(14)	1	
(15)	1	
(16)	8	Factor 4, Task Orientation of Supervision
(17)	8	
(18)	8	Factor 5, Essentiality of the Organization's Role
(19)	1	

## APPENDIX C

### SITUATIONAL STYLE DESCRIPTORS

#### Related

- (1) The position makes high skill or judgement demands on the individual subordinate.
- (2) Subordinates are required to be personally committed to their own individual tasks to achieve effectiveness standards.
- (3) Each subordinate can select the method, tools, or approach he wishes to use.
- (4) Substandard work by an individual subordinate is not immediately detected.
- (5) Each subordinate must develop new methods and ideas to perform his own work.

#### Integrated

- (1) The subordinates must talk with each other to complete their tasks.
- (2) The subordinates must depend on each other in meeting their own effectiveness standards.
- (3) The manager must talk with the subordinates as a group for them to complete their tasks.
- (4) More than one effective solution is possible; the relative effectiveness of these solutions is difficult to measure but improved by interaction.
- (5) Subordinates as a group set their own pace or level of involvement.

## APPENDIX C (Continued)

## Separated

- (1) The subordinates' work and work method follow established procedures.
- (2) Each subordinate has discretion over his own effectiveness standards.
- (3) The subordinates' tasks are simple to perform.
- (4) The subordinates are required to think rather than to act.
- (5) The subordinates' work is in and of itself interesting, motivating, or attractive.

## Dedicated

- (1) The subordinates know less about the task than does the manager.
- (2) Unplanned and unanticipated events might occur which require corrective action by the manager.
- (3) The subordinates frequently need to be given directions.
- (4) The subordinate's performance is measurable, and the impact of remedial actions taken by the manager can be evaluated.

APPENDIX D

PAIRED SITUATIONAL STYLE DESCRIPTORS

(9)	I1 - R1	(3)	I1 - S1	(6)	I1 - D3
(33)	I2 - R2	(27)	I2 - S2	(11)	I2 - D3
(21)	I3 - R3	(10)	I3 - S3	(35)	I3 - D1
(12)	I4 - R3	(34)	I4 - S2	(23)	I4 - D4
(36)	I5 - R5	(22)	I5 - S1	(30)	I5 - D1
(24)	I2 - R4	(15)	I2 - S3	(18)	I2 - D2
(19)	R1 - S1	(5)	R1 - D2	(1)	S2 - D4
(7)	R3 - S1	(8)	R2 - D2	(4)	S4 - D3
(14)	R5 - S1	(17)	R3 - D1	(16)	S5 - D4
(2)	R1 - S3	(20)	R4 - D4	(13)	S2 - D2
(26)	R3 - S3	(29)	R5 - D3	(28)	S4 - D1
(31)	R5 - S3	(32)	R1 - D3	(25)	S5 - D3

	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>		<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>		<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>
(1)	S2	- D4	(13)	S2	- D2	(25)	S5	- D3
(2)	S3	- R1	(14)	S1	- R5	(26)	S3	- R3
(3)	S1	- I1	(15)	S3	- I2	(27)	S2	- I2
(4)	D3	- S4	(16)	D4	- S5	(28)	D1	- S4
(5)	D2	- R1	(17)	D1	- R3	(29)	D3	- R5
(6)	D3	- I1	(18)	D2	- I2	(30)	D1	- I5
(7)	R3	- S1	(19)	R1	- S1	(31)	R5	- S3
(8)	R2	- D2	(20)	R4	- D4	(32)	R1	- D3
(9)	R1	- I1	(21)	R3	- I3	(33)	R2	- I2
(10)	I3	- S3	(22)	I5	- S1	(34)	I4	- S2
(11)	I2	- D3	(23)	I4	- D4	(35)	I3	- D1
(12)	I4	- R3	(24)	I2	- R4	(36)	I5	- R5

APPENDIX E

KEY TO CONSTRUCTION OF TECHNOLOGY INSTRUMENT

Number of Statement	Pair	Style	A		B		Style	
			High TO	High RO	High TO	High RO		
1	13	25	-	-	X		D	
2	14	26	S	-	-		X	R
3	15	27		-	-	X	X	I
4	16	28		X		-	-	S
5	17	29	D	X			X	R
6	18	30		X		X	X	I
7	19	31			X	-	-	S
8	20	32	R		X	X		D
9	21	33			X	X	X	I
10	22	34		X	X	-	-	S
11	23	35	I	X	X	X		D
12	24	36		X	X		X	R

Style Key

S = Separated  
D = Dedicated  
R = Related  
I = Integrated

SECTION III

TECHNOLOGY

SCORE SHEET

X	1	2	3
4	X	5	6
7	8	X	9
10	11	12	X
X	13	14	15
16	X	17	18
19	20	X	21
22	23	24	X
X	25	26	27
28	X	29	30
31	32	X	33
34	35	36	X

Fill in each of the 36 numbered squares with either an "A" or a depending upon your choice from pair of statements 1 through 36 the "Technology Questions." Then. . . .

Step 1: Find values for each letter A through L. A through L represent the number of A's in e horizontal row.

Step 2: Find values for each letter M through P. M through P represent the number of B's in e vertical row.

Step 3: Find values for Q,R,S,

$$Q = A + E + I$$

$$R = B + F + J$$

$$S = C + G + K$$

$$T = D + H + L$$

Step 4: Find values for U,V,W,

$$U = M + Q$$

$$V = N + R$$

$$W = O + S$$

$$X = P + T$$

Step 5: Check to make certain  $U + V + W + X = 36$

Step 6: Record your values for U,V,W, and X on the "Score Repor sheet."

M	N	O	P
Q	R	S	T
U	V	W	X

SECTION III

TECHNOLOGY RESULTS

$$S' = U = \underline{13}$$

$$D' = V = \underline{10}$$

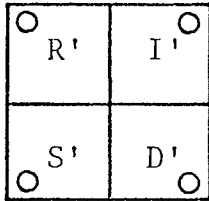
$$R' = W = \underline{6}$$

$$I' = X = \underline{7}$$

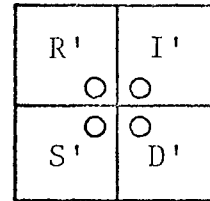
Note:  $S' + D' + R' + I' = 36$

Dominant Styles (13-18): S'

Supporting Styles (7-12): D', I'



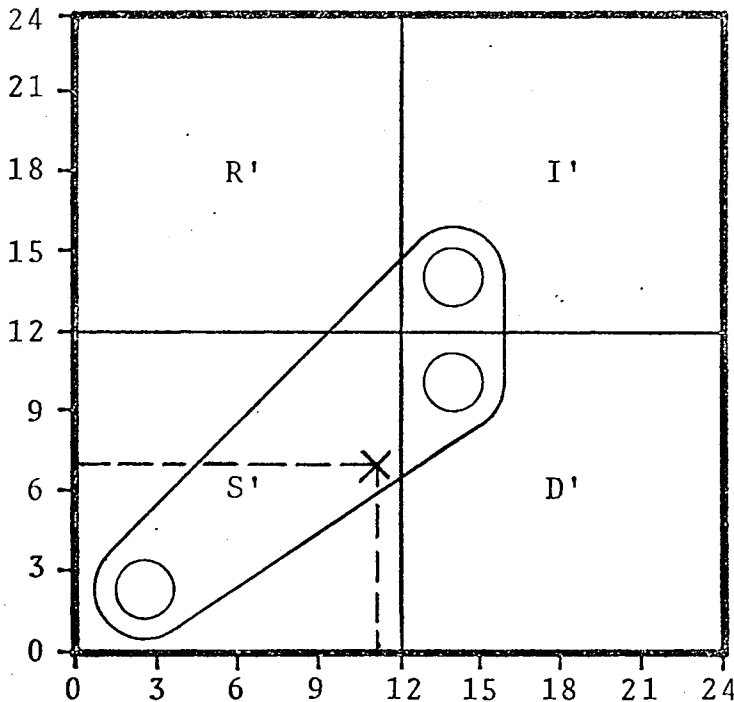
Sample Graph  
(all 4 styles dominant)



Sample Graph  
(all 4 styles supporting)

$$TO = D' + I' - 6 = \underline{10 + 7 - 6 = 11}$$

$$RO = R' + I' - 6 = \underline{6 + 7 - 6 = 7}$$



Graph Dominant and Support  
Styles and Coordinates of  
Point (TO,RO)



SECTION III

TECHNOLOGY RESULTS

$S' = U = \underline{18}$

$D' = V = \underline{12}$

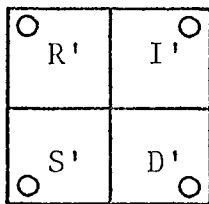
$R' = W = \underline{0}$

$I' = X = \underline{6}$

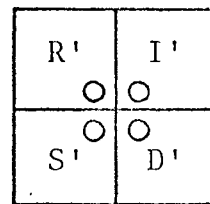
Note:  $S' + D' + R' + I' = 36$

Dominant Styles (13-18): S'

Supporting Styles (7-12): D'



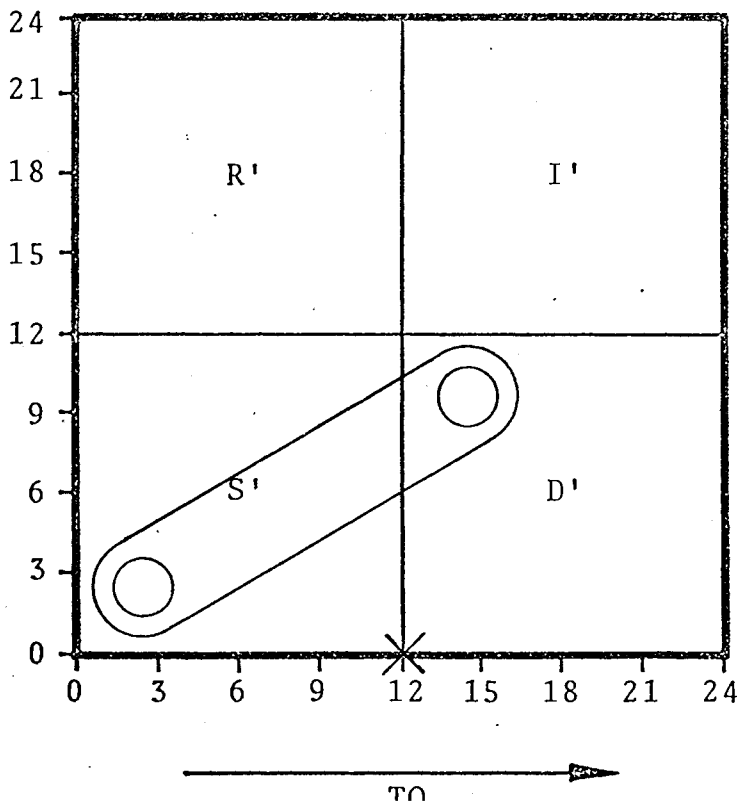
Sample Graph  
(all 4 styles dominant)



Sample Graph  
(all 4 styles supporting)

$TO = D' + I' - 6 = \underline{12 + 6 - 6 = 12}$

$RO = R' + I' - 6 = \underline{0 + 6 - 6 = 0}$



Graph Dominant and Support  
Styles and Coordinates of  
Point (TO,RO)

SECTION III

TECHNOLOGY RESULTS

$S' = U = \underline{10}$

$D' = V = \underline{8}$

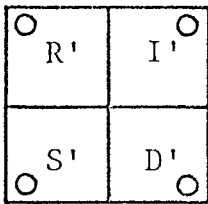
$R' = W = \underline{10}$

$I' = X = \underline{8}$

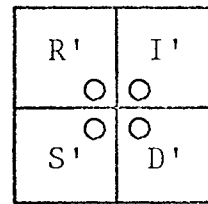
Note:  $S' + D' + R' + I' = 36$

Dominant Styles (13-18):           -          

Supporting Styles (7-12):  $S', D', R', I'$



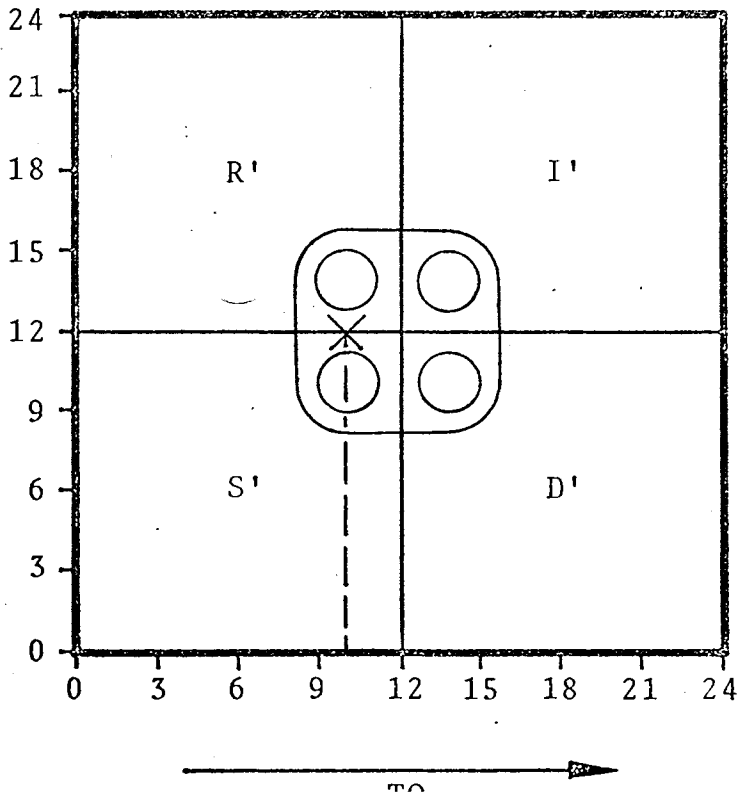
Sample Graph  
(all 4 styles dominant)



Sample Graph  
(all 4 styles supporting)

$TO = D' + I' - 6 = \underline{8+8-6=10}$

$RO = R' + I' - 6 = \underline{10+8-6=12}$



Graph Dominant and Support Styles and Coordinates of Point (TO,RO)

VITA

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